



J. Selye University  
Faculty of Education

*orpheme*

Anna T. Litovkina

Szilvia N. Varagya

*word*

# Lecture Notes on Morphology

*root*

*inflection*

**Anna T. Litovkina – Szilvia N. Varagya**

# **Lecture Notes on Morphology**

© Dr. habil. Anna T. Litovkina, PhD.  
J. Selye University

© Mgr. Szilvia Néveri Varagya  
J. Selye University

Szakmai lektorok / Reviewed by:  
Dr. Barta Péter, CSc.  
Doc. Fedoszov Oleg, PhD.

ISBN 978-80-8122-414-0



Selye János Egyetem  
Tanárképző Kar  
J. Selye University  
Faculty of Education

**Anna T. Litovkina – Szilvia N. Varagya**

## **Lecture Notes on Morphology**

Komárom  
2022



# Table of contents

Preface .....	7
<b>PART I .....</b>	<b>9</b>
Unit 1 – An Introduction to the Course on English Morphology .....	11
Unit 2 – Morphemes, Derivation and Inflection .....	16
Unit 3 – Affixes, Derivational and Inflectional Morphemes .....	21
Unit 4 – Main Types of Word-formation .....	27
Unit 5 – Derivation (or Affixation) .....	33
Unit 6 – Conversion (or zero derivation) .....	40
Unit 7 – Reduplication, Back-formation, Hybrid Words, Blends .....	43
Unit 8 – Abbreviations, Acronyms and Initialisms .....	47
Unit 9 – Compounding .....	51
Unit 10 – Clipping, Hypocorisms, Borrowings .....	57
Unit 11 – Eponyms, Metaphorical Extension, Onomatopoeia .....	62
Unit 12 – Tree diagrams, The Bracketing Paradox .....	64
Unit 13 – Conclusion, glossary of most important terms .....	67
<b>PART II .....</b>	<b>75</b>
Syllabus .....	77
Test 1 requirements .....	81
Test 2 requirements .....	83
Morphology Test 1 .....	85
Morphology Test 1 Answer Sheet .....	88
Morphology Test 2 .....	90
Morphology Test 2 Answer Sheet .....	93
Final Exam Requirements .....	95
Morphology Exam .....	98
Morphology Exam Answer Sheet .....	101

PART III ..... 109

Glossary ..... 114

Bibliography ..... 146

# Preface

## Organization of the Book

The book is divided into 3 parts. The first part of the book is organized into thirteen units, or lecture notes<sup>1</sup> on morphology. Each unit is introduced by a lecture outline and homework. The second part of the book contains the syllabus of the course, midterm test requirements, midterm tests, as well as final exam requirements. Last but not least, part II includes final exam tests. Finally, the third part of the book provides a glossary of main morphological terms. The glossary was compiled by Anna T. Litovkina's students who attended her course on Introduction to linguistics she was teaching in Poland (Tischner European University, Krakow) in 2012. At the end of the book a list of bibliographical data is found.

## Acknowledgements

Sincere thanks go to Péter Barta, Mária Bartal, Oleg Fedoszov, and József Keserű, who have contributed to the reviewing, editing and publication of the book.

---

<sup>1</sup> The Notes have been based on numerous printed and online sources, in particular, Jule 2010: 52-79; Fromkin et al. 2011: 76-116; Carstairs-McCarthy 2002 (see Reference section).





## **PART I**

Part I is organized into thirteen units, or lecture notes. Each unit is introduced by a lecture outline and homework.



# UNIT 1

## An Introduction to the Course on English Morphology

### Lecture outline

- ✦ Morphology
- ✦ A morpheme
- ✦ A word
- ✦ A lexeme
- ✦ A lemma
- ✦ Categories and subcategories of words
- ✦ Word classes
- ✦ Bound and free morphemes
- ✦ Derivational and inflectional morphemes

### Homework

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002): *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Introduction (pp. 1-3); Chapter 2 (pp. 4-15)

PPP

### Morphology

- ✦ study of the internal structure of words, and of rules by which words are formed, i.e. morphemes, and how they make up words.
- ✦ the science of word forms

**-ology**: science of

Greek **morphe** (form)

### A morpheme

- ✦ is the smallest (meaningful) linguistic unit.
- ✦ In spoken language, morphemes are composed of **phonemes** (the smallest linguistically distinctive units of sound),

In written language morphemes are composed of **graphemes** (the smallest units of written language).

## A word

- ✦ the smallest unit which can stand alone.
- ✦ **tree** is a word, **tree-s** is a word, **-s** is not a word but a morpheme.
- ✦ may consist of only one morpheme (e.g. **wolf**), but a single morpheme may not be able to exist as a free form (e.g. the English plural morpheme **-s**).
- ✦ typically consists of a root or stem (the core of the form), and zero or more affixes.

Words can be combined to create other units of language, such as phrases. clauses, and/or sentences.

A word consisting of two or more stems joined together form a **compound** (*school-girl*).

## A lexeme

- ✦ a set of forms taken by a single word.
- ✦ *run, runs, ran* and *running* are forms of the same lexeme, conventionally written as **RUN**.

A related concept is the **lemma** (or **citation form**), which is a particular form of a lexeme that is chosen by convention to represent a canonical form of a lexeme.

Lemmas are used in dictionaries as the headwords, and other forms of a lexeme are often listed later in the entry if they are not common conjugations of that word.

## Lexeme RUN

- ✦ a lexeme in many languages will have many different **forms**.
- ✦ a present third person form *runs*,
- ✦ a present non-third-person singular form *run* (which also functions as the past participle and non-finite form),
- ✦ a past form *ran*,
- ✦ a present participle *running*.

(It does not include *runner, runners, runnable*, etc.)

A **lemma** (or word stem, plural *lemmas* or *lemmata*)

the canonical form (or or citation form of a set of forms, i.e. headword), e.g., *run, runs, ran* and *running* are forms of the same lexeme, with *run* as the lemma.

is the canonical form of a lexeme.

*Lexeme* refers to the set of all the forms that have the same meaning, and *lemma* refers to the particular form that is chosen by convention to represent the lexeme.

The process of determining the *lemma* for a given word is called lemmatisation.

### **In a dictionary**

the lemma “go” represents the inflected forms “go”, “goes”, “going”, “went”, and “gone”.

The relationship between an inflected form and its lemma is usually denoted by an angle bracket, e.g., “went” < “go”.

The form that is chosen to be the lemma is usually the least marked form.

### **Difference between stem and lemma**

A stem is the part of the word that never changes even when morphologically inflected, whilst a lemma is the base form of the word.

from “produced”, the lemma is “produce”, but the stem is “produc-”. This is because there are words such as **production**.

Some lexemes have several stems but one lemma. For instance “to go” (the lemma) has the stems “go” and “wen-”. (The “-t” of “went” may be considered as being derived from the past tense “-ed”.)

### **Categories and subcategories of words**

different types of words are variously called **parts of speech** (**word classes**, or **lexical categories**).

*The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* gives this list of 8 for English:

- + noun
- + pronoun
- + verb
- + adjective
- + adverb
- + conjunction
- + preposition
- + interjection

## Word classes:

**Content words** are words that have **meaning**. New content words are constantly added to the English language; old content words constantly leave the language as they become obsolete.

### an “open” class.

- ✦ Nouns
- ✦ Verbs
- ✦ Adjectives
- ✦ Adverbs

**Function words** are words that exist to explain or create grammatical or structural relationships into which the content words may fit. They are much fewer in number and generally do not change as English adds and omits content words.

### a “closed” class.

- ✦ Pronouns
- ✦ Prepositions
- ✦ Conjunctions
- ✦ Determiners

## Morphemes

- ✦ the **stem, root** (or **base**) is basic, or core
- ✦ the add-ons are **affixes**.
- ✦ Affixes that precede the stem are **prefixes**
- ✦ Affixes that follow the stem are **suffixes**.

in *rearranged*, *re-* is a prefix, *arrange* is a stem, and *-d* is a suffix.

Morphemes can also be **infixes**, which are inserted within another form.

English doesn't really have any infixes, except perhaps for certain expletives in expressions like *un-effing-believable* or *Kalama-effing-zoo*.

## Bound and free morphemes

**free morpheme:** a morpheme which can stand alone to make a word by itself.

*smart, car, yes, blue* in *blueberry*

**bound morpheme:** a morpheme which cannot stand alone to make a word, but must be combined with something else within a word.

in general tends to be a prefix and suffix.

plural -s in *tree-s*, in *dog-s*

*de-* in *detoxify*,

*-tion* in *creation*.

## **Derivational and inflectional morphemes**

### **Derivational**

can be added to a word to create (derive) another word.

change the part of speech or the basic meaning of a word, i.e. carry semantic information.

### **Inflectional**

modify a word's tense, number, aspect, etc., without deriving a new word or a word in a new grammatical category, i.e. vary (or inflect).

carry grammatical information.

*big, bigger, biggest; boy, boys; run, runn-ing*

### **-er: Inflectional or derivational?**

*-er: sing-er, work-er, runn-er...*

*-er: tall-er, heavi-er, smart-er, old-er*



# UNIT 2

## Morphemes, Derivation and Inflection

### Lecture outline

- ♦ An uninflected word
- ♦ Null (zero) morpheme
- ♦ A cranberry morpheme
- ♦ Recurrent morphemes
- ♦ Nonrecurrent morphemes
- ♦ Monomorphemic words
- ♦ Polymorphemic words
- ♦ Roots, stems, bases

### Homework

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press.

Introduction (pp. 1-3)

Chapter 2 (pp. 4-15)

PPP

### An uninflected word

is a word that has no morphological markers (inflection), e.g. prepositions, interjections and conjunctions

If a word has an uninflected form, this is usually the form used as the **lemma** for the word.

nouns are said to be uninflected in the singular, while they show inflection in the plural (represented by the affix *-s/-es*).

In the strict sense, only mass nouns (such as *sand*, *information*, or *equipment*) are truly uninflected, since they have only one form that does not change; count nouns are always inflected for number, even if the singular inflection is shown by an “invisible” affix (the null morpheme).

verbs are inflected for person and tense even if the morphology showing those cate-

gories is realized as null morphemes.

### **Null (zero) morpheme**

is a morpheme that is realized by a phonologically null affix (an empty string of phonological segments), or an “invisible” affix.

### **Null affixation (null derivation or zero derivation)**

the process of adding a null morpheme

is represented as either the figure zero (0), or the empty set symbol  $\emptyset$ .

The existence of a null morpheme in a word can also be theorized by contrast with other forms of the same word showing alternate morphemes.

### **A null morpheme marks**

singular number of nouns that contrasts with the plural morpheme *-s*.

*cat* = *cat* +  $\emptyset$  = ROOT (“cat”) + SINGULAR

*cats* = *cat* + *-s* = ROOT (“cat”) + PLURAL

plurality in nouns that take on irregular plurals.

*sheep* = *sheep* +  $\emptyset$  = ROOT (“sheep”) + SINGULAR

*sheep* = *sheep* +  $\emptyset$  = ROOT (“sheep”) + PLURAL

present tense of verbs in all forms but the third person singular:

(I) *run* = *run* +  $\emptyset$  = ROOT (“run”) + PRESENT: Non-3rd-SING

(He) *runs* = *run* + *-s* = ROOT (“run”) + PRESENT: 3rd-SING

Most morphemes are **neither derivational nor inflectional**.

### **A cranberry morpheme (or unique morpheme, or nonrecurrent morpheme)**

is a bound morpheme with extremely limited distribution so that it occurs in only one (or very few) words.

whose meaning by itself, or a grammatical function is unclear or unknown

*cran-* in **cranberry**

as opposed to the *blue* in ‘**blueberry**’ or even the *goose* in ‘**gooseberry**’.

### **Recurrent morphemes:**

*work-er, sing-er, speak-er, runn-er, ...*

*un-kind, un-healthy, un-imaginative, un-ethical, ...*

### **Nonrecurrent morphemes:**

*luke-warm* (sort of, somewhat)

*cran-berry*

*twi-light*

*cob-web*

### **Monomorphemic word**

*finger* is a single morpheme, or a **monomorphemic word**.

The final *-er* syllable in *finger* is not a separate morpheme because a *finger* is not "something that fings."

*-father* (not the one who fathes),

*-mother* (not the one who mothes),

*-water* (is also a single morpheme)

### **Morpheme or not?**

*-er* and *-ster* have the same meaning, but different forms.

*singer* and *songster*: "one who sings."

*-ster* is not a morpheme in *monster*

a monster is not something that "mons" or someone that "is mon"

*youngster* is someone who is young.

### **Polymorphemic (morphemically complex) words**

*house-s, difficult-y, un-bear-able, work-er-s, ...*

*pur-ify, simpl-ify, ampl-ify, ugl-ify, ...*

*glor-ify, person-ify, object-ify, beaut-ify, ...*

*\*anгр-ify, \*thing-ify*

### **Root, stem, base, word**

**Root:** A lexical content morpheme that cannot be analyzed into smaller parts.

**Word:** *sing* in *sing-er*, *read* in *re-read*,

**Not-word** (or **bound root**): *ceive* in *con-ceive*, *ling* in *ling-uist*.

### **Stem: a root morpheme combined with an affix**

word: *singers*

stem: *singer*

root: *sing*

### **A base**

Linguists sometimes use the word **base** to mean any root or stem to which an affix is attached.

In the preceding example, *system*, *systematic*, *unsystematic*, and *unsystematical* are bases.

### **A root**

is the primary lexical unit of a word, which carries the most significant aspects of semantic content and cannot be reduced into smaller constituents.

Content words may consist only of root morphemes.

However, sometimes the term “root” is also used to describe the word minus its inflectional endings, but with its lexical endings (derivational affixes) in place.

*chatters* has the inflectional root or lemma *chatter*, but the lexical root *chat*.

Inflectional roots are often called stems, and a root in the stricter sense may be thought of as a monomorphemic stem.

### **A stem**

1. a form to which affixes can be attached. Thus, in this usage, the English word *friendships* contains the stem *friend*, to which the derivational suffix *-ship* is attached to form a new stem *friendship*, to which the inflectional suffix *-s* is attached. In a variant of this usage, the root of the word (in the example, *friend*) is not counted as a stem.

2. part of the word that is common to all its inflected variants. Thus, in this usage, all derivational affixes are part of the stem. For example, the stem of *friendships* is *friendship*, to which the inflectional suffix *-s* is attached.

## Stems may be

- + roots, e.g. *run*,
- + words with derivational morphemes (cf. the derived verbs *black-en* or *stand-ard-ize*).

the stem of the complex English noun *photographer* is *photo-graph-er*, but not *photo*. the root of the English verb form *destabilized* is *stabil-*, a form of *stable* that does not occur alone; the stem is *de-stabil-ize*, which includes the derivational affixes *de-* and *-ize*, but not the inflectional past tense suffix *-(e)d*. That is, **a stem is that part of a word that inflectional affixes attach to.**

## Root meaning obscure, bound roots

*Receive, conceive, perceive, deceive* from Latin **capere** (to seize)

*Permit, commit, submit, transmit, admit* from Latin **mittere** (Latin: to send)

# UNIT 3

## Affixes, Derivational and Inflectional Morphemes

### Lecture outline

- ♦ Affixes
- ♦ Affixation
- ♦ Prefixes
- ♦ Suffixes
- ♦ Infixes
- ♦ Circumfixes
- ♦ Inflectional and derivational morphemes
- ♦ What happens if an affix is used wrongly?
- ♦ Exercises

### Homework

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press.

Introduction (pp. 1-3)

Chapter 2 (pp. 4-15)

PPP

### Affix

- ♦ a functional bound morpheme, attached to a word stem to form a new word
- ♦ typically short and with a functional meaning.
- ♦ may be derivational (-ness and pre-; re in re-write), or inflectional (only suffixes: plural -s and past tense -ed; -s in cat-s).

**Affixation** is the linguistic process speakers use to form new words (neologisms) by adding affixes at the beginning (prefixation), the middle (infixation) or the end (suffixation) of words.

### An infix

is an affix inserted inside a stem.

contrasts with *adfix*, a rare term for an affix attached to the outside of a stem, such as a prefix or suffix.

The <*ma*> infix gives a word an ironic pseudo-sophistication: *sophistimacated*, *saxomaphone*, and *edumacation*.

The infix <*iz*> or <*izn*> is characteristic of hip-hop slang:

*bizouse* for *house* and *shiznit* for *shit*.

### Infixes

Britain: *bloomin*

*Abso+bloomin+lutely*

"Oh, wouldn't it be lovely?" "Oh, so lovely sittin'" "*Absobloominlutely* still..." (Eliza Doolittle: *My Fair Lady*)

### Circumfixes in German

morphemes that are attached to a base morpheme both initially and finally.

The past participle of regular verbs is formed by adding the prefix *ge-* and the suffix *-t* to the verb root.

verb root *lieb* "love" → *geliebt*, "loved" (or "beloved," when used as an adjective).

### Circumfix in Chickasaw

In Chickasaw, a Muskogean language spoken in Oklahoma, the negative is formed with both a prefix *ik-* and the suffix *-o*.

The final vowel of the affirmative is dropped before the negative suffix is added.

**Affirmative:** *chokma* "he is good"

**Negative:** *ik + chokm + o* "he isn't good"

**Affirmative:** *la k n a* "it is yellow"

**Negative:** *i k + la k n + o* "it isn't yellow"

## Prefix

an affix which precedes the element it is attached to.

*un-* in *un-likely*

Meanings of derivational prefix *un-*

- "not" when applied to adjectives,

- reversing **action** when applied to verbs

### *un-* forms have unpredictable meanings

unloosen "loosen, let loose"

unrip "rip, undo by ripping"

undo "reverse doing"

untread "go back through in the same steps"

unearth "dig up"

unfrock "deprive (a cleric) of ecclesiastic rank"

unnerv "fluster"

## A suffix

is an affix which is placed after the stem of a word.

case endings, which indicate the grammatical case of nouns or adjectives, and verb

endings, which form the conjugation of verbs.

can carry

grammatical information (inflectional suffixes): *Girls; He makes; It closed.*

lexical information (derivational suffixes): *grate-ful-ness.*

### **Derivational morphemes can be added to a word to create (derive) another word.**

change the part of speech or the basic meaning of a word, i.e. carry semantic information.

*judgment; reactivate; happiness*

may appear either as prefixes or suffixes: *prearrange, arrangement.*

typically occur 'inside' inflectional affixes: *governments.*

are often not productive or regular in form or meaning



can be selective about what they combine with:

*-hood*:

*brotherhood, neighborhood, knighthood,*

*\*friendhood, \*daughterhood*

## Derivational Suffixes

### Derivational suffixes in adjectival forms of the names of countries

#### Citizen and locality

*Citizen of X* and adjectival form meaning *associated with locality X* usually but not always the same.

Exceptions:

*Pole/Polish; Swede/Swedish; Scot/Scottish; Greenlandic/Greenlander.*

pluralization: “the French” and “the Chinese” but “the Greeks” and “the Canadians”.

plural forms “the Frenches” and “the Chineses” are not possible.

### Properties of some derivational affixes

#### Turning a noun into a verb

**Iconify:** *icon* and *-ify*, meaning “make into an icon.”

many languages lack any general way to turn a noun *X* into a verb meaning “to make into (an) *X*”, and so must use the longer-winded mode of expression.

*vaporize* not *\*vaporify*,

*emulsify* not *\*emulsionify*.

### Inflectional morphemes

- ♦ modify a word’s tense, number, aspect, etc. , without deriving a new word or a word in a new grammatical category, i.e. vary (or inflect).
- ♦ carry grammatical information.
- ♦ suffixes only.
- ♦ do not change basic syntactic category: *big, bigger, biggest* adjectives; *boy* and *boys* nouns.

- ♦ occur outside any derivational morphemes.

In *ration-al-iz-ation-s* the final *-s* is inflectional, and appears at the very end of the word, outside the derivational morphemes *-al*, *-iz*, *-ation*.

### **Inflectional morphemes**

*I sail.*

*He sails.*

*John sailed.*

*John has sailed.*

*John is sailing.*

### **Productive affixes:**

apply freely to nearly every appropriate base (excepting “irregular” forms such as *feet*, not *\*foots*).

### **Inflectional Suffixes**

#### **Italian verb *parlare* (to speak)**

Io parlo (I speak)

Tu parli (You (singular) speak)

Lui/Lei parla (He/she speaks)

Noi parliamo (We speak)

Voi parlate (You (plural) speak)

Loro parlano (They speak)

### **Suffix *-ing*: borderline between inflection and derivation**

#### **Exercise: Inflectional or derivational?**

*She is going.*

*Falling* water; *stinking* mess

*Flying* can be dangerous; *losing* is painful.

## What happens if an affix is used wrongly?

### Derivational

- ♦ \*smarthood instead of smartness ♦ \*chlorinify instead of chlorinate
- “ ill-formed WORDS “

### Inflectional

- ♦ \*he is walks instead of he is walking
  - ♦ \*I have two cat instead of I have two cats
- “ ill-formed (= ungrammatical) SENTENCES “

Combinations which would be impossible

\*arrivize, ?\*bitterize, ?\*electricize

\*absentism (but *absenteeism*), \*racialism (but *racism*), \*arguism

(WHAT WE KNOW: *-ize* is a Vsuffix which can be make verb stems only from adjectives or nouns which do not already have another verb stem form (hence \**bitterize*); *-ism* is a Nsuffix which can be added only to noun roots or stems to form nouns)

### Exercise: Identify and correct the incorrect words

- I am very relax here.
- I am very boring with this game.
- I am very satisfactory with my life.
- Some flowers are very attracting to some insects.
- His grades proof that he is a hard worker.
- My culture is very difference from yours.

### Exercise: Divide each of the following words into their smallest meaningful parts:

*landholder*,

*demagnetizability*.

# UNIT 4

## Main Types of Word-formation

### Lecture outline

- ♦ Emily Dickinson: *A Word Is Dead*
- ♦ Word formation
- ♦ Main word formation processes
- ♦ Lexical Change
- ♦ Coinage
- ♦ A neologism
- ♦ A nonce word
- ♦ Regular and irregular inflection
- ♦ Suppletion
- ♦ Symbolism

### Homework

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press, Chapter 3 (pp. 16-27)  
PPP

### Emily Dickinson: *A Word Is Dead*

A word is dead  
When it is said,  
Some say.  
I say it just  
Begins to live  
That day.

### Word formation

the creation of a new word.

is sometimes contrasted with semantic (a change in a single word's meaning).

The line between word formation and semantic change is sometimes a bit blurry: what one person views as a new use of an old word, another person might view as a new word derived from an old one and identical to it in form.

### **Main word formation processes**

**Derivation** - adding prefixes or suffixes to form a new word

– *Clinton*    *Clintonize*

**Compounding** - combining two existing words

– *home* + *page*    *homepage*

**Clipping** - shortening a polysyllabic word

– *Internet*    *net*

**Acronyms** - take initial sounds or letters to form new word

– *Scuba*    *Self Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus*

**Blending** - combine parts of two words

– *motor* + *hotel*    *motel*

### **Backformation**

– *resurrection*    *resurrect*

**conversion (category extension)**: extending a word from one syntactic category to another.

– *chair* (N) > *chair* (V)

**eponyms**: new words based on the name of a person or a place are called.

– *jeans* (from the Italian city of Genoa where the type of cloth was first made).

### **borrowing**

– *vodka* (Russian),

**calque**: a direct translation of the elements of a word (words) into the borrowing language.

– English *skyscraper* → *felhőkarcoló*

### **Lexical Change**

- ♦ changes in the lexical categories of words (i.e., their “parts of speech”): *text* has been “verbed” and means “to communicate by text message,”
- ♦ addition of new words (neologisms),
- ♦ the “borrowing” of words from another language,

- ♦ the loss of words,
- ♦ the shift in the meaning of words over time.

## Coinage

- ♦ the invention of totally new terms
- ♦ trade names for commercial products that become general terms (usually without capital letters)
- ♦ older examples: *aspirin*, *nylon*, *vaseline* and *zipper*;
- ♦ more recent examples: *granola*, *kleenex*, *teflon* and *xerox*

## Google

The most salient contemporary example of coinage.

- ♦ Originally a misspelling for the word *googol* (= the number 1 followed by 100 zeros) ↓
- ♦ the creation of the word *Googleplex* ↓
- ♦ the name of a company (*Google*) ↓
- ♦ to *google*: “to use the internet to find information.”

## A neologism

(from Greek *νέος* (*neo* ‘new’ + *logos* ‘word’)

- ♦ a newly coined word that may be in the process of entering common use, but has not yet been accepted into mainstream language.
- ♦ often directly attributable to a specific person, publication, period, or event.
- ♦ According to Oxford English Dictionary the term *neologism* was first used in print in AD 1483.

## Neologisms are created by:

- ♦ combining existing words (compounding)
- ♦ giving words new and unique suffixes or prefixes
- ♦ portmanteaux (blends) are combined words that begin to be used commonly.
- ♦ abbreviation, or acronym
- ♦ nonce words

## Neologisms

Whether a neologism continues as part of the language depends on many factors, probably the most important of which is acceptance by the public.

It is unusual for a word to enter common use if it does not resemble another word or words in an identifiable way.

When a word or phrase is no longer “new”, it is no longer a neologism. may take decades to become “old”.

Opinions differ on exactly how old a word must be to cease being considered a neologism.

## Words or phrases created to describe new scientific hypotheses, discoveries, inventions, futuristic ideas:

*X-ray*, or *röntgenograph* (November 8, 1895, by Röntgen)

*hyperspace* (1934)

*Radar* (1941) from **R**adio **D**etection **A**nd **R**anging

*black hole* (in the 1960s)

*laser* (1960) from **L**ight **A**mplification by **S**timulated **E**mission of **R**adiation

*cyberspace* (1984)

## A nonce word

a word invented to be used for a single specific occasion; or an old word of which only one occurrence has been found.

frequently arises through the combination of an existing word with a familiar prefix or suffix, in order to meet a particular need.

plays a role in the language development of children.

The use of the term *nonce word* in this way was apparently the work of James Murray, the influential editor of the OED.

*Quark* was a nonce word appearing only in James Joyce's *Finnegan's Wake* until it was quoted it to name a new class of subatomic particle.

## Regular and irregular inflection

1. *walk* - *walk-ed* / *lip* - *lips*

2. *go* - *went* / *tooth* - *teeth*

## Verbs

sing	sang	sung
swim	swam	swum
sink	sank	sunk
bring	brought	brought
teach	taught	taught

## en

break	broke	broken
eat	ate	eaten
write	wrote	written
ride	rode	ridden

## Suppletion

complete change in the form of a root (i.e., a word) or in the replacement of root by another morphologically unrelated root with the same component of meaning in different grammatical contents.

*good* and *well* → *better* and *best*

*bad* and *badly* → *worse* and *worst*

*be* → *am*, *are*, *is*

*am/is* → *was*

*are* → *were*

*go* → *went*

## Exceptions and Suppletions: more examples

### nouns

*child* → *children*

*man* → *men*

*foot* → *feet*

*mouse* → *mice*



## Symbolism

consists in altering the internal phonemic structure of a morpheme to indicate grammatical functions

the new words created by the process of symbolism are usually considered **irregular forms** and have come to be as a result of historical changes in the development of the language.

## Nouns

*goose* → *geese*

*tooth* → *teeth*

*man* → *men*

*woman* → *women*

*mouse* → *mice* ,

*louse* → *lice*

## suppletion:

**distinct roots that stand in suppletive relationship as representatives of one lexeme.**

a. *ox-en*, *formul-ae*, *cact-i* (suppleted affix)

b. *go - went*, *be - was* (full suppletion)

c. *can - could*, *think - thought* (partial suppletion)

# UNIT 5

## Derivation (or Affixation)

### Lecture outline

- ♦ Derivation
- ♦ Derivational suffixes
- ♦ Derivational suffixes causing a change in grammatical class
- ♦ Derivational suffixes not causing a change in grammatical class
- ♦ The prefix -un
- ♦ An *unbirthday*
- ♦ Blocking
- ♦ The suffix -able
- ♦ Multiple suffixation

### Homework

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*.  
Edinburgh University Press.

Chapter 5 (pp. 44-58)

PPP

### Derivation

Giving words new and unique suffixes or prefixes (or affixes)

Used to form new words, as with *happiness* and *un-happy* from *happy*, or *determination* from *determine*.

A derivational suffix usually applies to words of one syntactic category and changes them into words of another syntactic.

### Derivational suffixes

adjective-to-noun: -ness (*slow* → *slowness*)

adjective-to-verb: -ise (*modern* → *modernise*) in British English or -ize (*archaic* → *archaize*) in American English

noun-to-adjective: *-al* (*recreation* → *recreational*)

noun-to-verb: *-fy* (*glory* → *glorify*)

verb-to-adjective: *-able* (*drink* → *drinkable*)

verb-to-noun (abstract): *-ance* (*deliver* → *deliverance*)

verb-to-noun (concrete): *-er* (*write* → *writer*)

### **-ify**

Adjective + *ify* = verb: ***Purify, simplify, falsify***

Noun + *ify* = verb: ***objectify, glorify, personify***

-cation to *uglify* *uglification* (as in *glorification, simplification, falsification, and purification*).

By using the **morphological rules** of English, Lewis Carroll created new words: ***uglification, uglifying, uglify***

“I never heard of ***Uglification***,” Alice ventured to say. “What is it?”

The Gryphon lifted up both its paws in surprise. “Never heard of ***uglifying***!” it exclaimed. “You know what to beautify is, I suppose?”

“Yes,” said Alice, doubtfully: it means—to—make—anything—prettier.”

“Well, then,” the Gryphon went on, “if you don’t know what to ***uglify*** is, you are a simpleton.” (Lewis Carroll, *Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland*)

## **Derivational suffixes causing a change in grammatical class**

### **Noun to Adjective**

*boy* + *-ish*

*virtu* + *-ous*

*Elizabeth* + *-an*

*pictur* + *-esque*

*affection* + *-ate*

*health* + *-ful*

*alcohol* + *-ic*

### **Noun to Verb**

*moral* + -ize

*vaccin* + -ate

*h a s t* + -en

### **Verb to Adjective**

*read* + -able

*creat* + -ive

*migrat* + -ory

*run(n)* + -y

### **Verb to Noun**

*clear* + -ance

*accus* + -ation

*conform* + -ist

*sing* + -er

*predict* + -ion

### **Adjective to Adverb**

*exact* + -ly

### **Adjective to Noun**

*tall* + -ness

*specific* + -ity

*feudal* + -ism

*free* + -dom

### **Derivational suffixes not causing a change in grammatical class**

#### **Noun to Noun**

*friend* + -ship

*human* + -ity

*king* + -dom

*America + -n*  
*mono- + theism*  
*dis- + advantage*  
*ex- + wife*  
*auto- + biography*

### Adjective to Adjective

*pink + -ish*  
*red + -like*  
*a- + moral*  
*il- + legal*  
*in- + accurate*  
*un- + happy*  
*semi- + annual*  
*dis- + agreeable*

### Verb to Verb

*un- + do*  
*re- + cover*  
*dis- + believe*  
*auto- + destruct*

### An *unbirthday*

(originally written **un-birthday**) is an event that can be celebrated on any day that is not the person's birthday.

neologism coined in Lewis Carroll's *Through the Looking Glass* giving rise to the song "A Very Merry Unbirthday to You" in the 1951 Disney animated feature film *Alice In Wonderland*

'they gave it me--for an *un-birthday* present.'

'I beg your pardon?' Alice said with a puzzled air.

'I'm not offended,' said Humpty Dumpty.

'I mean, what IS an *un-birthday* present?'

‘A present given when it isn’t your birthday, of course.’ (Lewis Carroll: *Through the Looking Glass*)

**The Unbirthday Song** (From the Walt Disney film “*Alice In Wonderland*”, 1951)

Statistics prove, prove that you’ve one birthday  
One birthday every year  
But there are three hundred and sixty four unbirthdays  
That is why we’re gathered here to cheer

A very merry unbirthday to you, to you  
A very merry unbirthday to you, to you  
It’s great to drink to someone  
And I guess that you will do ...<sup>2</sup>

**un-**

in Webster’s Third International Dictionary of the English Language 2,700 adjectives beginning with *un-*.

*Uneaten, unadmired, ungrammatical*

**Un-**

**Regular uses**

*common* → *uncommon*

*friendly* → *unfriendly*

*natural* → *unnatural*

**New uses**

*wedding* → *un-wedding*

*cola* → *uncola*

*Mother’s Day* → *un-Mother’s Day*

---

<sup>2</sup> [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=\\_2A4rhKv9lo](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_2A4rhKv9lo)

birthday → unbirthday

### Blocking

When a new word enters the lexicon by the application of morphological rules, other complex derivations may be **blocked**.

- *Commun* + *ist* entered the language, words such as *Commun* + *ite* (as in *Trotsky* + *ite*) or *Commun* + *ian* (as in *grammar* + *ian*) were not needed; their formation was blocked.
- alternative forms might coexist: *Chomskyan* and *Chomskyist* and perhaps even *Chomskyite* (all meaning “follower of Chomsky’s views of linguistics”).
- *Semanticist* and *semantician* are both used, but the possible word *semantite* is not.

### The suffix *-able*

the suffix *-able* can be conjoined with any verb to derive an adjective with the meaning of the verb and the meaning of *-able*, which is something like “**able to be**”

*accept* + *able*,

*laugh* + *able*,

*pass* + *able*,

*change* + *able*,

*breathe* + *able*,

The productivity of this rule is illustrated by the fact that we find *-able* affixed to new verbs such as *downloadable* and *faxable*.

### Multiple suffixation

*sensationalizationalize*

a. sensation

b. sensational

c. sensationalize

d. sensationalization

e. sensationalizational

f. sensationalizationalize

decriminalization

crime

*criminal*

*criminalize*

***decriminalize***

***decriminalization***

***recriminalization***

crime

*criminal*

*criminalize*

***recriminalize***

***recriminalization***

\**recriminal,*

\**recrime*



# UNIT 6

## Conversion (or zero derivation)

### Lecture outline

- Conversion: definition
- Conversion to noun
- Conversion to verb
- Exercise

### Homework

PPP

### Conversion (or zero derivation)

a kind of word formation; specifically, it is the creation of a word from an existing word without any change in form.

is more productive in some languages than in others (in English it is a fairly productive process).

Often a word of one lexical category (part of speech) is converted to a word of another lexical category:

Conversions from adjectives to nouns and vice versa are both very common and unnotable in English;

The boundary between conversion and functional shift (the extension of an existing word to take on a new syntactic function) is not well-defined.

### Conversion (or zero derivation)

**nouns** *bottle, butter, chair* and *vacation* → **verbs**:

*We bottled the home-brew last night.*

*Have you buttered the toast?*

*Someone has to chair the meeting.*

*They're vacationing in Florida.*

**phrasal verbs** (*to print out, to take over*) → **nouns** (*a printout, a takeover*).

**verb combination** (*want to be*) → **noun** (*He isn't in the group, he's just a wannabe.*)

**up** and **down** → **verbs** (*They're going to up the price of oil* or *We downed a few beers at the Chimes.*)

### Conversion to noun

a. **From verbs:** *answer, attempt, bet, bore, catch, cheat, coach, cover, desire, dismay, divide, doubt, fall, find, hit, laugh, lift, love, raise, release, retreat, rise, search, smell, swim, taste, throw, turn, walk, want, etc.*

b. **From adjectives (1):** *bitter (type of beer), comic, daily (newspaper), final (race), natural (a naturally skilled player), roast, red, regular (customer), wet, etc.*

c. **From adjectives (2):** *(the) ignorant, (the) poor, (the) poorest, (the) rich, (the) wealthy, (the) wealthier, (the) wicked, etc.*

d. **From closed-class words:** *but, down, how, if, a must, up, why, etc.*

e. **From affixes:** *isms.*

### Conversion to verb (or verb conversion, or verbification, or verbing)

♦ creation of a verb from a noun, adjective or other word, e.g. the adjective *clean* becomes the verb *to clean*.

♦ a type of functional shift.

a. **From nouns:** *baby, bicycle, boat, bottle, brake, butter, canoe, carpet, catalogue, cash, coat, corner, cripple, elbow, father, fiddle, finger, floor, garage, glue, grease, group, hand, knife, mail, mask, mother, motor, muzzle, nurse, oil, parrot, plaster, position, rack, shelf, skin, mail, e-mail, strike, talk, salt, pepper, switch, bed, sleep, stop, drink, dress, divorce, fool, merge, telephone, text, etc.*

b. **From adjectives:** *calm, calm down, dirty, dry, empty, humble, lower, narrow, weary, yellow, etc.*

### Exercise: word class of the words given in italics?

#### **look**

She *looks* very pale

She's very proud of her *looks*

***light***

Turn on the *light*

I'm trying to *light* the fire

I usually have a *light* lunch

***cook***

I *cook* dinner every Sunday,

The *cook* is on holiday.

***fast***

a) I need a very *fast* connection.

b) Ann swims very *fast*.

c) These people are going to *fast* for one month; during that time they won't eat anything.

d) At the end of their one month *fast*, they will have normal meals.

# UNIT 7

## Reduplication, Back-formation, Hybrid Words, Blends

### Lecture outline

- ♦ Reduplication
- ♦ Back-formation
- ♦ Backronyms
- ♦ Hybrid words
- ♦ Blends

### Homework

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press.

Chapter 6 (pp. 65-66)

PPP

### Reduplication / Echoism

repetition of all or of part of a root or stem to form new words.

If the entire root or stem is repeated, the process is called **complete** (or **total**) **reduplication**, and the new word is considered as a **repetitive compound**: *bye-bye*, *goody-goody* ('a self-consciously virtuous person')

**partial reduplication** (more common in English than total reduplication): *walkie-talkie*, *criss-cross*; *super-duper* (rhyming reduplication), or *chit-chat* (ablaut reduplication); *ding* to *dong* (in *ding-dong*).

The vast majority of these use the vowel 'i' in the first part of the reduplication and either 'o' or 'a' in the second part.

### The most common uses of reduplicatives

**Reduplication is used to denote plurality, intensification or a repeated action.**

Most reduplicatives are highly informal or familiar, and many belong to the sphere of child-parent talk, e.g., *din-din* (dinner').

a. To imitate sounds, e.g., *rat-a-tat* (knocking on door), *tick-tack* (of a clock), *ha-ha* (of

laughter), *bow-wow* (of dog).

b. To suggest alternating movements, e.g., *flip-flop*, *ping-pong*.

c. To disparage by suggesting instability, nonsense, insincerity, vacillation, etc., e.g., *higgledy-piggledy*, *hocus-pocus*, *wishy-washy*, *dilly-dally*, *shilly-shally*, *willy-nilly*.

d. To intensify, e.g., *teeny-weeny*, *tip-top*.

## Back-formation

a term coined by James Murray in 1897

**the process of creating a new lexeme by removing actual or supposed affixes, or the neologism formed by such a process.**

shortened words created from longer words

*Edit* ← *editor* (from Latin stem *edere*, to bring forth)

While back-formation usually changes the part of speech, whereas clipping also creates shortened words from longer words, but does *not* change the part of speech.

*Resurrection* → *resurrect*

*resurrection* was borrowed from Latin, and the verb *resurrect* was then backformed hundreds of years later from it by removing the *-ion* suffix.

segmentation of *resurrection* into *resurrect* + *ion* was possible because English had many examples of Latinate words that had verb and verb+*-ion* pairs — in these pairs the *-ion* suffix is added to verb forms in order to create nouns (e.g., *insert*/*insertion*, *project*/*projection*, etc.).

## Back-formations

*Babysit* ← *babysitter*

*Back-form* ← *back-formation*

*Bartend* ← *bartender*

*Beg* ← *beggar*

*Chemist* ← *alchemist*

*Cross-refer* ← *cross-reference*

*Housekeep* ← *housekeeper*

*Manipulate* ← *manipulation*

*Proofread* ← *proofreader*

*Vaccinate* ← *vaccination*

### **A backronym (or bacronym)**

A word that is constructed “after the fact” from a previously existing word.

the novelist and critic Anthony Burgess once proposed that the word “**book**” ought to stand for “**Box Of Organised Knowledge**.”

A classic real-world example:

name of the predecessor to the Apple Macintosh, The Apple *Lisa*:

referred to “*Local Integrated Software Architecture*”,

Steve Jobs’ daughter, born 1978, also happened to be named Lisa.

### **A hybrid word**

a word which etymologically has one part derived from one language and another part derived from a different language.

The most common form combines etymologically Latin and Greek parts.

### **Hybrid words: Latin or Greek etymology**

*Automobile* – a wheeled passenger vehicle, from Greek *αυτό*~ (*auto*) “self-” and Latin *mobilis* “moveable”

*Homosexual* – from the Greek *ὁμός* (*homos*) meaning “same” and the Latin *sexus* meaning “gender”

*Hyperactive* — from the Greek *ὑπέρ* (*hyper*) meaning “over” and the Latin *activus*

*Sociopath* — from the Latin *socius* from *sociare* meaning “to associate with,” and the Greek (-*pathes*) meaning “sufferer” from *pathos* meaning “incident”, “suffering,” or “experience.”

*Television* — from the Greek *τῆλε* (*tēle*) meaning “far” and the Latin *visio* from *videre* meaning “to see”

### **Blends**

**Most frequently the beginning of one word is added to the end of the other:**

*Motor* + *hotel* → *motel*

*Smoke* + *fog* → *smog*

*Breakfast* + *lunch* → *brunch*

*Wireless* + *Fidelity* → *Wi-fi*

*Tanganyika + Zanzibar → Tanzania*

*Spanish + English → Spanglish*

*Oxford + Cambridge → Oxbridge*

*Spoon + fork → spork*

**The beginnings of two words are combined:**

*Cybernetic + organism → cyborg*

When two words are combined in their entirety, the result is considered a **compound word** rather than a blend.

### **A portmanteau (plural portmanteaux)**

of French origin, deriving from *porter* (to carry, of Latin origin) and the Middle French *manteau* (a coat or cover, from Latin *mantellum*), equivalent to the English *mantle*.

type of bag commonly found in England and other parts of Europe, extremely popular in the 19th century for travel.

Lewis Carroll describes the concept of linguistic blending, or portmanteau, in *Through the Looking Glass* (1871)

“‘Slithy’ means ‘lithe and slimy’... You see it’s like a portmanteau—there are two meanings packed up into one word”

“‘Mimsy’ is ‘flimsy and miserable’ (there’s another portmanteau ... for you)”.

### **Portmanteaux with “-holism” or “-holic”**

from the word “*alcoholism*” or “*alcoholic*,” can be added to a noun, creating a word that describes an addiction to that noun:

*chocoholic*

*danceaholic*

*workaholic*

*sexaholic*

*sugarholic*

*shopaholic*

# UNIT 8

## Abbreviations, Acronyms and Initialisms

### Lecture outline

- ✦ Abbreviations
- ✦ Early examples of abbreviations in English
- ✦ Acronyms
- ✦ Initialisms
- ✦ Types
- ✦ Three-letter acronyms
- ✦ TLA: groups
- ✦ Internet slang
- ✦ LOL around the world

### Homework

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press.

Chapter 6 (pp. 65-66)

PPP

### Abbreviations

#### Early examples of abbreviations in English

A.M. (Latin *ante meridiem*, “before noon”)

P.M. (Latin *post meridiem*, “after noon”)

B.C. (Before Christ)

A.D. (Anno Domini, Latin for “In the year of our Lord”)

#### Acronyms and initialisms

no universal agreement on definition or spelling.

Most dictionaries define *acronym* to mean “a word” in its original sense (or an abbreviation pronounced as a series of constituent letters), while some include a secondary



indication of usage, attributing to *acronym* the same meaning as that of *initialism*. According to the primary definition found in most dictionaries, **acronyms**: “**Sars**” or “**SARS**” (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome), **initialism** (*alphabetism*) = an abbreviation pronounced wholly or partly using the names of its constituent letters:

CD = compact disc

**FBI** (*Federal Bureau of Investigation*) and **HTML** (*Hyper Text Markup Language*) only the first letter of acronyms might be capitalized; initialisms are always written in capitals “**British Broadcasting Corporation**” is abbreviated to “**BBC**”

### Types

Pronounced as a word, containing only initial letters

*laser*: light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation

*NATO* or *Nato*: North Atlantic Treaty Organization

*scuba*: self-contained underwater breathing apparatus

*AIDS*: acquired immune deficiency syndrome

Pronounced as a word, containing non-initial letters

*Gestapo*: Geheime Staatspolizei (secret state police)

*Interpol*: International Criminal Police Organization

*radar*: radio detection and ranging

Pronounced as a combination of names of letters and a word

CD-ROM (*C-D-[rɒm]*) Compact Disc read-only memory

Pronounced only as the names of letters

*BBC*: British Broadcasting Corporation

*CNN*: Cable News Network

*USA*: United States of America

Last word is a noun, but which are sometimes used as adjectives and the final noun stated separately

*ATM* machine: *automated teller machine* machine

UPC code: *Universal Product Code* code

PIN number: *personal identification number* number

HIV virus: *human immunodeficiency virus* virus

*I sometimes forget my PIN number when I go to the ATM machine.*

### **Three-letter acronyms (three-letter abbreviation, or TLA)**

is an acronym, alphabetism or initialism, or abbreviation, consisting of three letters. initial letters of the words of the phrase abbreviated, and are written in capital letters: three-letter abbreviations such as “etc.” or “Mrs.” would not be described as three-letter acronyms.

### **TLA: groups**

**Television networks:** American Broadcasting Company (**ABC**) The British Broadcasting Corporation (**BBC**), Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (**CBC**), Columbia Broadcasting System (**CBS**)

**Politicians:** John F. Kennedy (**JFK**)

**Computer Terms:** Random-access memory (**RAM**), Read-only memory (**ROM**)

**Corporations:** International Business Machines (**IBM**)

**Three Letter Agencies:** Central Intelligence Agency (**CIA**), Federal Bureau of Investigation (**FBI**)

**Countries:** United Arab Emirates (**UAE**), United States of America (**USA**)

### **Internet slang**

**LOL** (from Wictionary)

Initialism

(Internet slang, text messaging) *Laughing (or laugh) out loud*

(Internet slang, text messaging)

*Lots of laughs* (occasionally used)

(letter-writing)

*Lots of love* (now obsolete or dated)

LOL was first documented in the "OED" in March, 2011.

**OED definition:**

LOL (*ɛləʊ ˈɛl/lʊl*) colloq.

A. *int.* Originally and chiefly in the language of electronic communications: 'ha ha!'; used to draw attention to a joke or humorous statement, or to express amusement.

B. *n.* An instance of the written interjection 'LOL'

**LOL around the world**

*mdr* (and derivatives)

French version, from the initials of "mort de rire" which roughly translated means "dying of laughter"

**Internet Acronyms Dictionary: LOL**

LOL *Laughing Out Loud*

LOL *Little Old Lady*

LOL *Lots Of Love*

LOL *Lots Of Luck*

LOLA *Laughing Out Loud Again*

LOLOL *Laughing Out Loud On-Line*

LOLOL *Lots Of Laughing Out Loud*

**LMAO**

*Laughing my ass (arse) off*

**LMFAO**

*Laughing my fucking ass (arse) off.*

**ROFL**

*Rolling On the Floor, Laughing.*

**ROFLMAO**

*Rolling On the Floor, Laughing Laughing my ass (arse) off*

*gtg* (got to go)

*bwl* (bursting with laughter)

# UNIT 9

## Compounding

### Lecture outline

- ✦ Compounding: definition
- ✦ Classification of compounds
- ✦ Properties of compounding
- ✦ Making compounds plural
- ✦ Meaning of compounds
- ✦ Types of compounds: how they are written
- ✦ Semantic classification of compounds
- ✦ Endocentric compounds
- ✦ Exocentric compounds
- ✦ Coordinative compounds
- ✦ Compound nouns
- ✦ Compound adjectives
- ✦ Compound verbs

### Homework

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press.

Chapter 6 (pp. 59-70)

PPP

### Composition (or compounding)

formation of new words by putting together roots or stems or words.

*Facebook, YouTube, fireman, hardware, highschool, blackbird, pickpocket, laptop, boyfriend, greenhouse,*

*birth-control;*

*peanut butter, computer keyboard, stone age*

The meanings of the words interrelate in such a way that a new meaning frequently comes out which is very different from the meanings of the words in isolation.

New word formations are continually being created.

### **Classification of compounds according to**

the word classes of their components

the semantic relationship of their components.

### **Properties of compounding:**

(i) Compounds have a head, which gives them their main *semantic* and *syntactic* properties.

-syntactically, the expression *blackboard* is a noun, as is its head *board*

-semantically, the expression *blackboard* refers to things that are kinds of boards, as the noun *board*.

(ii) The head comes last

(iii) The stress comes first

(iv) The meaning of the whole is not entirely predictable on the basis of the meaning of the parts.

### **Compound? Non-compound?**

a. a *black board*

b. a *blackboard*

a. a *dark room*

b. a *darkroom*

### **Making compounds plural**

*girlfriends*.

*mother-in-law* → *mothers-in-law*,

*court-martial* → *courts-martial*

### **Meaning of compounds?**

*blackboard*

*boathouse*

*cathouse*

*jumping bean*  
*falling star*  
*magnifying glass*  
*looking glass*  
*eating apple*  
*laughing gas*  
*peanut oil*  
*olive oil*  
*baby oil*

*a California history teacher*  
someone that teaches California history  
*a history teacher from California*

### **Types of compounds: how they are written**

**Since English is a mostly analytic language, unlike most other Germanic languages, it creates compounds by concatenating words without case markers.**

As in other Germanic languages, the compounds may be arbitrarily long. However, this is obscured by the fact that the written representation of long compounds always contains blanks.

Short compounds may be written

1. **The 'solid' or 'closed' forms** in which two usually moderately short words appear together as one. Solid compounds most likely consist of short (monosyllabic) units that often have been established in the language for a long time. (*housewife, lawsuit, wallpaper*).
2. **The *hyphenated* form** in which two or more words are connected by a hyphen. (*mother-in-law*)
3. **The 'open' or 'spaced' form** consisting of newer combinations of usually longer words (*distance learning, player piano, lawn tennis*).

The *hyphenated* form

contain affixes: *house-build(er)* and *single-mind(ed)(ness)*,

adjective-adjective compounds: *blue-green*

verb-verb compounds: *freeze-dry*

contain prepositions or conjunctions: *mother-of-pearl* and *salt-and-pepper*

### Individual choice of the writer

open,

hyphenated,

closed forms

*container ship*/ *container-ship*/ *containership*

*particle board*/ *particle-board*/ *particleboard*

### Semantic classification of compounds

**endocentric compounds:** A (modifier) + B (head) = a special kind of B (*sea power*)

**exocentric compounds:** A + B = compound with an unexpressed semantic head (*paleface*), they mostly refer to deprecative properties of people.

**copulative compounds:** A + B = the 'sum' of what A and B denote (*bittersweet*)

**appositional compounds:** A + B = different descriptions for a common referent (*singer-songwriter*)

### Endocentric compounds

the semantic head is contained within the compound itself

*office manager* is the manager of an office,

*armchair* is a *chair with arms*,

*raincoat* is a *coat against the rain*

*blackboard* is a particular kind of board, which is (generally) black

a *traffic-cop* is a kind of cop;

a *teapot* is a kind of pot;

a *fog-lamp* is a kind of lamp;

a *blue-jay* is a kind of jay.

### Exocentric compounds

the semantic head is not explicitly expressed

*redhead* **is not** a kind of head, but is a person **with** red hair

*blockhead* is not a head, but a person with a head that is as hard and unreceptive as a

block (i.e. stupid).

*lionheart* is not a type of heart, but a person with a heart like a lion (in its bravery, courage, fearlessness, etc.)

### How to tell the two apart?

1. Can you paraphrase the meaning of the compound "[X . Y]" to *A person/thing that is a Y*, or ... *that does Y*, if Y is a verb (with X having some unspecified connection)?

This is an **endocentric compound**.

2. Can you paraphrase the meaning if the compound "[X . Y]" to *A person/thing that is with Y*, with X having some unspecified connection? This is an **exocentric compound**.

Exocentric compounds occur more often in adjectives than nouns.

### Coordinative compounds

both elements are heads; each contributes equally to the meaning of the whole and neither is subordinate to the other, for instance, *bitter-sweet*.

can be paraphrased as both X and Y, e.g., "bitter and sweet."

*teacher-researcher*

*producer-director*.

### Compound nouns

a. Noun + noun: *bath towel*; *boy-friend*; *death blow*

b. Verb + noun: *pickpocket*; *breakfast*

c. Noun + verb: *nosebleed*; *sunshine*

d. Verb + verb: *make-believe*

e. Adjective + noun: *deep structure*; *fast-food*

f. Particle + noun: *in-crowd*; *down-town*

g. Adverb + noun: *now generation*

h. Verb + particle: *cop-out*; *drop-out*

i. Phrase compounds: *son-in-law*



### Compound adjectives

- a. Noun + adjective: *card-carrying*; *childproof*
- b. Verb + adjective: *fail safe*
- c. Adjective + adjective: *open-ended*
- d. Adverb + adjective: *cross-modal*
- e. Particle + adjective: *over-qualified*
- f. Noun + noun: *coffee-table*
- g. Verb + noun: *roll-neck*
- h. Adjective + noun: *red-brick*; *blue-collar*
- i. Particle + noun: *in-depth*
- j. Verb + verb: *go-go*; *make-believe*
- k. Adjective/Adverb + verb: *high-rise*
- l. Verb + particle: *see-through*; *tow-away*

### Compound verbs

- a. Noun + verb: *sky-dive*
- b. Adjective + verb: *fine-tune*
- c. Particle + verb: *overbook*
- d. Adjective + noun: *brown-bag*

# Unit 10

## Clipping, Hypocorisms, Borrowings

### Lecture outline

- ✦ Clipping
- ✦ Types of clipping
- ✦ Hypocorisms
- ✦ Borrowings
- ✦ Calque
- ✦ Calques from Latin

### Homework

PPP

### Clipping (truncation, or shortening)

the word formation process which consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts.

originate as terms of a special group like schools, army, police, the medical profession, etc., in the intimacy of a milieu where a hint is sufficient to indicate the whole. For example, *exam*(ination), *math*(ematics), and *lab*(oratory) originated in school slang; *spec*(ulation) and *tick*(et = credit) in stock-exchange slang; and *vet*(eran) and *cap*(tain) in army slang.

While clipping terms of some influential groups can pass into common usage, becoming part of Standard English, clippings of a socially unimportant class or group will remain group slang.

### Clipping: types and examples

#### Types of clipping

- ✦ Back clipping
- ✦ Fore-clipping
- ✦ Middle clipping

- ✦ Complex clipping

### Types of clipping

#### Back clipping (most common type)

beginning is retained: *ad* (advertisement), *doc* (doctor), *exam* (examination), *gas* (gasoline), *gym* (gymnastics, gymnasium), *pub* (public house), *pop* (popular music), *prof* (professor).

#### Fore-clipping (arphaeresis)

retains the final part: *chute* (parachute), *coon* (raccoon), *gator* (alligator), *phone* (telephone).

#### Middle clipping (syncope)

the middle of the word is retained: *flu* (influenza), *jams* or *jammies* (pajamas/pyjamas), *tec* (detective).

### Hypocorisms

- ✦ A particular type of reduction,
- ✦ favored in Australian and British English
- ✦ a longer word is reduced to a single syllable,
- ✦ *-y* or *-ie* is added to the end.

*movie* ("moving pictures")

*telly* ("television")

*Aussie* ("Australian")

*barbie* ("barbecue")

*bookie* ("bookmaker")

*brekky* ("breakfast")

*handkerchiefs* ("handkerchief").

### Borrowings:

*kindergarten* (German),

*rouge* (French),

*vodka* (Russian),

*karaoke* (Japanese),

*safari* (Arabic)

*croissant* (French),  
*piano* (Italian),  
*pretzel* (German),  
*sofa* (Arabic),  
*tattoo* (Tahitian),  
*yogurt* (Turkish)

**Borrowings from other languages into English:**

*assassin*: Arabic (*hashishin*)  
*clone*: Greek (*klón*)  
*cockroach*: Spanish (*cucaracha*)  
*denim*: French (*serge de Nîmes*)  
*diesel*: German (*Rudolf Diesel*)  
*kayak*: Inuit or Eskimo (*qayaq*)  
*kiosk*: Turkish (*kösk*)  
*penguin*: Welsh (*pen gwyn*)  
*robot*: Czech (*robota*)  
*shampoo*: Hindi (*champo*)  
*sherry*: Spanish (*Xeres, Jerez*)  
*slogan*: Gaelic (*sluaghghairm*)  
*snoop*: Dutch (*snoepen*)  
*taboo*: Tongan (*tabu*)  
*tea*: Chinese (*dé*)  
*tomato*: Nahuatl (*tomatl*)  
*umbrella*: Italian (*ombrello*)

**Borrowings from English into other languages:**

*week-end* in French and *víkend* in Czech for ‘weekend’,  
*haspataal* in Hindi for ‘hospital’,  
*shäfü* in Mandarin for ‘sofa’,  
*kappu* in Japanese for ‘cup, trophy’

### Calque (or loan translation)

- a special type of borrowing.
- a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language.
- a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word (Latin: “*verbum pro verbo*”) or root-for-root translation.

“flea market” is a phrase calque that literally translates the “*marché aux puces*” (“market with fleas”).

“Calque” itself is a loanword from a French noun, and derives from the verb “*calquer*” (to trace, to copy).

Loan translation is itself a calque of the German “*Lehnübersetzung*”.

“to calque” means to borrow a word or phrase from another language while translating its components so as to create a new lexeme in the target language.

French *gratte-ciel* (literally translates as “scrape-sky”)

Dutch *wolkenkrabber* (literally translates as “cloud scratcher”)

German *Wolkenkratzer* (literally translates as “cloud scraper”)

all of which were calques for the English *skyscraper*.

### Proving a word is a calque

- sometimes requires more documentation than an untranslated loanword, since in some cases a similar phrase might have arisen in both languages independently.
- the connotation might change or the secondary meanings might sometimes be lost in a calqued phrase, even though its literal meaning is the same in both languages.
- main meaning of a phrase is often times the same.

### Borrowing or Calque?

*superman* is thought to be a loan-translation of the German *Übermensch*

The American concept of “boyfriend” was a borrowing, with sound modification, into Japanese as *boyifurendo*, but as a calque into Chinese as “male friend” or *nan pengyou*.

### **Calques from Latin**

*Commonplace*: Latin *locus commūnis* (referring to a generally applicable literary passage), which itself is a calque of Greek *koinos topos*

*devil's advocate*: Latin *advocātus diaboli*, referring to an official appointed to present arguments against a proposed canonization or beatification in the Catholic Church

*wisdom tooth*: Latin *dēns sapientiae*

*Milky Way*: Latin *via lactea*, which is itself derived from the Greek root *galaxias* [γαλαξίας], meaning “milky”

*in a nutshell*: Latin *in nuce*

# Unit 11

## Eponyms, Metaphorical Extension, Onomatopoeia

### Lecture outline

- Eponyms,
- Metaphorical Extension
- Onomatopoeia
- Types of word formation in new words in English

Homework

PPP

### Eponyms

new words based on the name of a person or a place are called.

*jeans*: from the Italian city of Genoa where the type of cloth was first made

*sandwich*: the fourth Earl of Sandwich, who put his food between two slices of bread so that he could eat while he gambled

*Washington, D. C.*: George Washington and *District of Columbia* for Christopher Columbus

based on the names of those who first discovered or invented things:

*fahrenheit* (from the German, Gabriel Fahrenheit),

*volt* (from the Italian, Alessandro Volta)

*watt* (from the Scottish inventor, James Watt).

### A metaphorical extension

is the extension of meaning in a new direction through popular adoption of an original metaphorical comparison.

*illuminate*: originally meant “to light up” something dim or dark, but has evolved to mean “to clarify”, “to edify”.

## **Onomatopoeia**

type of word that depicts the sound associated with what is named

*boo,*

*chirp,*

*click,*

*meow,*

*splash,*

*bang,*

*boom*

## **Types of word formation in new words in English (2004)**

E-MAIL, n. An application of personal computers through which messages are automatically (electrically) sent through networks of computers to Electronic mailboxes [clipped compound formed from electronic and mail ].

EMOTICON, n. A symbol, usually found in e-mail messages, made up of punctuation marks that resembles a human expression. [Blend of emotion and icon]

F.I.N.E, adj. acronym (F\*cked up, Insecure, Neurotic, and Emotional). Usually derogatory; indicated by tone of voice.

FUNNY, n. A joke; a humorous comment or remark, sometimes unintentionally humorous. [zero-derivation of adj. funny]

POPAGANDA, n. Music that is popular with the general public, and has purpose or is trying promote particular ideas. [Blend of pop (clipping of popular) and propaganda]

SEXAHOLISM, n. A condition describing someone who is addicted to sex and alcohol. [blend of sex and alcoholism].

VERTICALLY-CHALLENGED, adj. Short, not tall [compound formed from vertical + -ly (adv.) and challenge + ed].

Y2K, n. The year 2000. The problem in which some computer hardware and software are unable to process dates after 31 December 1999. [Acronym from Y (year) + 2 + K (Gr. 'kilos' thousand)]



# UNIT 12

## Tree diagrams, The Bracketing Paradox

### Lecture outline

- Tree diagrams
- Principles for drawing tree diagrams
- Tree diagram terminology
- The bracketing paradox
- Exercise

### Homework

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press.

Section 7.5 (pp. 79-82)

PPP

**Tree diagrams** get their names because they look somewhat trees turned upside down, and they show the various constituents branching off.

are used in many disciplines other than linguistics, for example, computer science. are very good at showing structures that are hierarchical.

“I really do not know that anything has ever been more exciting than diagramming sentences” (Gertrude Stein)

### Principles for drawing tree diagrams

Different textbooks present different variations on the tree diagram, depending on the details of their analysis.

### Tree diagram terminology

- In a parse tree, each node is either a **root** node, a **branch** node, or a **leaf** node.
- A node can also be referred to as parent node or a child node.
- A **parent** node is one that has at least one other node linked by a branch under it.

- ♦ A **child** node is one that has at least one node directly above it to which it is linked by a branch of the tree.
- ♦ The terms **mother** and **daughter** are also sometimes used for this relationship.
- ♦ A tree consists of **nodes**. A node has a label (e.g., NP for noun phrase, VP for verb phrase).
- ♦ the **root** of the tree: the node at the very top of the tree, the one from which all the others ultimately derive.
- ♦ The nodes are connected by lines, known as **edges**.
- ♦ The terminal nodes of our diagrams, the ones without any children, are known as the **leaves** of the tree.
- ♦ The nodes below another node are sometimes called the **children** of that node.
- ♦ A node that has children is a **parent** node.
- ♦ Parent nodes can themselves be children of other parents.
- ♦ **Descendants**: nodes that are children of children.
- ♦ While a node may have several children, it only has one parent.
- ♦ Each line should connect to one child node.
- ♦ Do not show two edges connecting to a single word.

### The bracketing paradox

- (1) a. *un- [grammatical -ity]* (*un-* negates is the state of *grammaticality*)  
       b. *[un- grammatical] -ity* (*ungrammaticality* is the condition that refers to some thing being *ungrammatical*)
- (2) a. *hydro- [electric -ity]*  
       b. *[hydro- electric] -ity*
- (3) a. *macro- [economy -ic]*  
       b. *[macro-economy] -ic*
- (4) a. *nuclear [physic -ist]*  
       b. *[nuclear physic] -ist*
- (5) a. *un- [happy -er]*  
       b. *[un- happy] -er*

Exercise. Draw tree diagrams of the following words:

- ✦ Unproductively
- ✦ Employer
- ✦ carelessness
- ✦ Unhappy
- ✦ Unhappiness
- ✦ Books
- ✦ Rehospitalizes
- ✦ Globalisation
- ✦ Miscategorization
- ✦ Childish
- ✦ Churchyard
- ✦ Activation
- ✦ Understandable

# Unit 13

## Conclusion, glossary of most important terms

### Lecture outline

- ♦ Morphemes
- ♦ Affixes
- ♦ Inflection & derivation
- ♦ Ambiguous affixes
- ♦ Word classes
- ♦ Main types of word-formation
- ♦ Agreement
- ♦ Glossary of some basic terms
- ♦ Productivity and competence
- ♦ General and regular suffixes

### Homework

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press.

Chapter 8 (pp. 85-99)

PPP

**Morpheme** = the minimal unit of meaning in a word

- *walk*
- *-ed*

**Simple words** cannot be broken down into smaller units of meaning

- Monomorphemes
- Called base words, roots or stems

**Affixes** are attached to free or bound forms

- prefixes, infixes, suffixes, circumfixes

## Free vs. Bound Morpheme

### Free Morphemes

Units of meaning that can stand on their own are “**free**”

- Words (*apple, happy*)

### Bound Morphemes

Units of meaning that cannot stand on their own are “**bound**”

- Prefixes (un- in *unhappy*)
- Suffixes (-s in *apples*)
- Contractions and clitics (in *don't*, the *t* is the clitic)
- Bound bases

### Affixes

**Prefixes** appear in front of the stem to which they attach

- **un-** + happy = *unhappy*

**Infixes** appear inside the stem to which they attach

- **-blooming-** + absolutely = *absobloominglutely*

**Suffixes** appear at the end of the stem to which they attach

- *emotion* = *emote* + *-ion*
- English may stack up to 4 or 5 suffixes to a word
- Agglutinative languages like Turkish may have up to 10

**Circumfixes** appear at both the beginning and end of stem

- German past participle of *sagen* is *gesagt*: *ge-* + *sag* + *-t*

### Infixes go inside the root

dis-em-power

nation-al-ist-ic-al-ly

*un-be-stinking-lieve-able*

## **Inflection and Derivation**

**Inflectional morphology** - the way in which words vary (or ‘inflect’) in order to express grammatical contrasts in sentences, such as singular / plural and present / past tense.

### **Inflectional affixes**

**Derivational morphology** - the principles governing the construction of new words, without reference to the specific grammatical role a word might play in a sentence.

### **Derivational affixes**

#### **Inflection**

Inflection modifies a word's form in order to mark the grammatical subclass to which it belongs

*apple* (singular) > *apples* (plural)

Inflection does not change the grammatical category (part of speech)

*apple* noun;            *apples* – still a noun

Inflection does not change the overall meaning

both *apple* and *apples* refer to the fruit

#### **Derivation**

Derivation creates a new word by changing the category and/or meaning of the base to which it applies

Derivation can change the grammatical category (part of speech)

*sing* (verb) > *singer* (noun)

Derivation can change the meaning

act of singing > one who sings

Derivation is often limited to a certain group of words

*You can Clintonize the government, but you can't Bushize the government*

This restriction is partially phonological

## Inflection & Derivation: Order

**Order is important** when it comes to inflections and derivations

**Derivational suffixes must precede inflectional suffixes**

*sing* + *-er* + *-s* is OK

*sing* + *-s* + *-er* is not OK

This order may be used as a clue when working with natural language text

## Inflection and Derivation in English

English has few inflections

Many other languages use inflections to indicate the role of a word in the sentence

Use of case endings allows fairly free word order

English instead has a fixed word order

Position in the sentence indicates the role of a word, so case endings are not necessary

This was not always true; Old English had many inflections

English has many derivational affixes, and they are regularly used to form new words

## Ambiguous Affixes

*-er*

Derivational: Agentive *-er*; Verb + *-er* > Noun

Inflectional: Comparative *-er*; Adjective + *-er* > Adjective

*-s* or *-es*

Inflectional: Noun + *-(e)s* > Noun, Plural,

Inflectional: Verb + *-(e)s* > Verb, 3rd person sing.

*-ing*

Inflectional: Verb + *-ing* > Verb, Progressive

Derivational: “act of”, Verb + *-ing* > Noun

Derivational: “in process of”, Verb + *-ing* > Adjective

## Classes of Words

**Closed** classes are fixed – new words cannot be added

Pronouns, prepositions, comparatives, conjunctions, determiners (articles and demonstratives)

Function words

**Open** classes are not fixed – new words can be added

Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs

Content words

## Creation of New Words: Types

**Derivation** - adding prefixes or suffixes to form a new word

*Clinton*   *Clintonize*

**Compounding** - combining two existing words

*home* + *page*   *homepage*

**Clipping** - shortening a polysyllabic word

*alligator*   *gator*

**Acronyms** - take initial sounds or letters to form new word

*Scuba*   *Self Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus*

**Blending** - combine parts of two words

*motor* + *hotel*   *motel*

*smoke* + *fog*   *smog*

**Backformation**

*resurrection*   *resurrect*

## Agreement

### Plurals

- ♦ In English, the morpheme **s** is often used to indicate plurals in nouns
- ♦ Nouns and verbs must agree in plurality



Gender – nouns, adjectives and sometimes verbs in many languages are marked for gender

- 2 genders (masculine and feminine) in Romance languages like

French, Spanish, Italian

- 3 genders (masc, fem, and neuter) in Germanic and Slavic languages
- More are called noun classes – Bantu has up to 20 genders
- Gender is sometimes explicitly marked on the word has a morpheme, but sometimes is just a property of the word

### **Glossary of some basic terms** (for more, see Part III)

**affix:** an inflectional or derivational morpheme; to attach an inflectional or derivational morpheme to an expression.

**allomorph:** variant phonological representation of a morpheme.

**base:** part of word to which an affix may be attached; may but need not be a **root** morpheme.

**bound morpheme:** a morpheme that must be attached to another morpheme.

**constituent:** a unified part of a construction (e.g., of a word, phrase, or sentence).

**conversion:** derivational relationship between two words of different parts of speech but without any formal marking of the difference.

**coordinative compound:** a compound word that denotes an entity or property to which both constituents contribute equally; e.g., *bittersweet* refers to a quality which is both bitter and sweet.

**derivation:** process of changing a word from one part of speech to another or from one subclass to another, typically by making some change in form.

**endocentric compound:** a compound word that denotes a subtype of whatever is denoted by the head. *Armchair* represents a type of chair; *breath-test* represents a kind of test.

**exocentric compound:** a compound word that denotes a subtype of a category that is not mentioned within the compound; e.g., *pickpocket* represents a kind of person, not a kind of pocket nor a kind of pick.

**free morpheme:** a morpheme that need not be attached to another morpheme, but can constitute a word on its own.

**head:** the main constituent of a compound, which may be modified by the compound's other constituents.

**inflectional morpheme:** a bound morpheme that signals a grammatical function and meaning in a specific sentence, e.g., plural {-s}, past tense {-ed}, comparative {-er}, superlative {-est}.

**morph:** a minimal meaningful form, regardless of whether it is a morpheme or allomorph.

**morpheme:** the smallest part of a word that has meaning or grammatical function.

**prefix:** a bound morpheme attached before a root.

**realization:** the representation of one or more abstract elements (e.g., morphemes) by concrete elements (e.g., sounds); e.g., *women* represents the morphemes {woman} + {plural}.

**root:** the basic constituent of a word, to which other morphemes are attached.

**suffix:** a bound morpheme attached after a root.

**suppletion:** irregular inflectional forms of a word resulting from the combination of historically different sources; e.g., *go/went*.

### Productivity and competence

1. Though many things are possible in morphology, some are more possible than others.
2. Though there are infinitely many potential words in a language, some are more likely to become actual words than others.

### A suffix is formally general

if it always attaches to a category X and derives category Y.

*-ness* always **attaches to any adjective** (A) and yields an **abstract noun** (N) which is either in common use or would not be listed in a dictionary because its meaning is predictable.

\**-ity* **attaches only to some adjectives** to yield an **abstract noun**.

\**-th* **attaches to very few adjectives** to yield an **abstract noun**.

### A suffix is formally regular

if it always attaches to a category X of a certain structure.

*-ness* can attach to **any adjective of any structure**.

-ity can **attach to adjectives** of the structures -ive, -able/ible, -al, -ar, -ic, -id, -ous.

formally irregular forms (*density*, \**tensity*, *tension*).

-th can **attach to adjectives** of irregular, unpredictable structure. (*depth*)

Formal regularity does not imply formal generality.

Often the gaps found (\**richity*) have **historical roots** (Latin -ity vs. Germanic -ness.)

Formal generality presupposes formal regularity. [in practice, not by definition]

A process is semantically regular if

derived meaning is always uniform and consistent.

-ly always contributes the meaning '**in an X fashion**' or '**to an X degree**' (-ly is also formally regular: it attaches to A and yields Adv)

formal and semantic regularity can **diverge**: the different contribution of -ity in *selectivity*, *locality*, *partiality*, *polarity* or -able in *readable*, *punishable*. Moreover, some morphologically clearly related words **vary** in terms of what types of derivational affixes, incl. stress, they allow (e.g. *admit*, *commit*, *permit*, *remit*, *transmit* and -ion, -al, -ment, -ance). The **converse** situation is arguably found in names for domestic animals in terms of sex and age.

The latter especially raises the question why there is no \**cowlet* analogous to *piglet* — instead we have *calf* which **semantically blocks** the existence (or derivation) of *cowlet*:

If there is a word X specified for Y, then Y should be expressed by X and not be derived.

While there might be exceptions, blocking of suppleted forms is **absolute**.

**negative prefixes** in English:

*non-Christian* 'not Christian'

*non-human* 'not human'

*unchristian* 'not behaving in a Christian manner'

*inhuman* 'absence of human qualities'

a. **logical / contrary negator**: 'not X' (X)

b. **contradictory negator**: 'opposite of X'

## PART II

The second part of the book starts with the syllabus of the course, continues with the midterm test requirements (2) followed by midterm tests (2), as well as with final exam requirements. Last but not least, part II includes final exam tests (2).



# Syllabus

Univerzita J. Selyeho – Pedagógická fakulta – Katedra anglického jazyka a literatúry

Selye János Egyetem – Tanárképző Kar – Angol Nyelv és Irodalom Tanszék

Vyučujúci – Oktató: Doc. Tóthné Litovkina Anna, PhD.

Tematický plán – Tematikus terv

Školský rok – Iskolai év: 2020/2021

Kód – Kód: MORF

Ročník – Évfolyam: II

Spôsob hodnotenia – Az értékelés módja: testing, seminar work, written exam

Prednáška - Előadás / Seminár – Szeminárium

## Course description

In this course, students will be introduced to key morphological concepts used to describe and explain the internal structure of words, and also to the central word formation processes in English. This course, while providing the students with considerable knowledge of morphological terms and processes, also helps them to develop their skills in morphological analysis. Students will acquire knowledge of morphological processes and operations in general and the morphology of English specifically

## Aims of the course

The aims of this course is to provide an introduction to the fundamentals of English morphology. Upon completion of the course the students are expected to:

- to understand the structure of English words
- demonstrate a good understanding of forms of English words in different uses and constructions
- to have deeper insights into morphological process
- be able to carry out morphological analysis.

### 13 hétre lebontva /Divided into 13 weeks:

The schedule outlined below is subject to change.

#### Lectures

Introduction. Basic concepts in morphology: some terminological issues. Word, word-form, lexeme, lemma

A word and its parts: affix, base, root, stem

Affixation: suffixes, prefixes, circumfixes, infixes

Free morphemes, bound morphemes

Morphemes, morphs, and allomorphs

Derivation: Suffixation, prefixation

Inflection. Suppletion and suppletive forms.

Issues of productivity

Word-formation processes: derivation, conversion,

Word-formation processes: compounding

Word-formation processes: Truncations, abbreviations, acronyms, initialisms, clipping, blending

Types of languages.

Revision; Final exam review

#### Seminars

Morpheme, morph, allomorph. Root, stem, base

Inflection and derivation

A word and its parts: roots, affixes and their shapes

A word and its forms: inflection

A word and its relatives: derivation

Words and sentences Dictionaries

*Test (or oral mid-term exam)*

Compound words, blends and phrasal word.

A word and its structure. Word-formation processes: Loaning, backformation, reduplication, combining forms.

Productivity. Words in English and in language in general.

Words in English and in language in general.

Test (or oral mid-term exam)

Revision; Final exam review

### **Compulsory reading**

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press.

Lieber, Rochelle (2010): *Introducing Morphology*, Cambridge University Press. (excerpts)

Plag, Ingo (2003): *Word-formation in English*. Cambridge University Press. (excerpts)

### **Supplementary reading (excerpts)**

Aronoff, Mark & Kirsten Fudeman (2005): *What is Morphology?* Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Bauer, L. (1983): *English Word-formation*. Cambridge: CUP.

Bauer L (2003): *Introducing linguistic morphology* (2nd edn.). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University.

Bauer, Laurie (1998): *Vocabulary*. London: Routledge.

Bauer, Laurie (2004): *A Glossary of Morphology* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Booij, Geert (2007): *The Grammar of Words: An Introduction to Morphology* (2nd edition), Oxford University Press.

Mária Hardošová (2009): *Practical English Morphology*, Banská Bystrica.

Haspelmath, Martin (2002): *Understanding Morphology*. Edward Arnold.

Katamba, Francis (2005): *English Words. Structure, History, Usage*, 2nd ed. London: Routledge.

Katamba, Francis and John Stonham (2005): *Morphology*, Palgrave Macmillan, 2006.

Szymanek, Bogdan (1993): *Introduction to Morphological Analysis*. Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa.

### **Assessment**

Course grade will be based on the following work (percentages are approximate):



#### Attendance

Midterm testing	40%
Final written exam	50%
Classroom participation	10%

Final exam: The final exam will consist primarily of data analysis problems of the types we will have covered throughout the course.

#### Attendance

Students will be permitted two unexplained absences. Students must arrive on time to be counted as in attendance. Arriving late (more than 5 minutes after the class starts) or leaving class early counts as absence. It is your responsibility to stay current and find out what you missed if you were absent.

#### Grading Scale

0-49% (Fx)

50-59% (E)

60-69% (D)

70-79% (C)

80-89% (B)

90-100% (A)

**In case of online classes** (the time is according to the timetable in the AIS), join Anna Litovkina's Zoom Meeting, following the link below:

<https://us04web.zoom.us/j/2103972359?pwd=bTdYRlFQeDBOSWdTUnJPY-jVkJTVZUT09>

# Test 1 requirements

(20/03/2019)

## Main types of questions:

- ♦ Fill in the spaces.
- ♦ Match the terms below with definitions.
- ♦ Which of the statements below are true? Tick the true statements.
- ♦ Fill in the spaces. Words and expressions to fill in.
- ♦ Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words.
- ♦ What are the functional morphemes in the following sentence?
- ♦ List the bound (free) morphemes (suffixes, roots, prefixes) in these words.
- ♦ Which of these words has a bound stem?
- ♦ What are the inflectional (derivational) morphemes in these expressions?
- ♦ What are the allomorphs of the morpheme “plural” in this set of English words?
- ♦ In 80-100 words, write about one of the following topics:
  1. Morphemes (bound, free, inflectional, derivational, nonrecurrent, recurrent, cranberry)
  2. Morph, allomorph. Allomorphy
  3. Root, stem, base.
  4. Roots, affixes and combining forms
  5. Suffixation, prefixation; infix, circumfix.
  6. Word, lexeme, lemma.
  7. What are the major differences between derivational and inflectional affixes?
  8. Words with predictable meanings
  9. Words, collocations, idioms, proverbs
  10. Words versus lexical items
  11. Monomorphemic – polymorphemic words
  12. Regular and irregular inflection
  13. Suppletion
  14. Forms of nouns
  15. Forms of pronouns/determiners

16. Forms of verbs / Forms of adjectives
17. Conversion
18. Adverbs derived from adjectives
19. Nouns derived from nouns
20. Nouns derived from members of other word classes
21. Adjectives derived from adjectives
22. Verbs derived from verbs
23. Verbs derived from members of other word classes
24. Nonce words
25. Clipping
26. Blends (portmanteau words)
27. Acronyms/initialisms
28. Compounds versus phrases
29. Compound verbs
30. Compound nouns
31. Compound adjectives
32. Compounds containing bound combining forms

**MUST:**

PPP-s

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press. 1-69. pp.

<http://davidbrett.uniss.it/morphology/index.html>

# Test 2 requirements

(24/04/2019)

## Main types of questions:

- ♦ Fill in the spaces.
- ♦ Match the terms below with definitions.
- ♦ Which of the statements below are true? Tick the true statements.
- ♦ Fill in the spaces. Words and expressions to fill in.
- ♦ Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words.
- ♦ What are the functional morphemes in the following sentence?
- ♦ List the bound (free) morphemes (suffixes, roots, prefixes) in these words.
- ♦ Which of these words has a bound stem?
- ♦ What are the inflectional (derivational) morphemes in these expressions?
- ♦ What are the allomorphs of the morpheme “plural” in this set of English words?
- ♦ Match the words with the type they are formed.
- ♦ Divide the following forms into morphemes.
- ♦ Sort the suffixes according to their class-changing function
- ♦ Sort the prefixes
- ♦ How are the pairs (or groups) of words below called?
- ♦ In 80-100 words, write about one of the following topics
  - 33. Conversion
  - 34. Borrowing
  - 35. Calque
  - 36. Hybrid words
  - 37. Reduplication
  - 38. Backformation
  - 39. Phrasal words
  - 40. Multiple affixation
  - 41. Compounds within compounds
  - 42. Apparent mismatches between meaning and structure
  - 43. Productivity in shape
  - 44. Productivity in meaning

45. Productivity in compounding
46. Semantic blocking
47. Neologisms
48. The rarity of borrowed inflectional morphology
49. The reduction in inflectional morphology
50. The historical sources of English word formation

**MUST:**

PPP-s

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press. 71-118. pp.

<http://davidbrett.uniss.it/morphology/index.html>

# Morphology TEST 1

March 20, 2019

## 1. Match the terms below with definitions. (14)

open class	the base to which one or more affixes are attached to create a more complex form that may be another stem or a word.
stem	the class of lexical content words; a category of words that commonly adds new words.
root	a bound grammatical morpheme that is affixed to a word according to rules of syntax, e.g., third person singular verbal suffix <i>-s</i> .
inflectional morpheme	the morpheme that remains when all suffixes are stripped from a complex word.
free morpheme	creation of a new word by removing an affix from an old word.
closed class	any root or stem to which an affix is attached.
derivational morpheme	a category that rarely has new words added to it.
base	a morpheme added to a stem or root to form a new stem or word, possibly, but not necessarily, resulting in a change in syntactic category.
back-formation	a single morpheme that constitutes a word.
affix	a bound morpheme attached to a stem or root.
compound	a word composed of two or more words.
tree diagram	a graphical representation of the linear and hierarchical structure of a phrase or sentence.
allomorph	a graphical representation of the linear and hierarchical structure of a phrase or sentence.
blend	alternative phonetic form of a morpheme.

## 2. Match the words with the type they are formed. (4)

blend	hardware, skinhead, vertically-challenged
acronym	laser, SARS
clipping	motel, brunch, emoticon
compound	gator, flu

## 3. Mark each statement as true (T) or false (F). (9)

The root of the word *photographer* is *photographer*, and its stem is *photo*.

The root of the verb form *destabilized* is *stabil-*, and its stem is *destabilize*.

Inflectional morphemes carry grammatical information, and in the English language

are exclusively prefixes.

In *ration-al-iz-ation-s* the final *-s* is derivational, and appears at the very end of the word, outside the inflectional morphemes *-al*, *-iz*, *-ation*.

In *She is going* the *-ing* is a derivational suffix.

In *Flying can be dangerous* the *-ing* is an inflectional suffix.

Inflectional suffixes are closer to stem than derivational ones.

The meaning of inflectional suffixes is often unpredictable, while the meaning of derivational suffixes is always predictable.

While derivational suffixes might change a word class, inflectional suffixes never do it.

**4. Fill in the spaces. Words and expressions to fill in:** a) word; b) units; c) arbitrary; d) closed; e) open; f) Free; g) inflectional; h) sign; i) infixes; j) Bound; k) Affixes; l) Derivational; m) morphemes. (13)

Knowing a language means knowing the morphemes of that language, which are the elemental .....1..... that constitute words. *Moralizers* is an English .....2..... composed of four .....3.....: *moral* + *ize* + *er* + *s*. When you know a word or morpheme, you know both its form (sound or gesture) and its meaning; these are inseparable parts of the linguistic .....4..... The relationship between form and meaning is .....5..... There is no inherent connection between them (i.e., the words and morphemes of any language must be learned).

Morphemes may be free or bound. ....6.....morphemes stand alone like *girl* or *the*, and they come in two types: .....7.....class, containing the content words of the language, and .....8.....class, containing function words such as *the* or *of*. ....9.....morphemes may be affixes or bound roots such as *-ceive*. ....10.....may be prefixes, suffixes, circumfixes, and .....11..... Affixes may be derivational or inflectional. ....12..... affixes derive new words; .....13.....affixes, such as the plural affix *-s*, make grammatical changes to words.

**5. Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words.** (6)

unsystematically

speechlessness

6. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *What are the major differences between derivational and inflectional affixes?* (17)

7. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *Compounding.* (17)



# Morphology Test 1

Answer sheet

MARCH 20, 2019

Name:

Max score: 80/ 100%

points (%):

Grade:

**1. Match the terms below with definitions. (14)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10..., 11..., 12..., 13..., 14...

**2. Match the words with the type they are formed. (4)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4...

**3. Mark each statement as true (T) or false (F). (9)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9...

**4. Fill in the spaces. Words and expressions to fill in. (13)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10..., 11..., 12..., 13...

**5. Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words. (6)**

unsystematically

speechlessness

6. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *What are the major differences between derivational and inflectional affixes?* (17)

7. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *Compounding.* (17)

# Morphology Test 2

APRIL 24, 2019

## 1. Match the terms below with definitions. (10)

blend	the phenomenon whereby the existence of a word (whether simple or derived) with a particular meaning inhibits the morphological derivation, even by formally regular means, of another word with precisely that meaning
conversion	kind of compound in which at least one of the components is reproduced only partially
bracketing paradox	(of a compound or derived word) - lacking a head
endocentric	the derivation of one lexeme from another by means of a phonologically empty, or, zero', affix
exocentric	inconsistency between the structure suggested by the syntactic or morphological properties of an expression and the structure suggested by its meaning
idiom	(of a compound or derived word) - possessing a head
inflectional morphology	expression whose meaning is not predictable on the basis of the meanings of its components
semantic blocking	area of morphology concerned with changes in word shape (e.g. through affixation) that are determined by, or potentially affect, the grammatical context in which a word appears
suppletion	item that has the structure of a phrase but functions syntactically like a word
phrasal word	phenomenon whereby one lexeme is represented by two or more different roots, depending on the context

## 2. Match the words with the type they are formed. (12)

blend	air-conditioning, cigar smoker
coordinative compound	gray-green
exocentric compound	skinhead
acronym/alphabeticism	movie, telly
hybrid word	homosexual
eponym	superman, wisdom tooth
clipping	Spanglish, cyborg
back-formation	sculptor, resurrect

endocentric compound	bike, prof, net, chute
reduplication	flip-flop, ping-pong, hocus-pocus, wishy-washy
calque	jeans, Washington, D. C
hypocorism	TV, Scuba, USA

**3. Fill in the spaces.** a) stems; b) morphology; c) productive; d) affixation; e) *unlock* + *able*; f) Suppletive forms; g) *un* + *lockable*; h) constrained; i) root; j) Inflectional morphology. (10)

Complex words contain a .....1..... around which .....2..... are built by affixation. Rules of .....3..... determine what kind of .....4..... produces actual words such as *un* + *system* + *atic*, and what kind produces nonwords such as \**un* + *system*. Words have hierarchical structure evidenced by ambiguous words such as *unlockable*, which may be .....5..... “unable to be locked” or .....6... “able to be unlocked.” Some morphological rules are .....7....., meaning they apply freely to the appropriate stem; for example, *re-* applies freely to verbal stems to give words like *redo*, *rewash*, and *repaint*. Other rules are more .....8....., forming words like *young* + *ster* but not \**smart* + *ster*. .....9..... is extremely productive: the plural *-s* applies freely even to nonsense words. .....10..... escape inflectional morphology, so instead of \**mans* we have *men*; instead of \**bringed* we have *brought*.

**4. Can you identify the different word-formation processes involved in producing each of the underlined words in these sentences?** a) *coinage*; b) *backformation*; c) *acronym*; d) *infixing*; e) *borrowing* f) *conversion*; g) *compounding*; h) *hypocorism*; i) *clipping*; k) *suppletion*. (9)

Don't you ever worry that you might get AIDS?

Do you have a xerox machine?

That's really fandamntastic!

Shiel still parties every Saturday night.

These new skateboards from Zee Designs are kickass.

When I'm ill, I want to see a doc, not a vet.

The house next door was burgled when I was babysitting the Smiths' children.

I like this old sofa.

My chair is nice and comfy.

5. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *Reduplication* (12)

6. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *Conversion* (12)

7. Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words. (15)

*nationalistically*

*decriminalization*

# Morphology Test 2

Answer sheet

April 24, 2019

**Surname** (use capital letters, please) .....

Max score: 80/ 100%

**Name** (use capital letters, please) .....

points (%):

Grade:

**1. Match the terms below with definitions. (10)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10...

**2. Match the words with the type they are formed. (12)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10..., 11..., 12...

**3. Fill in the spaces. (10)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10...

**4. Can you identify the different word-formation processes involved in producing each of the underlined words in these sentences? (9)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9...

**5. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *Reduplication* (12)**

6. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *Conversion* (12)

7. Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words. (15)

*nationalistically*

*decriminalization*

# Final Exam Requirements

## Main types of questions:

- ♦ Fill in the spaces.
- ♦ Match the terms below with definitions.
- ♦ Which of the statements below are true? Tick the true statements.
- ♦ Fill in the spaces. Words and expressions to fill in.
- ♦ Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words.
- ♦ What are the functional morphemes in the following sentence?
- ♦ List the bound (free) morphemes (suffixes, roots, prefixes) in these words.
- ♦ Which of these words has a bound stem?
- ♦ What are the inflectional (derivational) morphemes in these expressions?
- ♦ What are the allomorphs of the morpheme “plural” in this set of English words?
- ♦ Match the words with the type they are formed.
- ♦ Divide the following forms into morphemes.
- ♦ Sort the suffixes according to their class-changing function
- ♦ Sort the prefixes
- ♦ How are the pairs (or groups) of words below called?
- ♦ In 80-100 words, write about one of the following topics:

Morphemes (bound, free, inflectional, derivational, nonrecurrent, recurrent, cranberry)

Morph, allomorph. Allomorphy

Root, stem, base.

Roots, affixes and combining forms

Suffixation, prefixation; infix, circumfix.

Word, lexeme, lemma.

What are the major differences between derivational and inflectional affixes?

Words with predictable meanings

Words, collocations, idioms, proverbs

Words versus lexical items

Monomorphemic – polymorphemic words

Regular and irregular inflection



Suppletion  
Forms of nouns  
Forms of pronouns/determiners  
Forms of verbs / Forms of adjectives  
Conversion  
Adverbs derived from adjectives  
Nouns derived from nouns  
Nouns derived from members of other word classes  
Adjectives derived from adjectives  
Verbs derived from verbs  
Verbs derived from members of other word classes  
Nonce words  
Clipping  
Blends (portmanteau words)  
Acronyms/initialisms  
Compounds versus phrases  
Compound verbs  
Compound nouns  
Compound adjectives  
Compounds containing bound combining forms  
Conversion  
Borrowing  
Calque  
Hybrid words  
Reduplication  
Backformation  
Phrasal words  
Multiple affixation  
Compounds within compounds  
Apparent mismatches between meaning and structure  
Productivity in shape  
Productivity in meaning  
Productivity in compounding

Semantic blocking

Neologisms

The rarity of borrowed inflectional morphology

The reduction in inflectional morphology

The historical sources of English word formation

**MUST:**

PPP-s

Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002) *An Introduction to English Morphology*.  
Edinburgh University Press. 1-69 pp.

# Morphology Exam

May 14, 2019

## 1. Match the terms below with definitions. (12)

allomorph	word or part of a word viewed as an input to a derivational or inflectional process, in particular affixation
base	one of the variant pronunciations of a morpheme, among which the choice is determined by context (phonological, grammatical or lexical)
circumfix	morpheme that occurs in only one word (more precisely, only one lexeme)
cranberry morpheme	morpheme that can stand on its own as a word
free morpheme	word seen as an abstract grammatical entity, represented concretely by one or more different inflected word forms according to the grammatical context
lexeme	a two-part affix, one part preceding and the other following the base.
monomorphemic	newly coined word
morpheme	resemblance between the sound of a word and what it denotes, e.g. in cock-a-doodle-do
neologism	minimal unit of grammatical structure
onomatopoeia	consisting of only one morpheme
polymorphemic	within a non-compound word, the morpheme that makes the most precise and concrete contribution to the word's meaning, and is either the sole morpheme or else the only one that is not a prefix or a suffix
root	consisting of more than one morpheme

## 2. Match the words with the type they are formed. (12)

blend	windmill, laughing gas
coordinative compound	sandwich, fahrenheit
exocentric compound	paleface, skinhead, pickpocket
acronym/alphabeticism	Interpol, CD-ROM, LOL
hybrid word	hyperactive, homosexual
eponym	Swedish-American; producer-director
clipping	Oxbridge, Wi-fi
back-formation	babysit, back-form

endocentric compound	photo, coon
reduplication	Aussie, hankie
calque	in a nutshell, devil's advocate
hypocorism	teeny-weeny, tip-top. walkie-talkie, criss-cross

**3. Fill in the spaces.** a) *head*; b) *compounds*; c) *words*; d) *predictable*; e) *back-formations*; f) *assumption*. (6)

There are many ways for new .....1..... to be created other than affixation .....2..... are formed by uniting two or more root words in a single word, such as *homework*. The .....3..... of the compound (the rightmost word) bears the basic meaning, so *homework* means a kind of work done at home, but often the meaning of compounds is not easily .....4.....and must be learned as individual lexical items, such as *laughing gas*. .....5..... are words created by misinterpreting an affix look-alike such as *er* as an actual affix, so the verb *burgle* was formed under the mistaken .....6..... that *burglar* was *burgle* + *er*.

**4. More than one process was involved in the creation of the forms underlined in these sentences. Can you identify the processes involved in each case?** a) *coinage*; b) *backformation*; c) *acronym*; d) *infixing*; e) *borrowing* f) *conversion*; g) *compounding*; h) *hypocorism*; i) *clipping*; j) *blending*; k) *eponym* (10)

Are you still using that old car-phone?

Can you FedEx the books to me today?

Welcome, everyone, to karaokenight at Cathy's Bar and Grill!

Jeeves, could you tell the maid to be sure to Hoover the bedroom carpet?

Your friend Jason is such a techie!

**5. Mark each statement as true (T) or false (F). (11)**

Every English word contains at least one root.

In English, derivational morphemes occur before inflectional morphemes.

In English, derivational suffixes regularly occur before inflectional suffixes.

In English, a few inflectional morphemes can occur as prefixes.

Every root in English is a free morpheme.

In English, some morphemes have both a free and a bound allomorph.

In English, a free morpheme can't be more than one syllable in length.

In English, a bound morpheme can't be more than one syllable in length.

In English, the same letter or phoneme—or sequence of letters or phonemes—always represents the same morpheme?

In English, the same morpheme can't be spelled differently.

In English, different morphemes can be pronounced identically.

**6. Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words. (14)**

*disability*

*unbelievable*

**7. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *What are the major differences between derivational and inflectional affixes?* (15)**

# Morphology Exam

Answer Sheet

MAY 14, 2019

**Surname** (use capital letters, please) .....

Max score: 80/ 100%

**Name** (use capital letters, please) .....

points (%):

Grade:

**1. Match the terms below with definitions. (12)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10..., 11..., 12...

**2. Match the words with the type they are formed. (12)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10..., 11..., 12...

**3. Fill in the spaces. (6)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6...

**4. More than one process was involved in the creation of the forms underlined in these sentences. Can you identify the processes involved in each case? (10)**

1.../..., 2.../..., 3.../..., 4.../..., 5.../...

**5. Mark each statement as true (T) or false (F). (11)**

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10..., 11...

**6. Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words. (14)**

*disability*

*unbelievable*

7. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *What are the major differences between derivational and inflectional affixes?* (15)

# Morphology Exam

May 27, 2019

## 1. Match the terms below with definitions. (12)

allomorph	word or part of a word viewed as an input to a derivational or inflectional process, in particular affixation
base	one of the variant pronunciations of a morpheme, among which the choice is determined by context (phonological, grammatical or lexical)
circumfix	morpheme that occurs in only one word (more precisely, only one lexeme)
cranberry morpheme	morpheme that can stand on its own as a word
free morpheme	word seen as an abstract grammatical entity, represented concretely by one or more different inflected word forms according to the grammatical context
lexeme	a two-part affix, one part preceding and the other following the base.
monomorphemic	newly coined word
morpheme	resemblance between the sound of a word and what it denotes, e.g. in <i>cock-a-doodle-do</i>
neologism	minimal unit of grammatical structure
onomatopoeia	consisting of only one morpheme
polymorphemic	within a non-compound word, the morpheme that makes the most precise and concrete contribution to the word's meaning, and is either the sole morpheme or else the only one that is not a prefix or a suffix
root	consisting of more than one morpheme

## 2. Match the words with the type they are formed. (12)

blend	windmill, laughing gas
coordinative compound	sandwich, fahrenheit
exocentric compound	paleface, skinhead, pickpocket
acronym/alphabeticism	Interpol, CD-ROM, LOL
hybrid word	hyperactive, homosexual
eponym	Swedish-American; producer-director
clipping	Oxbridge, Wi-fi
back-formation	babysit, back-form
endocentric compound	photo, coon
reduplication	Aussie, hankie



calque	in a nutshell, devil's advocate
hypocorism	teeny-weeny, tip-top, walkie-talkie, criss-cross

**3. Fill in the spaces.** a) *head*; b) *compounds*; c) *words*; d) *predictable*; e) *back-formations*; f) *assumption*. (6)

There are many ways for new .....1..... to be created other than affixation .....2..... are formed by uniting two or more root words in a single word, such as *homework*. The .....3..... of the compound (the rightmost word) bears the basic meaning, so *homework* means a kind of work done at home, but often the meaning of compounds is not easily .....4.....and must be learned as individual lexical items, such as *laughing gas*. .....5..... are words created by misinterpreting an affix look-alike such as *er* as an actual affix, so the verb *burgle* was formed under the mistaken .....6..... that *burglar* was *burgle* + *er*.

**4. More than one process was involved in the creation of the forms underlined in these sentences. Can you identify the processes involved in each case?** a) *coinage*; b) *backformation*; c) *acronym*; d) *infixing*; e) *borrowing* f) *conversion*; g) *compounding*; h) *hypocorism*; i) *clipping*; j) *blending*; k) *eponym* (10)

Are you still using that old car-phone?

Can you FedEx the books to me today?

Welcome, everyone, to karaoke night at Cathy's Bar and Grill!

Jeeves, could you tell the maid to be sure to Hoover the bedroom carpet?

Your friend Jason is such a techie!

**5. Mark each statement as true (T) or false (F).** (11)

Every English word contains at least one root.

In English, derivational morphemes occur before inflectional morphemes.

In English, derivational suffixes regularly occur before inflectional suffixes.

In English, a few inflectional morphemes can occur as prefixes.

Every root in English is a free morpheme.

In English, some morphemes have both a free and a bound allomorph.

In English, a free morpheme can't be more than one syllable in length.

In English, a bound morpheme can't be more than one syllable in length.

In English, the same letter or phoneme—or sequence of letters or phonemes—always represents the same morpheme?

In English, the same morpheme can't be spelled differently.

In English, different morphemes can be pronounced identically.

**6. Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words. (14)**

*disability*

*unbelievable*

**7. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *Conversion* (15)**

# Morphology Exam

Answer Sheet

MAY 27, 2019

**Surname** (use capital letters, please) .....

Max score: 80/ 100%

**Name** (use capital letters, please) .....

points (%):

Grade:

## 1. Match the terms below with definitions. (12)

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10..., 11..., 12...

## 2. Match the words with the type they are formed. (12)

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10..., 11..., 12...

## 3. Fill in the spaces. (6)

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6...

## 4. More than one process was involved in the creation of the forms underlined in these sentences. Can you identify the processes involved in each case? (10)

1.../..., 2.../..., 3.../..., 4.../..., 5.../...

## 5. Mark each statement as true (T) or false (F). (11)

1..., 2..., 3..., 4..., 5..., 6..., 7..., 8..., 9..., 10..., 11...

## 6. Draw structure tree diagrams for the following words. (14)

*disability*

*unbelievable*

7. In 80-100 words, write about the following topic: *Conversion* (15)



## PART III



The third part of the book provides a glossary of main morphological terms. The glossary was compiled by Anna T. Litovkina's students attending her course on Introduction to Linguistics which she was teaching in Poland (Tischner European University, Krakow) in 2012. One of the tasks for her students was – within the frame of a compulsory group project work – to compile a glossary of linguistic terms.

In November 2012 Anna T. Litovkina assigned her students the following task, to compile a glossary of linguistic terms (based on some terms from Fromkin et al. 2011 book she had provided).

Anna T. Litovkina explained to the students what a glossary is, and she showed a number of various examples.

Furthermore, she sent her students an e-mail message explaining what they had to do.

Some parts of the message are provided below:

What do you have to do? Compile a glossary of linguistic terms.

What is glossary? A glossary is an alphabetical list of terms in a particular domain of knowledge with the definitions for those terms, and it usually appears at the end of a book and includes terms within that book that are either newly introduced, uncommon, or specialized.

What is the deadline of submitting your project? Dec. 18, the students who are responsible for collecting definitions from other students, should put the definitions in alphabetical order, and send them to me electronically and also give them printed out.

What should each definition include?

- term in bold (followed by word class in parentheses, e.g., noun)
- definition (60-100 words)
- cross references to some other terms (if needed).
- examples should be given in italics.
- sources which have been used (at least 4 sources)
- at the end of each definition the name of the student who has compiled it.
- The size of letters 12, Time New Roman size 12, 1,5 line space.

What should you pay attention to? No plagiarism. You compile definitions using



various sources but you have to rewrite them, you have to give your own examples.

A few examples from some electronic sources Anna T. Litovkina sent to her students in November 2012:

### **Adverb**

A class of words (many ending with the suffix *-ly*) that are often found helping to modify a verb in order to provide extra detail about the way the action told by the verb occurred; however, adverbs are also used to modify other adverbs or adjectives, e.g. "The girl worked especially hard." "He was just too much!" Adverbs can give detail concerning time (soon), place (there) and manner (nearly). Adverbs tend to give extra detail about time, place or manner.

Glossary of Linguistic Terms a-m

[http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitions-a-m.htm](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitions-a-m.htm)

### **Mood**

(modal / modality)

'Mood' is an aspect of English verbs. Verb phrases can be categorised according to whether they express an actual or a potential action or state. The moods are: indicative mood: 'He plays well'; 'She is happy' (indicating an actual event or state); imperative mood: 'Sit down!' (issuing a command); interrogative mood: 'Will you please sit down?' (asking a question); subjunctive mood: 'If she were alive, then...' (pointing to a possibility or wish).

Mood is often created in a verb phrase through the use of a modal auxiliary. This kind of auxiliary verb usually creates the effect of suggesting that the action told of by the verb is not real but is potential.

Glossary of Linguistic Terms a-m

[http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitions-a-m.htm](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitions-a-m.htm)

### **Head / head word**

All phrases have what is called a head or head word. This is the word within the phrase that determines its grammatical function (and which acts to provide its most general meaning); other words within the phrase act in a modifying capacity. For ex-

ample, in the noun phrase 'the old-fashioned door', the head word is the noun, door - the remaining words within the phrase act to modify this head word; in a verb phrase such as 'might be hit', the head word is the finite verb hit and in a prepositional phrase such as 'on the table', the head word is on.

Glossary of Linguistic Terms a-m

[http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitionsa-m.htm](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitionsa-m.htm)

All the students were divided into 9 groups, and each group got from Anna T. Litovkina various linguistic terms. After using various sources, including online sources, the students were supposed to write definitions of the terms provided by Anna T. Litovkina. Each student was supposed to create a glossary of 10 terms.

What follows below is a glossary of main syntactical terms selected for this book from the glossary compiled by Anna T. Litovkina's students that contains more than 220.000 characters.

## Glossary

**Acronym** (noun)- (in Greek “akros” - extreme, “onyma” - name) it is an abbreviation which does not include periods in its trace. Acronyms are made from first letters of a name which consists of more than one word. For example: NATO – *North Atlantic Treaty Organisation*, AIDS – *acquired immune deficiency syndrome*, FAQ – *frequently asked questions*. Acronyms became much more popular in the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

Sources:

Prof. Dr Dycik Jan, prof. Dr Herbst Stanisław, *Encyklopedia PWN*, Warszawa, 1973  
-Jaworski Stanisław, *Słownik szkolny- terminy literackie*, Wydawnictwa Szkolne i Pedagogiczne, Warszawa, 1990

Prof. Dr Tokarski Jan, *Słownik wyrazów obcych PWN*, Warszawa, 1980  
-<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/acronym>

(Compiled by Marta Kramarczyk)

**Adjective-** Adjective is a part of speech, which describes or modifies noun or pronoun. Adjective gives more informations about noun (age, size, colour, feelings, look). In English grammar we have various types of adjectives that are assign to use in sentences:

-Attributive adjective

-Predicative adjective

-Absolute adjective

-Nominal adjective

The articles: “a,” “an” and “the” are also adjectives. Characteristic suffixes for adjectives: “-able,” “-al,” “-ful,” “-ic,” “-less,” “-ous,” “-ing,” “-ous”.

Examples of use:

*My mother told me that my grandfather was ruthless.*

*The most cruel person during the Second World War was Hitler.*

Sources:

-J. Turnbull, D. Lea, D. Parkinson “Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of current English” 2010

-M.Szulc, S. Ciepły “Popularna Encyklopedia Powszechna” 2001

-R. Łąkowski, W. Kryszewski, „Encyklopedia PWN” 1999

-T. Chwalińska, M. Gałązka, J. Pol, K. Pol -“Encyklopedia Humanisty” 2008  
(Compiled by Joanna Kubicz)

**Adverb-** Adverb is a part of speech, which is recognized by questions : How?, when?, where?, in which way?. Adverb can be also recognized by suffix”- ly”, but not in all situations. It call manner, place, time performing activities. In clause adverb modifies verb, adjective or another adverb. Adverb change the form of sentence by words for example: *more, most*.

Examples of use:

*Sophie worn dirty clothes, so she went home and changed it quickly.*

*Yesterday famous superstar was being seen by paparazzi.*

Sources:

-J. Turnbull, D. Lea, D. Parkinson “ Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of current English” 2010

-M.Szulc, S. Ciepły “Popularna Encyklopedia Powszechna” 2001

-R. Łąkowski, W. Kryszewski „ Encyklopedia PWN” 1999

-T. Chwalińska, M. Gałązka, J. Pol, K. Pol -“Encyklopedia Humanisty” 2008  
(Compiled by Joanna Kubicz)

**Affix-** These are specific groups of letters which we are added the beginning or the end of the word what are changing the significance of this expression or other part of speech is arising.

Two groups are singled out:

*Prefix* - we are putting them before the core of the word and is changing the form of the word

Examples:

UNhappy

REforward

DISlike

MISunderstand

*Suffix*- put at the end of the expression, it is creating the similar word, but is different part of speech

Examples:

dogS

workED

eatEN

sleepING

Sources:

“Collins COBULID New Student’s Dictionary”

“Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English”

<http://www.englishclub.com/vocabulary/suffixes.htm>

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prefix>

(Compiled by Ewelina Kraust)

**Agglutinative language**- In linguistics, morphological process consisting in applying affixes of different kind, determining the syntactical function of the word in notice. A casual relationship with the core of the word and their frequent contact are distinguishing these affixes from inflections - they usually determine only one grammatical category what is bringing the need for simultaneous adding to the expression many affixes.

Sources:

“The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language”

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Agglutinative\\_language](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Agglutinative_language)

[http://www.princeton.edu/~achaney/tmve/wiki100k/docs/Agglutinative\\_language.html](http://www.princeton.edu/~achaney/tmve/wiki100k/docs/Agglutinative_language.html)

<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsAnAgglutinativeLanguage.htm>

(Compiled by Ewelina Kraust)

**Allomorph** (noun)- An allomorph is a variant of a morpheme. Allomorphs have the same meaning but they are different in pronunciation and spellings. The groups a few allomorphs of one morpheme they never intersect. Allomorph it is the term which explains changes of phonological variations for characteristic morphemes. The allomorphs of a morpheme are descendent from phonological rules so morphophonemic rules cannot have connection or adopt to that morpheme.

*Examples: [s] as in hats, [z] as in pigs, [ez] as in boxes.*

Sources:

<http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/>

<http://www.ethnologue.com/home.asp>

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main\\_Page](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page)

(Compiled by Marlena Ciach)

**Allophone** (noun)- Sound which is different to other sound from the phonetic traits that cannot have influence to the meaning of the word. That sound are very common to another sound but they are all quite differ to themselves from each other even if they are belong to the same phoneme. Also the whole different dose not has any impact on the word.

*Examples: the [l] at the beginning of little is different from the [l] at the end.*

Sources:

<http://oald8.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/>

<http://www.translationdirectory.com/>

<http://grammar.about.com/>

(Compiled by Marlena Ciach)

**Alphabetic Abbreviation** (noun)- The word abbreviation comes from latin word “*brevis*” which original meaning is “*short*”. Abbreviation on its own is a way of presenting a word or phrase in a condensed version. Generally abbreviations are created by reducing the amount of letters from the word or phrase or by taking first letters of each word of a phrase and putting them together sometimes separated with a full stop. There is no general rule for creating an abbreviation, for example BBC left using full stops at all. A simple example of an abbreviation is a word BBC itself which stands for *British Broadcasting Corporation* or *professor, prof*.

Sources:

<http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/abbreviation?q=abbreviation>

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abbreviation>

<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/abbreviation>

<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british/abbreviation?q=abbreviation>

(Compiled by Jakub Kubala)

**Analytic language**- any language that uses specific grammatical words, or particles, rather than inflection, to express syntactic relations within sentences. An analytic language is commonly identified with an isolating language since the two classes of language tend to coincide.

Typical examples are Vietnamese and Classical Chinese, which are analytic and isolating. Analytic language is to be contrasted with synthetic language. The term “analytic” is commonly used in a relative rather than an absolute sense. For example, English is less inflectional and thus more analytic than most Indo-European languages.

(For example ; It uses an auxiliary verb in “would be” whereas in Romance languages this would be expressed as a single inflected word, such as the Spanish “*estaría*,” “*estarías*,” “*estaríamos*,” “*estaríais*,” “*estarían*,” “*estaba*,” “*estabas*,” “*estábamos*,” “*estabais*,” “*estaban*,” “*estoy*,” “*estás*,” “*está*,” “*estamos*,” “*estáis*,” or “*están*”; and it uses prepositions where most Slavic languages use declensional inflections). However, English is also not totally analytic as it does use inflections (for example, *choose / chose / chosen / choosing*); Mandarin Chinese has, by comparison, no inflections: “I go to shop today,” “I go to shop tomorrow,” “I go to shop yesterday.

Analytic languages are especially common in China and Southeast Asia, where examples include Vietnamese. Modern Chinese has lost some of the synthetic features of Old Chinese such as syllable modification (modern tonal alteration being a relic) for verbification and utilisation of the “s-” causative prefix found in many Sino-Tibetan languages.

Sources:

-Encyclopedia Britannica

-Wikipedia

(Compiled by Dilan Durak)

## **Article (art)**

An article (abbreviated art) is a part of speech that occurs before a noun (word, prefix, or suffix). It is there to signalize the identify type reference being created. Articles can be grouped as either definite or indefinite, but we can make various forms of articles. For example according to gender, number, or case. We can divide an article into specific types of groups for example: definite, indefinite, Partitive, Negative, or zero article. *Depending on the word we must put a proper article before, for the sentence to have logical*

*sense and meaning.*

Sources:

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Article\\_\(grammar\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Article_(grammar))

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Article>

<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/540/01/>

<http://www.grammarly.com/handbook/grammar/articles>

(Compiled by Ewelina Kumor)

## **Back- formation**

Part of speech: noun

Creation of a new, more elementary word by using an existing word. It is made most frequently by cancelling an apparent affix or by other modifications. To make this morphological structure is to remove the prefix or suffix in some kind of word to create new word. Back- formations are shortened words created from longer words. This is one of the processes which results in the creation of new words and it is still used nowadays.

*Examples:*

*Back- formations:*

*Babysit-ter*

*babysit*

*Edit-or*

*edit*

Sources:

Random House Webster's Unabridged Dictionary,

The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language,

Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's English Dictionary,

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.

(Compiled by Natalia Luty)

## **Base (noun)**

The part of a word, composed of one or more morphemes, which can be modified and to which you can add derivational or inflectional affixes, prefixes or other bases; root or stem. It often happens that some variation occurs in a base and it seems to be changed. In fact this variation is a part of a slightly changed base forming a derivative. For example the base word *move* can become *moved*, *moves*, *unmoved*, *moving*, *move-*



*ment, unmovable, remove and more.*

Sources:

<http://education.yahoo.com/reference/dictionary/entry/base>

<http://websters.yourdictionary.com/base>

“Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary” Eleventh Edition

“Advanced Learner’s English Dictionary” New Edition, Collins Cobuild

“Unabridge Dictionary”, Random House Webster’s

“The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language”, Rodney Huddleston Geoffrey

K. Pullum

(Compiled by Paulina Łukomska)

## **Blend**

Verb

To mix or combine ( that two words are indistinguishable);

Blend all ingredients together.

She has no difficulties blending her two careers.

To merged into one.

To combine to attain a mixture of a particular character, quality, or consistency; *blend*

*tea*

To form uniform mixture;

The smell of smoke blended into the odor of the other perfume.

To create proper result; harmonize

That dress blended with black jacket.

To combine style, tastes and qualities.

Noun

Something produced by blending.

A mixture of two or more things.

Sources:

<http://grammar.about.com/od/ab/g/blendterm.htm>

<http://dictionary.infoplease.com/blend>

[http://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/blend\\_8](http://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/blend_8)

<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/blend>

(Compiled by Maciejowska Magdalena)

**Borrowing** (noun)

Word or phrase adopted from another language; *borrowed word*.

Loan word ; a word taken into one language from another one with little or no translation.

The act of transacting within or between groups.

In business; getting something worth in exchange of an obligation and you have to pay it back in precise time in the future.

Sources:

<http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/borrowing.html>

<http://dictionary.infoplease.com/borrowing>

<http://grammar.about.com/od/il/g/learnedborrowingterm.htm>

<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/borrow>

(Compiled by Maciejowska Magdalena)

**Bound morpheme** (noun)

A morpheme that only occurs as a part of larger construction also known as a bound form. Affixes are also known as morphemes. Morphemes which may be independent are called free forms; morphemes which never occur alone are called bound forms. The s in dogs is a bound morpheme, and it is meaningless without the free morpheme dog

A smallest unit of linguistic unit.

Sources:

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bound\\_morpheme](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bound_morpheme)

<http://grammar.about.com/od/ab/g/boundmorphterm.htm>

<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsABoundMorpheme.htm>

<http://www.uncp.edu/home/canada/work/caneng/morpheme.htm>

(Compiled by Maciejowska Magdalena)

**Case** (noun)

The grammatical category through which inflect nouns, adjectives, pronouns and articles which is a reflection of their different functions. Defined by the functions in the phrase and determines the morphological character of the word. e.g. *pronoun could*

act as the subject ("I cooked the dinner"), with the holder ("This house is mine") or the object ("My mother loves me").

Sources:

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/Grammatical+cases>

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical\\_case](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_case)

<http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/case>

<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsCase.htm>

(Compiled by Olga Maj)

### Clipping (noun)

In morphology, the word-formation process which consist of omitting one or more syllables in an existing word, clipping is also known as the result of this process. There are four types of clipping: back clipping, remove the end of the word, e.g., *doc* from *doctor*; *gym* from *gymnastics*, fore-clipping, delete the beginning of the word e.g., *chute* from *parachute*, middle clipping, leave the middle part of a word, e.g., *tec* from *detective* and the last one complex clipping, delete many parts from multiple words, e.g., *smog* from *smoke* and *fog*. See **abbreviation, shortening**.

Sources:

<http://books.google.pl/books?id=3qJLY4YZBiwC&pg=PA203&dq=-clipping+linguistics&hl=pl&sa=X&ei=1wjCUPaDKqjV4QTPxYHw-Cg&ved=0CDYQ6AEwAw#v=onepage&q=clipping%20linguistics&f=false>

<http://books.google.pl/books?id=v1SJGCPtvGIC&printsec=frontcover&dq=-clipping&hl=pl&sa=X&ei=sQjCUInSFomk4gSqroHADQ&ved=0CDMQ6AEwAQ>

<http://oxforddictionaries.com/words/shortenings>

<http://www.brighthubeducation.com/esl-lesson-plans/59679-forming-new-words-compounds-clipping-and-blends/>

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Clipping\\_\(morphology\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Clipping_(morphology))

(Compiled by Sylwia Majka)

**Closed class (or closed word class).** Closed class is made up of bounded sets of words, has few items and new morphemes (words) are seldom added, include words like: *or, from, that, the, and, with*. In form they are generally changeless. In different

languages are various word classes, in English verbs are open class and pronouns are closed class but in Japanese, verbs are closed class and pronouns are open class. See **open class**.

Sources:

<http://books.google.pl/books?id=kDfA94ZIKvgC&pg=PA138&dq=closed+-class+linguistic&hl=pl&sa=X&ei=Vh3CULmOH6GE4ATS8IBY&ved=0CD-8Q6AEwBA#v=onepage&q=closed%20class%20linguistic&f=false>

<http://books.google.pl/books?id=gPbQyRdnM18C&pg=PA455&dq=closed+-class+linguistic&hl=pl&sa=X&ei=Vh3CULmOH6GE4ATS8IBY&ved=0CD-MQ6AEwAA#v=onepage&q=closed%20class%20linguistic&f=false>

<http://www.ucl.ac.uk/internet-grammar/wordclas/wordclas.htm>

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Closed\\_class](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Closed_class)

<http://encyclopedia.thefreedictionary.com/Closed+class+word>

(Compiled by Sylwia Majka)

### **Circumfix** (noun)

An affix type, a morpheme which is placed around another morpheme. Circumfix behaves like a prefix (placed before the root of a word) and a suffix (placed after the root of the word) used together e.g., *preconceived*, which has the prefix *pre-* and a suffix *-d*. English has only few examples of circumfix, other languages use it more often. This affix type is common in Indonesian, Malay and Georgian.

Sources:

<http://www.ielanguages.com/linguist.html>

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/circumfix>

[http://books.google.pl/books?id=IoTdAUdNkgIC&pg=PA218&dq=circumfix-&hl=pl&sa=X&ei=2RnCUIfnA8nQhAff\\_IDYDw&sqi=2&ved=0CDUQ6AEwAQ#v=onepage&q=circumfix&f=false](http://books.google.pl/books?id=IoTdAUdNkgIC&pg=PA218&dq=circumfix-&hl=pl&sa=X&ei=2RnCUIfnA8nQhAff_IDYDw&sqi=2&ved=0CDUQ6AEwAQ#v=onepage&q=circumfix&f=false)

<http://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Linguistics/Affixes>

<http://neohumanism.org/c/ci/circumfix.html>

(Compiled by Sylwia Majka)

### **Coinage** (noun)

The process of construction or invention of new words that then become part of the lexicon. The aim of the process of coinage is the creation of a new name for new things or a new, different name for already named things. This process is based on different methods, for example, mixing existing words or taking words from other languages. The usage of acronyms and affixes is also one of the method. Coinage is found in different area of life (politics, design, advertising, science, popular culture). The name of created new words is neologism.

See also **blend, borrowing**

Sources:

<http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/knowledge-database/neologisms>

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neologism>

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/Word+coinage>

(Compiled by Magdalena Mazurek)

### **Compound**

It is a word consisting of two parts, which in the end form a new word. The main idea is to put two different words and make from them new one. These words are often use with hyphens, separated with space or written as single new word. Created word is mainly a noun or adjective. New word need to have at least two stem. One and the other stem can be completely different in meaning, but putting them together formed grammatically consistency. "Compound" is a kind of "lexeme".

Examples: *fast food* (noun), *sunshine* (noun), *second-hand* (adjective).

Sources:

Collins Cobuild "Advanced Learner's English Dictionary",

Pam Peters "The Cambridge Guide To English Usage".

"Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary"

[www.wikipedia.org](http://www.wikipedia.org)

(Compiled by Karolina Mroczka)

**Content word** (noun): is a open class words (nouns, verbs, adjectives and most adverbs) that mainly expresses an independent lexical meaning (to convent information

in a text). For example: “I **have** four cars” – “have” is a content word. It helps us to focus our listener’s attention on the picture which we have on our mind. It contrasts with function words (closed class- word that made sentence grammatically correct). “I **have** come to do it” – “have” is a function word.

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Content\\_word](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Content_word)

<http://banana.psychol.ucl.ac.uk/transcription/intro.html>

<http://grammar.about.com/od/fh/g/functionword.htm>

<http://grammar.about.com/od/c/g/contentwordterm.htm>

(Compiled by Justyna Nogala)

**Count nouns/ noun** (noun)- A particular type of noun which can be pluralized when needed, mostly by attaching *s*, *es*, or *ies* at the end of the word. Count nouns can also occur in a noun phrase with numerals, numbers or an indefinite article. e.g. *potato* (*potatoes*), *lie* (*lies*), *memory* (*memories*).

The opposite of count nouns are mass nouns, also called non-count nouns, which cannot form a plural.

Sources:

[grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/noncount.htm](http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/noncount.htm)

[meredith.edu/grammar/plural.htm#and x](http://meredith.edu/grammar/plural.htm#and_x)

[grammar.about.com/od/c/g/countnounterm.htm](http://grammar.about.com/od/c/g/countnounterm.htm)

[2.gsu.edu/~eslhp/grammar/lecture\\_5/classes.html](http://2.gsu.edu/~eslhp/grammar/lecture_5/classes.html)

(Compiled by Szymon Nowiński)

**Demonstrative articles:** some grammarians use that term for demonstratives: *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*.

Sources:

<http://www.usingenglish.com/forum/ask-teacher/93441-demonstrative-article.html>

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Determiner>

(Compiled by Natalia Pierzchała)

**Demonstratives:** word comes from Latin, where means “show” or “warn”. There are four types of them: that, this, these and those. They are meant to state a distance from

speaker, indicate whether something is near or far, show singular or plural; distance can be physical but also psychological. D. can be used as pronouns or determiners (adjectives), which are sometimes referred as demonstrative adjectives, then they modify the noun, or demonstrative pronouns. The demonstratives in English are this, that, these, those, yonder, and the archaic yon, along with this one or that one as substitutes for the pronoun use of this or that.

1. Demonstrative “this” is used for singular nouns that are close to the speaker.
2. D. “that” is used for singular nouns that are far from the speaker.
3. D. “these” is used for plural nouns that are close to the speaker.
4. D. “those” is used for plural nouns that are far from the speaker.

Internet sources:

<http://www.englishexercises.org/buscador/buscar.asp?nivel=any&age=0&tipo=any&contents=demonstratives>

<http://www.usingenglish.com/glossary/demonstrative.html>

[http://english-the-easy-way.com/Determiners/What\\_Are\\_Determiners.htm](http://english-the-easy-way.com/Determiners/What_Are_Determiners.htm)

<http://grammar.about.com/od/d/g/demonterm.htm>

(Compiled by Natalia Pierzchała)

**Derivational morpheme:** the formation of word or base with specific collocation of phonemes. This is process of producing new word or phrase out of more old words. Principles modify a word to fit it in a sentence, what is calling conjugation and declension. Words can be created by adding affixes into a root word. Rootwords are usually nouns or verbs, which can be affixed to words. These words can be also created by adding suffixes and prefixes. Suffixes often changes meaning and the word class:

-adjective: derivational,

-verb: derive,

-noun: derivation.

Prefixes can creating a different meaning:

- group-subgroup.

Sources:

<http://grammar.about.com/od/d/g/derivterm.htm>

<http://ardictionary.com/Derivation/3264>

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Malay\\_grammar](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Malay_grammar)

### **Determiner** (det) (n)

A word, affix or noun phrase belonging to group of noun modifiers, which is used with a noun (noun phrase) to express its exact **denotative meaning**, e.g. 'My cat is an adorable animal' or 'You must correct all your mistakes'. Determiner divides into articles (a, an, the), possessives (my, your, our, etc.), demonstratives (this, those, who, whose, etc.), numerals and quantifiers (many, a little, all, etc.). Among the numerals also sub-class is distinguished which is called ordinals (second, seventh, etc.).

Sources:

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Determiner>

<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsAQuantifier.htm>

[http://english-the-easy-way.com/Determiners/What\\_Are\\_Determiners.htm](http://english-the-easy-way.com/Determiners/What_Are_Determiners.htm)

<http://webpace.qmul.ac.uk/cjpountain/linggloss.htm#determiner>

[http://www.orbilat.com/General\\_References/Linguistic\\_Terms.html](http://www.orbilat.com/General_References/Linguistic_Terms.html)

(Compiled by Paulina Ożóg)

### **Emoticon** (noun)

A short, flattering expression which we create by using keyboard letters, symbols and numbers. It is expressed our feelings or mood. We use it in text message, chat and e-mail. Generally we use it when we write with our friends or sometimes with family. Emoticons are made our messages more humorous and entertaining. Emoticons are appeared also in a digital form. Emoticon was used for the first time in 20<sup>th</sup> century.

Sources:

<http://grammar.about.com/>

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main\\_Page](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page)

<http://whatis.techtarget.com/>

Malmkjaer Kristen, *The Routledge Linguistics Encyclopedia*, Third Edition, New York, Routledge, 2010, ISBN13:978-0-415-42104-1 (hbk) / ISBN13:978-0-203-87495-0 (ebk)

Pearsall Judy and Trumble Bill, *Oxford English Reference Dictionary*, Second Edi-



tion, Oxford University Press, 2002, ISBN 0-19-860652-4 / ISBN 978-0-19-860652-9

(Compiled by Klaudia Sławecka)

**Eponym** – a name based on or derived from a proper name. It is given to an object, activity after his inventor, discoverer. Eponym actually refers also to the proper name which the new word was created from. Eponyms are considered while examining the etymology of the given word. One of the synonyms of eponym is **namegiver**.

*Saxophone – named after the surname (Sax) of the instrument-making family in 19<sup>th</sup> century.*

Sources:

<http://dictionary.reference.com>

<http://www.merriam-webster.com>

<http://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki>

<http://grammar.about.com>

(Compiled by Beata Kwiatkowska)

**Etymology** – derived from the Greek word 'etymon' meaning 'true sense' and a suffix 'logy' standing for 'the study of'. Etymology is the study of the origin of the words, their history, developments of their forms and how their meanings have changed from the beginning of their invention. It deals with drifting of words between different languages and their ancestral legacy, but also etymology tries to find the very first meaning of the given word.

*A collection of the words as well as their etymologies is given on a separate paper.*

Sources:

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki>

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com>

<http://www.etymonline.com>

<http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english>

<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british>

(Compiled by Beata Kwiatkowska)

**Folk etymology** – (in linguistics) the gradual change in a word made by replacing it with a more familiar, better-understood or better-known one (*sparrow grass* – *asparagus*). The term also is referred to the process of widely known but incorrect adaptation of a foreign word to a different language and replacing the word with a similar word which is more familiar among the natives of the language into which the word arrived (*Spanish* – *English*: *Cucaracha* - Cockroach).

Sources:

<http://oxforddictionaries.com>

<http://dictionary.reverso.net>

<http://www.merriam-webster.com>

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com>

<http://en.wikipedia.org>

(Compiled by Beata Kwiatkowska)

**Free morpheme** – in linguistics, it is a single element which can stand alone as a word and cannot be divided into similar components. In language, a free morpheme may be used either as a word on its own or a root of another word (then added part of that word is called a bound morpheme which cannot stay alone and must be attached to its root). (see also: bound morpheme)

This is a table comparing free morphemes with bound morphemes:

Free morpheme	Bound morpheme
<i>cash</i>	<i>cashier</i>
<i>hot</i>	<i>hotter</i>
<i>melody</i>	<i>melodies</i>
<i>publish</i>	<i>republish</i>

Sources:

“The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language”, D. Crystal

<http://www.uncp.edu/home/canada/work/caneng/morpheme.htm>

<http://www.wisegeek.com/what-is-a-morpheme.htm#did-you-know>

<http://everything2.com/title/free+morpheme>

(Compiled by Anna Sojda)

**Function word** - a word that indicates some relationships between words. Function words are the linking words between sentences which make them kept together. What must be added, those words serves only grammatical function. Function words do not make the noun's meaning different. Each function word provides other words with some grammatical information in a sentence or clause,(and cannot stay alone as a word).

Function words might be:

Prepositions, e.g. over, at, in etc. *We stayed at home all day.*

Pronouns, e.g. her, ourselves, each other etc. *He fell in love with her.*

Auxiliary verbs, e.g. to be, have etc. *I have eaten so much pasta.*

Conjunctions, e.g. and, but, although etc. *Although she told behind my backs, I still like her.*

Articles, e.g. a/an, the *I play the piano.*

Particles, e.g. as if, however, then etc. *He behaves as if he was an adult.*

Sources:

"Grammar of spoken and written English", D. Biber, S. Johansson, G. Leech, S. Conrad, E. Finegan

"The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language", D. Crystal

[http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitions-a-m.htm](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitions-a-m.htm)

<http://grammar.about.com/od/fh/g/functionword.htm>

(Compiled by Anna Sojda)

### **Functional categories** (adjective + noun)

The group of functional categories contains mainly **function words**, which have only functional meaning and exists only in order to show the attitude or mood of the person speaking. They include: coordinate conjunction, determiner, negation, particle, preposition, and prepositional phrase, subordinate conjunction, etc. These categories are not lexical or phrasal.

Sources:

<http://www.omniglot.com/>

"The Oxford Dictionary Of English Grammar", S. Chalker, E.Weiner

<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/GlossaryLinguisticsL.htm>

<http://www.uni-due.de/ELE/LinguisticGlossary.html>

<http://www.cs.bham.ac.uk/~pxc/nlp/nlpgloss.html>

[http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitions-a-m.htm#Grammar](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitions-a-m.htm#Grammar)  
(Compiled by Janusz Majewski)

**Fusional languages** – In other words synthetic languages. A fusional language is a language in which one form of a morpheme can simultaneously encode several meanings. Words can be changed in their basic form to eg. denote grammatical, syntactic, semantic change.

They have extensive inflection. The example of such language is Polish and Latin.

Sources:

<http://www.wisegeek.com/>

<http://grammar.about.com/>

<http://www.britannica.com/>

<http://www.ling.pl/>

(Compiled by Sylwia Soból)

**Grammatical categories** (adjective + noun)

They are groups of terms such as: case, mood, aspect, number, person, tense, topic, degree of comparison etc. That are used to differentiate and examine among many states of verbs and nouns. Every one of those grammatical categories contain determinants. For example in English language, the category number has the determinants of singular and plural. The number of a noun such as train is made by adding a suffix –s.

*Example:*

*train-trains*

Sources:

<http://www.omniglot.com/>

“The Oxford Dictionary Of English Grammar”, S. Chalker, E. Weiner

<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/GlossaryLinguisticsL.htm>

<http://www.uni-due.de/ELE/LinguisticGlossary.html>

<http://www.cs.bham.ac.uk/~pxc/nlp/nlpgloss.html>

[http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitions-a-m.htm#Grammar](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitions-a-m.htm#Grammar)  
(Compiled by Janusz Majewski)

## **Graphemes** (noun)

The smallest unit of writing system. Also it is a combination of letters which is used to represent speech/phoneme. It could change meaning of particular words.

Examples (graphemes of the phoneme /k/)

*k* as in *skirt*

*ck* as in *black*

*c* as in *coin*

*q* as in *quick*

In English word *shot* which contains four graphemes (*s, h, o* and *t*) there is only three phonemes, because *sh* is a digraph (combination of two letters/graphemes which made one sound).

Sources:

<http://grammar.about.com/>

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main\\_Page](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page)

<http://whatis.techtarget.com/>

Malmkjaer Kristen, *The Routledge Linguistics Encyclopedia*, Third Edition, New York, Routledge, 2010, (ebk)

Pearsall Judy and Trumble Bill, *Oxford English Reference Dictionary*, Second Edition, Oxford University Press, 2002.

(Compiled by Klaudia Sławecka)

**Head (of a compound)** - is an element word that decides about other parts of phrase or the other way round; other elements determine the head word. The head determine the grammatical role of the whole phrase. The head of a compound can be: a noun, a verb, an adjective or an adverb. The grammatical nature of a phrase depends on a head word. (see also: compound)

Some examples of compounds and theirs head words:

*Travel agent* -> a noun phrase

*Holidaymakers* -> a noun phrase

*Red-haired* -> an adjective phrase

*A wife-to-be* -> a noun phrase

*Ensure* -> a verb phrase

*Smartly-thought* -> an adverb phrase

*Understand* -> a verb phrase

Sources:

"The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language", D. Crystal

"The Cambridge Grammar of the English language", R. Huddleston, G. Pullum

"Cambridge Grammar of English", R. Carter, M. McCarthy

[http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitions-a-m.htm](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitions-a-m.htm)

(Compiled by Anna Sojda)

### **Infinitive**

Infinitive (noun) - in many languages the basic form of a verb such as 'be', 'do' or 'go', that names the action without an inflection that binds it to a specific subject or tense. The infinitive is mainly used with 'to' in front of it. For instance: *I want to eat something.* or *We went there to see the performance.*

Sources: 'Longman, dictionary of contemporary English'; 'Collins, Advanced Learner's English dictionary'; 'Oxford Dictionary of English'; 'Random House Webster's college dictionary'

(Compiled by Patrycja Stachowiak)

### **Infix**

Infix (noun) – is an insert of a formative element into the body of an existing word to create a new word or to intensify the meaning. The word comes from Latin *infix* - 'fixed in'. The process of inserting an infix is called *infixation* but it cannot happen anywhere in the word and not all words can take an infix. For example: *bloomin* of *abso-bloom-in-lutely* or *fan-flaming-tastic*.

Sources: 'Blooming English: Observations on the Roots, Cultivation and Hybrids of the English Language'; 'Oxford Dictionary of English'; 'LinguaLinks Library'; [www.thefreedictionary.com](http://www.thefreedictionary.com).

(Compiled by Patrycja Stachowiak)

**Inflectional Morpheme: morpheme** – the smallest part of the a word; a bound morpheme which demonstrates the grammatical function of the word; inflectional morpheme shows plurality or singularity, tense, or comparative or possessive form; there are only 8 inflections in English language: noun: 's (s') – possessive e.g. Anna's

cat, s – plural e.g. umbrella-umbrellas; verb: -s e.g. play-plays, -ing paint-painting, -ed e.g. walk-walked, -en e.g. take-taken; adjective: -er (comparative) e.g. big-bigger, -est (superlative) e.g. big-biggest;

Gabriela Staniszewska

Sources:

Yule G., *The Study of Language* (4<sup>th</sup> edition), Cambridge University Press, 2010;

Fromkin V., Rodman R., Hyams N., *An Introduction to Language*, Wadsworth, 2003

<http://www.nativlang.com/linguistics/linguistic-terms-dictionary.php>

Spencer, A., *Morphological Theory*. Oxford: Blackwell, 1992

(Compiled by Gabriella Staniszewska)

### **Isolating language**

Language that doesn't have any historical or cultural relationship to other languages. Almost all words are created by morphemes, which are single words. Each of them has got just one form and the meaning is recognized by their place in a sentence and also by the context. Creating plural forms doesn't require adding affixes on nouns. Words almost always have 1:1 morpheme-word ratio (*toy morpheme toy 1:1 morpheme-word ratio*). Isolating language is also called analytic language.

E.g. Vietnamese, Thai, Burmese, Old Chinese.

Vietnamese: *khi tôi đến nhà bạn tôi, chúng tôi bắt đầu làm bài.*

*when I come house friend I Plural I begin do lesson*

*When I came to my friend's house, we began to do lessons.*

Sources:

<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsAnIsolating-Language.htm>

<http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/296308/isolating-language>

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Isolating\\_language](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Isolating_language)

<http://www.fpcc.ca/language/toolkit/Glossary.aspx>

<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsAnIsolating-Language.htm>

(Compiled by Elwira Stasiak)

## Lexical category

Lexical category – (also known as: part of speech, word/lexical class, grammatical category) is a class of lexical items. This syntactic category (referring to syntax) includes elements that are part of the vocabulary of a language. Lexical- from Greek *lexikos* ‘of words’, means relating to the words or lexicon of a language. There are major and minor lexical categories, every language has at least *noun* and *verb*.

Major categories	Examples	Minor categories	Examples
1.noun	postman, computer, Cracow,	conjunctions	and, since
2.verb	go, do, eat	interjections	och, hmm
adjective	stubborn, hand-some	prepositions	inside, over
adverb	beautifully, com-ically	pronouns	I, her

Sources:

“Collins, Advanced Learner’s English dictionary”; “Oxford Dictionary of English”; “Random House Webster’s college dictionary”; “LinguaLinks Library”  
(Compiled by Patrycja Stachowiak)

**Lexicographer-** A lexicographer is a person who edits, writes or compiles a dictionary. This person has to examine how words change for example in pronunciation, also defining words or selecting the components of the dictionary. They have to research a lot to defining words correctly. Lexicographer is related to lexicography which is divided into two disciplines: theoretical lexicography and practical lexicography.

Examples of use:

*Lexicographer is related to lexicography.*

*You have to love words to become a lexicographer.*

Sources:

J. Turnbull, D. Lea, D. Parkinson, “Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of current English”, 2010

M.Szulc, S. Cieplý, “Popularna Encyklopedia Powszechna”, 2001

William Collins Sons & Co., “Collins English Dictionary - Complete & Unabridged 10th Edition”, 2009

R. Łąkowski, W. Kryszewski, „Encyklopedia PWN”, 1999



(Compiled by Roksana Stępień)

**Lexicon** (noun)

Simply a miscellany of vocabulary used in a verbal communication, a catalogue or a book, consisting of terms utilized in a specific subject. The branch of knowledge about words existing in a language gathered in one particular dictionary where those words are arranged in alphabetical order. An entire accumulation of *morphemes* (the smallest *semantic* units – semantics; a study of meaning) in a language.

Sources:

<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/lexicon>

<http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/lexicon>

(Compiled by Dominika Struska)

**Loan translations** (noun)

Loan translations also called *calque*, are a borrowing from one language to another. Some words are adopted to language, because they counterparts exist in another language. All elements of the expression, are literally translated into a foreign language. Example of loan translation is French word *gratte-ciel*. French *gratte* means *to scrape* and *ciel* means *sky*, so this French word is inspired by English *skyscraper*.

See also *borrowings*.

Sources:

<http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/loan+translation>

<http://www.wordreference.com/definition/loan%20translation>

<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/loan%20translation>

<http://grammar.about.com/od/il/g/loantransterm.htm>

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/loan+translation>

(Compiled by Klaudia Szymańska)

**Loan word** (n): also known as a loanword. A term, a phrase or a whole sentence borrow from another language and added into native language. It is treated on the same way as domestic expression. It can be stored in the origin or slightly changed. It is used for communication in different spheres of life, particularly in science. Examples of use : 'CD-ROM', 'e-mail', 'fitness', 'botox', 'billboard', 'reply', 'tango' etc. Loan word

stands out according to the method of acquisition on: appropriate, semantic, calque and affected.

Synonyms: borrowing, foreignism.

Sources:

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Loanword>

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/Loanwords>

<http://www.definicja.org/Objasnienie-jezykowe/zapozyczenie.php>

<http://www.diki.pl/sownik-angielskiego/?q=zapo%C5%BCzenie>

<http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/345356/loanword>

my own knowledge

(Compiled by Karolina Ślusarczyk)

### Monomorphemic word

Monomorphemic word consists only of one morpheme ( The smallest unit within a word that can carry a meaning, such as “un-”, “break”, and “-able” in the word “unbreakable”. A morpheme can not be confused with a word. Every word comprises one or more morphemes.) Monomorphemic word can't be divided into any smaller parts.

Examples of words, in which differences between mono- and bi-morphemic words are shown:

\* Mono-morphemic:

- *man*,
- *woman*,
- *hear*,
- *break*,
- *work*.

\* Bi-morphemic:

- *reader*,
- *painter*,
- *blackboard*,
- *newspaper*,
- *airplane*.

Sources:

- <http://www.thefreedictionary.com>

- [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Modal\\_verb](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Modal_verb)

- <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/modal>

- <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/monomorphemic>

- <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/monomorphemic>

- <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/monomorphemic>

- <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/monomorphemic>

- <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morpheme>  
(Wojciech Zając)

### **Morpheme- n**

Every small part of a word that has a meaning or function and which can change the meaning or function; only one letter such as “s” in a word “girls” can be a morpheme, the other part is “girl”, so there are two morphemes in a word “girls”.

Morphemes can be attached to other morphemes, and we call them bound morphemes. The bound morpheme’s name is affix e.g. prefix *un-*( *un-doubt-ful* ) suffix *-ful* (*un-doubt -ful* ).

Morphemes can stand alone with its complete meaning e.g. *doubt*, and we call them free morphemes.

There are lexical morphemes: nouns, verbs, adjectives etc., with some meaning eg *school, dance, happy* and functional morphemes: prepositions, pronouns, articles etc., with no meaning, but only a grammatical function.

Sources:

[http://www.orbilat.com/General\\_References/Linguistic\\_Terms.html](http://www.orbilat.com/General_References/Linguistic_Terms.html)

<http://webpace.qmul.ac.uk/cjpountain/linggloss.htm>

<http://www.fpcc.ca/language/toolkit/Glossary.aspx>

[www.tlmaczenia-angielski.info/linguistics/morphology](http://www.tlmaczenia-angielski.info/linguistics/morphology)

[http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitions-a-m.htm](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitions-a-m.htm)

Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English, sixth edition  
Longman Exams Dictionary

(Compiled by Zuzanna Ząber)

### **Morphology (n)**

The branch of linguistics that has to do with the study and description of word structure.

Morphology is interested in word morphemes as well as the way they are joined together to form a new word – syntax.

Morphology is also concerned with the users understanding and invention of any word as well as its pronunciation – phonology.

There are:

- 1) derivational morphology which deals with words elements and their relationship or the way they are built eg *un- forgiv -able*. More developed for English.
- 2) inflectional morphology which deals with the grammatical role of one word in a sentence and any word forms. More developed for inflectional languages e.g. Polish or Latin.

Sources:

[http://www.orbilat.com/General\\_References/Linguistic\\_Terms.html](http://www.orbilat.com/General_References/Linguistic_Terms.html)

<http://webspace.qmul.ac.uk/cjpountain/linggloss.htm>

<http://www.fpcc.ca/language/toolkit/Glossary.aspx>

[www.tlumaczenia-angielski.info/linguistics/morphology](http://www.tlumaczenia-angielski.info/linguistics/morphology)

[http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitions-a-m.htm](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitions-a-m.htm)

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, sixth edition

Longman Exams Dictionary

(Compiled by Zuzanna Ząber)

### **Morphophonemic orthography (n)**

Morphophonemic (adj) – referring to morphophonemics (morphophonology, morphonology) which is a branch of linguistics that concerns relations between morphemes and their phonic modifications (see allomorph). Morphonemic orthography is a writing system which requires some morphological knowledge so as to read properly. An English writing system is one of its representatives. E.g., in *know/knowledge* the *ow* stands for [ ]/[ ].

Sources:

<http://morphophonemic.askdefine.com>

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morphophonology>

<http://www.sil.org/lingualinks/literacy/referencematerials/glossaryofliteracyterms/WhatIsMorphophonemicSpelling.htm>

allomorph – the glossary enclosed to the instruction of this project

(Compiled by Aleksandra Zygmunt)

**Noun (n):** part of speech defining things, places, phenomenon, people etc. In a sentence it adopts the role of a subject or an object. A noun is divided in seven categories: proper noun (proper names - capital letters); the common noun (everything apart

from proper names – small letters); the concrete noun; the abstract noun (feelings; ideas); the countable noun (*an apple, a table*); the un-countable noun (*flour, salt*); the collective noun (*band, police, team*). It also appears as possessive (adding end 's'), subject and object.

See: Saxon genitive

Sources:

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/noun>

<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/noun>

<http://www.t4tw.info/angielski/gramatyka/nouns.html>

<http://www.englishclub.com/grammar/nouns-what.htm>

<http://www.tlumaczenia-angielski.info/angielski/nouns.htm>

<http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/noun>

my own knowledge

(Compiled by Karolina Ślusarczyk)

### **Open class (noun)**

Open class is a lexical class of words that is able to acquire new words (morphemes). In theory, the number of new words that can be added to an open class is infinite. In the English language, the open class consists of parts of speech such as for example: adverbs, adjectives, interjections, main verbs, nouns.

See also closed class

Sources:

Chalker S., Weiner E. *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar*. p.295

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open\\_class\\_\(linguistics\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_class_(linguistics))

[http://linguisticsnet.com/index.php?option=com\\_glossary&letter=O&id=189](http://linguisticsnet.com/index.php?option=com_glossary&letter=O&id=189)

[http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitions-a-m.htm](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitions-a-m.htm)

(Compiled by Aleksandra Bis)

### **Participle-**

this is a term in English grammar.

It connects with a verb, adjective or adverb.

Participle is using in the different Past and Present tenses in English grammar and language and can express every situation in our life .

This form connects with a basic form a verb which has a lot of different endings in Past and Present tenses and also can be irregular in Past tenses.

What's more, it can be for example active, passive, past or present.

Examples:

She has just seen her brother-perfect participle

I'm buying something-present participle

I loved her-past participle

Sources:

Cambridge Dictionary

<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/>

(Compiled by Klaudia Bucka)

### **Polymorphemic word (noun)**

Polymorphemic word is a word that is comprised of more than one morpheme. For example, the word *unforgivable* is a polymorphemic word as it consists of three morphemes such as *un* (a prefix), *forgive* (a root) and *able* (a suffix). Another example is the word *cats* consisting of two morphemes: *cat* (an animal) and *s* (indication of the plural). Polymorphemic words are usually created by the addition of various affixes onto the stem.

See also morpheme

Sources:

[http://linguisticsnet.com/index.php?option=com\\_glossary&letter=P&id=212](http://linguisticsnet.com/index.php?option=com_glossary&letter=P&id=212)

<http://www.ling.ohio-state.edu/~kdk/201/autumn01/slides/morphology-4up.pdf>

<http://www.memidex.com/polymorphemic>

<http://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/morpheme>

(Compiled by Aleksandra Bis)

### **Polysynthetic language-**

It is a special kind of language which connects with morphemes.

It can have a lot of different words and can connect all in a one more complicated word.

These words are without sense and people don't understand the meanings of these

words especially in Europe.

This kind of language is using in unusual languages in the world.

For example in tribes on the different continents than Europe.

References:

<http://en.wikipedia.org>

(Compiled by Klaudia Bucka)

## Prefix

is a typical affix, which concerns the whole word and which influences on the meaning of following collocation and word. The prefix is placed before the root of word. Many languages have suitable prefixes and also suffixes.

The part of affixes are bound morphemes. The characteristic prefixes occur before morphemes. In some languages a morpheme is a prefix and it may be a suffix. We can not to use prefix and suffix in every situation. Moreover affixations very frequently express in different way. We can't to add to affix to English verbs, because it is illogical.

The examples of use prefix:

1 *My mum is unhappy, because she failed an drive car license.*

2 *My boyfriend is bisexual, because he changed him orientation.*

3 *My mum wasn't be able to speak English incorrectly*

Sources:

An introduction to language-Victoria Fromkin et al.

An introduction to social Linguistics-Ronald Wardhaugh

Linguistic Antropology- Alessandro Puranti

Cultural Communication and Intercultural Contact-Carbaugh Donal

(Compiled by Paulina Czerwicz)

## Preposition

Prepositions are words used before nouns, pronouns and also phrases.

*The blanket is **on** the bed.*

the bed – noun phrase; on – preposition

Prepositions are used to connect those nouns, pronouns and phrases with the rest of the sentence. Looking on the example above preposition **on** linked a noun phrase the bed (which can also be called an object of the preposition) with the rest of the

sentence.

The main function of the prepositions is to show the temporal, spatial or logical relationship of its object with the rest of the given sentence.

Commonly known prepositions : “in”, “on”, “out”, “off”, “by”, “behind”, “under”, “from”, “like”, “offer”, “against”.

Sources:

<http://www.writingcentre.uottawa.ca/hypergrammar/preposit.html>

<http://www.grammar-monster.com/lessons/prepositions.htm>

<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british/preposition?q=preposition>

<http://www.english-grammar-revolution.com/what-is-a-preposition.html>

(Compiled by Patryk Drzazga)

## **Root**

is common to a set of derived or inflected forms, if any, when all affixes are removed is not further analyzable into meaningful elements, being morphologically simple, and

carries the principle portion of meaning of the words in which it functions.

Is the primary lexical unit of a word, and of a word family (root is then called base word), which carries the most significant aspects of semantic content and cannot be reduced into smaller constituents.

Content words in nearly all languages contain, and may consist only of root morphemes. However, sometimes the term “root” is also used to describe the word minus its inflectional endings, but with its lexical endings in place. For example, *chatters* has the inflectional root or lemma *chatter*, but the lexical root *chat*. Inflectional roots are often called stems, and a root in the stricter sense may be thought of as a monomorphemic stem.

Sources: <http://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Root>

<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/root>

<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsARoot.htm>

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Root\\_\(linguistics\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Root_(linguistics))

(Compiled by Joanna Grad)



**Stem** (noun)

Is a root morpheme where you can add prefixes and suffixes. It is the root or roots of a word. We use stem when we talk of an inflection. In other words, that thing that was there alone before any inflectional affixes are attached to it is called stem. So “*work*” is the stem of “*works*” because the formation of *works* is an example of inflection.

Sources:

<http://www.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsAStem.htm>

<http://forum.wordreference.com/showthread.php?t=355762>

<http://encyclopedia.thefreedictionary.com/word+stem>

(Compiled by Filip Hennig)

**Suffix** (noun)

One of the affixes used to modify the original word or stem. Its role is to form a new word or function of an ending such as -ness in kindness or changness. It is always used at the end of suffix also always changes the type of speech i.e. the adverb “*badly*” is formed by adding suffix -ly to the adjective “*bad*” or the adjective “*stressless*” is a result of adding suffix -less to the noun “*stress*.”

Sources:

<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/suffix?s=t>

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/suffix>

<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/suffix?show=0&t=1355571655>

(Compiled by Filip Hennig)

**Suppletive forms** – lexical forms which consist of words which are not familiar ones, they do not have the same etymology. These forms appear in for instance during building from one word other parts of speech. We can find them not only in English language but also in Russian, Polish and the others. The example of this phenomenon can be word good and adverb from it well which is not familiar.

Phrase suppletive forms came from a Latin word *suppleo* which means ‘*add, addendum*’.

<http://websters.yourdictionary.com/suppletive>

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Suppletion>

[http://www.superglossary.com/Definition/Literature/Suppletive\\_Form.html](http://www.superglossary.com/Definition/Literature/Suppletive_Form.html)

<http://suppletive.askdefine.com/>

(Compiled by Kasia Hajduk)

**Synthetic language** – it is the language in which there are a lot of morphemes (the smallest units of meaning within a word) and the most often grammatical meanings are expressed by synthetic forms. Word order is not crucial, because the meaning is carried by the different form of words. This kind of language use a lot of many forms of one word in different situations. In the world there are many synthetic languages, e.g., *Spanish, Greek, Polish, Italian*.

Sources:

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Synthetic\\_language](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Synthetic_language)

<http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/578706/synthetic-language>

<http://www.wisegeek.com/what-is-a-synthetic-language.htm>

<http://en.academic.ru/dic.nsf/enwiki/178223>

(Compiled by Paulina Hańczuk)

**Verb** (n): word which concern lexical category in grammar and it is the term for words such as watch, go, write etc. It is also important part of the sentence or a clause. There are different names for different verbs: main verbs (head words of a sentence i.e. *They play the piano*), lexical verb (part of verb chain that suggest the action which was involved f.e. *They might have cooked the dinner*), verbs which refers to the 'state of being' i.e. *is, becomes, seems*, infinitive form of the verb (the verb is usually preceded by 'to' i.e. *They used to be nice*)

-ed participle form (f.e. *They cooked the dinner*), -ing participle form (f.e. *They were cooking the dinner*, *They will be cooking the dinner*, *They used cooking the dinner*)

Sources:

[www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main\\_files/definitionsn-z.htm#Verb](http://www.englishbiz.co.uk/grammar/main_files/definitionsn-z.htm#Verb)

<http://homepage.ntlworld.com/Vivian.c/Linguistics/LinguisticsGlossary.htm>

(Compiled by Dominika Szumilas)

## Bibliography

- Adams, Valerie (2001): *Complex Words in English*, Harlow: Longman.
- Adams, Valerie (1973): *An Introduction to Modern English Word-Formation*, London: Longman.
- Anderson, Stephen R. (1992): *A-Morphous Morphology*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Aronoff, Mark (1976): *Word Formation in Generative Grammar*, Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Aronoff, Mark (1994): *Morphology by Itself: Stems and Inflectional Classes*, Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Aronoff, Mark & Kirsten Fudeman (2005): *What is Morphology?* Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Allen, Margaret (1978): *Morphological Investigations*, Ph. D. dissertation, University of Connecticut, Ann Arbor: University Microfilms.
- Anderson, Stephen R. (1992): *A-morphous Morphology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Aronoff, Mark and S. N. Sridhar (1987): 'Morphological Levels in English and Kannada', in Gussmann (ed.), pp. 9-22.
- Aronoff, Mark (1976): *Word Formation in Generative Grammar*, Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Aronoff, Mark (1980): *Juncture*, Saratoga, California: Anma libri.
- Baayen, Harald (1992): 'Quantitative aspects of morphological productivity', in Geert Booij and Jaap van Marle (eds), *Yearbook of Morphology 1991*, Dordrecht: Kluwer, pp. 109-49.
- Bauer, Laurie (1983): *English Word-Formation*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bauer, Laurie (1988): *Introducing Linguistic Morphology*, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Bauer, Laurie (1994): *Watching English Change*, London: Longman.
- Bauer, Laurie (1998): *Vocabulary*. London: Routledge.
- Bauer, Laurie (1998): 'When is a sequence of two nouns a compound in English?', *English Language and Linguistics*, 2: 65-86.

- Bauer L (2003): *Introducing linguistic morphology* (2nd edn.). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University.
- Bauer, Laurie (2004): *A Glossary of Morphology*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Baugh, Albert C. and Thomas Cable (1978): *A History of the English Language*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edn, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Baayen, Harald (1993): 'On frequency, transparency and productivity', in Booij and van Marle (eds.), pp. 181-208.
- Baayen, Harald and Antoinette Renouf (1996): 'Chronicling *The Times*: Productive lexical innovations in an English newspaper', *Language* 72: 69-96.
- Baayen, Harald and Rochelle Lieber (1991): 'Productivity and English word-formation: a corpus-based Study', *Linguistics* 29: 801-843.
- Barker, Chris (1998): 'Episodic *-ee* in English: A thematic role constraint on a new word formation', *Language* 74: 695-727.
- Bauer, Laurie (1983): *English Word-formation*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bauer, Laurie (1988): *Introducing Linguistic Morphology*, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Bauer, Laurie (1990): 'Be-heading the word', *Journal of Linguistics* 26: 1-31.
- Bauer, Laurie (1998a): 'Is there a class of neoclassical compounds and is it productive?', *Linguistics* 36: 403-422.
- Bauer, Laurie (1998b): 'When is a sequence of two nouns a compound in English?', *English Language and Linguistics* 2: 65-86.
- Bauer, Laurie (2001): *Morphological Productivity*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bauer, Laurie and Rodney Huddleston (2002): 'Lexical word-formation', in Huddleston and Pullum, pp. 1621-1721.
- Bauer, Laurie and Antoinette Renouf (2001): 'A corpus-based study of compounding in English', *Journal of English Linguistics* 29: 101-123.
- Becker, Thomas (1993): 'Back-formation, cross-formation, and "bracketing paradoxes" in paradigmatic morphology', in Booij and van Marle (eds.), 1-25.
- Berg, Thomas (1998): 'The (in)compatibility of morpheme orders and lexical categories and its historical implications', *English Language and Linguistics* 2: 245-262.

- Blake, Barry J. (2008): *All About Language: A Guide*. OUP.
- Bolinger, Dwight (1948): 'On defining the morpheme', *Word* 4: 18-23.
- Booij, Geert E. (1993): 'Against split morphology', in Booij and van Marle (eds.), pp. 27-49.
- Booij, Geert (2007): *The Grammar of Words: An Introduction to Morphology* (2nd edition), Oxford University Press.
- Booij, Geert E., Christian Lehmann, Joachim Mugdan, (eds.) (2000, *Morphologie/ Morphology: Ein internationales Handbuch zur Flexion und Wortbildung/ An International Handbook on Inflection and Word-formation*, Vol. 1, Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Booij, Geert and Jaap van Marle (eds): *Yearbook of Morphology* (1992): Dordrecht: Kluwer, pp. 209-33.
- Borer, Hagit (1990): 'V+ing: It walks like an adjective, it talks like an adjective', *Linguistic Inquiry* 21: 95-103.
- Brekke, Herbert Ernst (1970): *Generative Satzsemantik und transformationelle Syntax im System der Englischen Nominalkomposition*, München: Fink.
- Buck, R.A. (1997): 'Words and their opposites. Noun to verb conversion in English', *Word* 48: 1-14.
- Burzio, Luigi (1994) *Principles of English stress*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bybee, Joan (1985) *Morphology*, Amsterdam: Benjamin.
- Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (1992): *Current Morphology*, London: Routledge.
- Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (1993): 'Morphology without word-internal constituents: a review of Stephen R. Anderson's *A-Morphous Morphology*', in
- Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (2002): *An Introduction to English Morphology*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Clark, Eve V. (1993): *The Lexicon in Acquisition*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Comrie, Bernard (1989): *Language Universals and Linguistic Typology: Syntax and Morphology*, 2nd edn, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Corbin, Danielle (1987): *Morphologie dérivationnelle et structuration du lexique* (2 vols), Tübingen: Niemeyer.
- Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (1992):, *Current Morphology*, London: Routledge.

- Carstairs-McCarthy, Andrew (1993): 'Morphology without word-internal constituents: A review of Stephen R. Anderson's *A-morphous Morphology*', in Booij and van Marle (eds.), pp. 209-233.
- Crystal, David (1991): *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Dalton-Puffer, Christiane and Ingo Plag (2001): 'Categorywise, some compound-type morphemes seem to be rather suffix-like: on the status of *-ful*, *-type*, and *-wise* in Present Day English', *Folia Linguistica* XXXIV: 225-244.
- Di Sciullo, Anne-Marie and Edwin Williams (1987): *On the Definition of Word*, Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Doleschal, Ursula and A.M. Thornton (eds.) (2000): *Extragrammatical and Marginal Morphology*, München: Lincom.
- Don, Jan (1993): *Morphological Conversion*, Utrecht: Led.
- Downing, Pamela (1977): 'On the creation and use of English compound nouns', *Language* 53: 810-842.
- Dressler, Wolfgang U. (2000): 'Extragrammatical vs. marginal morphology', in Doleschal and Thornton (eds.), pp. 1-10.
- Dressler, Wolfgang U. and Lavinia Merlini Barbaresi (1994): *Morphopragmatics. Diminutives and Intensifiers in Italian, German, and other Languages*, Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Fabb, Nigel (1988): 'English suffixation is constrained only by selectional restrictions', *Natural Language and Linguistic Theory* 6: 527-539.
- Fabb, Nigel (1998): 'Compounds', in Spencer and Zwicky (eds.), pp. 66-83.
- Farrell, Patrick (2001): 'Functional shift as category underspecification', *English Language and Linguistics* 5: 109-130.
- Fasold, Ralph and Jeffrey Connor-Linton (eds.) (2006): *An Introduction to Linguistics*. Cambridge University Press.
- Fisiak, Jacek (ed.) (1985): *Historical Semantics, Historical Word-formation*, New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Fradin, Bernard (2000): 'Combining forms, blends and related phenomena', in Doleschal and Thornton (eds.), pp. 11-59.
- Frauenfelder, Uli and Robert Schreuder (1992): 'Constraining psycholinguistic models of morphological processing and representation: The role of productivity', in Booij and van Marle (eds.), pp. 165-183.

- Fromkin, Viktoria – Robert Rodman – Nina Hyams (2011): *An Introduction to Language*. 9e edition, Thomson Wadsworth.
- Fudge, Erik (1984): *English Word-stress*, London: Allen and Unwin.
- Giegerich, Heinz J. (1999): *Lexical Strata in English: Morphological Causes, Phonological Effects*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Giegerich, Heinz J. (1999): *Lexical Strata in English. Morphological Causes, Phonological Effects*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gussmann, Edmund (ed.) (1987): *Rules and the Lexicon*. Lublin: Catholic University.
- Halle, Morris and K. P. Mohanan (1985): 'Segmental phonology of Modern English', *Linguistic Inquiry* 16, 57-116.
- Hammond, Michael (1999): *The Phonology of English*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hardošová, Mária (2009): *Practical English Morphology*, Banská Bystrica.
- Haspelmath, Martin (1996): 'Word-class changing inflection and morphological theory', in Booij and van Marle (eds.), pp.43-66.
- Haspelmath, Martin (2002): *Understanding Morphology*. London: Arnold.
- Hatcher, Anna G. (1960): 'An introduction to the analysis of English compounds', *Word* 16, 356-373.
- Haspelmath, Martin (2002): *Understanding Morphology*. Edward Arnold.
- Hay, Jennifer (2000): *Causes and Consequences of Word Structure*, Ph. D. thesis, Northwestern University.
- Hay, Jennifer (2001): 'Lexical frequency in morphology: is everything relative?' *Linguistics* 39.4: 1041-1070.
- Hay, Jennifer (2002): 'From speech perception to morphology: Affix-ordering revisited', *Language*.
- Hay, Jennifer and Harald Baayen (2002a): 'Parsing and productivity', in Booij and van Marle (eds.).
- Hay, Jennifer and Harald Baayen (2002), 'Probabilistic phonotactics and morphological productivity', Ms., University of Canterbury and MPI für Psycholinguistik Nijmegen.
- Hay, Jennifer and Ingo Plag, (2002): 'What constrains possible suffix combinations? On the interaction of grammatical and processing restrictions in derivational morphology', paper presented at the Linguistics and Phonetics Conference, Urayasu, September 2002.

- Hopper, Paul J. (ed.) (1977): *Studies in Descriptive and Historical Linguistics*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: Benjamins.
- Horrocks, G. (1987): *Generative Syntax*. London: Longman.
- Huddleston, Rodney and Geoffrey Pullum (2002): *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hinton, Leanne, Johanna Nichols and John J. Ohala (eds) (1994): *Sound Symbolism*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hogg, Richard and C. B. McCully (1987): *Metrical Phonology: A Coursebook*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jackendoff, Ray (1975): 'Morphological and semantic regularities in the lexicon', *Language*, 51: 639–71.
- Jackendoff, Ray (1997): *The Architecture of the Language Faculty*, Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Jakobson, Roman and Linda Waugh (1979): *The Sound Shape of Language*, Brighton: Harvester Press.
- Jelinek, Eloise and Richard A. Demers (1994): 'Predicates and pronominal arguments in Straits Salish', *Language*, 70: 697–736.
- Jespersen, Otto (1942): *A Modern English Grammar. On Historical Principles. Part VI Morphology*, London: Allen and Unwin.
- Jones, Daniel (1997): *English Pronouncing Dictionary*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jucker, Andreas H. (1994): 'New dimensions in vocabulary studies: Review article of the Oxford English Dictionary (2nd edition) on CD-ROM', *Literary and Linguistic Computing* 9: 149–154.
- Jule, George (2010): *The Study of Language*. Fourth edition. Cambridge University Press. Tenth Printing.
- Kaisse, Ellen and Patricia Shaw (1985): 'On the theory of lexical phonology', *Phonology Yearbook* 2: 1–30.
- Kastovsky, Dieter (1986): 'The problem of productivity in word formation', *Linguistics* 24: 585–600.
- Katamba, Francis (1993): *Morphology*, Basingstoke/Hampshire: Macmillan.
- Katamba, Francis (2005): *English Words. Structure, History, Usage*, 2nd ed. London: Routledge.



- Katamba, Francis and John Stonham (2005): *Morphology*, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kaunisto, Mark (1999): 'Electric/electrical and classic/classical: Variation between the suffixes -ic and -ical', *English Studies* 80: 343-370.
- Keith, Allan – Julie Bradshaw – Geoffrey Finch – Kate Burridge – Georgina Heydon (2010): *The English Language and Linguistics Companion*, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kiparsky, Paul (1982): 'Lexical morphology and phonology', in *The Linguistic Society of Korea* (ed.), 1-91.
- Kiparsky, Paul (1985): 'Some consequences of Lexical Phonology', *Phonology Yearbook* 2: 85-138.
- Krott, Andrea, Harald Baayen, and Robert Schreuder (2001, 'Analogy in morphology: Modeling the choice of linking morphemes in Dutch', *Linguistics* 39: 51-93.
- Kubozono, Haruo (1991): 'Phonological constraints on blending in English as a case for phonology-morphology interface', in Booij and van Marle (eds.), pp. 1-20.
- Kuiper, Kon – W. Scott Allan (2010): *Introduction to English language: Word, sound and sentence*. 3rd edition, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kurtán, Zsuzsanna (1999): *Linguistics and the English Language*. Veszprém, University Press.
- Ladd, Dwight Robert (1984): 'English compound stress', in Gibbon and Richter (eds.), pp. 253-266.
- Lappe, Sabine (2003): *English Prosodic Morphology*, Ph. D. thesis, University of Siegen.
- Leech, Geoffrey N., Paul Rayson and Andrew Wilson (2001): *Word Frequencies in Written and Spoken English*, Harlow: Longman.
- Lees, Robert. B. (1960): *The Grammar of English Nominalizations*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Lehnert, Martin (1971): *Rückläufiges Wörterbuch der englischen Gegenwartssprache*, Leipzig: Verl. Enzyklopädie.
- Levi, Judith N. (1978): *The Syntax and Semantics of Complex Nominals*. New York: Academic Press.
- Lieberman, Mark and Alison Prince (1977): 'On stress and linguistic rhythm', *Linguistic Inquiry* 8: 249-336.
- Lieberman, Mark and Richard Sproat (1992): 'The stress and structure of modified noun phrases in English', in Sag and Szabolcsi (eds.), pp. 131-181.

- Lieber, Rochelle (1992): *Deconstructing Morphology: Word Formation in Syntactic Theory*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lieber, Rochelle. (1992): *Deconstructing Morphology*. Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press.
- Lieber, Rochelle (2010): *Introducing Morphology*, Cambridge University Press. (excerpts)
- Ljung, Magnus (1970): *English Denominal Adjectives. A Generative Study of the Semantics of a Group of High-frequency Denominal Adjectives in English*, Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2000, München: Langenscheidt-Longman.
- Marchand, Hans (1969): *The Categories and Types of Present-day English Word-formation*, München: Beck.
- Meyer, Charles F. (2009): *Introducing English Linguistics*, Cambridge University Press.
- Matthews, Peter (1991): *Morphology*, 2nd edn, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McQueen, James M. and Anne Cutler, (1998): 'Morphology in word recognition', in Spencer and Zwicky (eds.), pp. 406-427.
- Meyer, Ralf (1993): *Compound Comprehension in Isolation and in Context. The Contribution of Conceptual and Discourse Knowledge to the Comprehension of Novel Noun-Noun Compounds*, Tübingen: Niemeyer.
- Mohanan, Karuvannur P. (1986):, *The Theory of Lexical Phonology*, Dordrecht: Reidel.
- Muthmann, Gustav (1999): *Reverse English Dictionary. Based on Phonological and Morphological Principles*, Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Nevis, Joel N. and John T. Stonham (1999): 'Learning morphology: What makes a good textbook?', *Language* 75: 801-809.
- Olsen, Susan (2001): 'Copulative compounds: a closer look at the interface between syntax and morphology', in Booij and van Marle (eds.), pp. 279-320.
- Olson, Susan (2000): 'Compounding and stress in English: A closer look at the boundary between morphology and syntax', *Linguistische Berichte* 181: 55-69.
- Pinker, Steven (1999): *Words and Rules: The Ingredients of Language*, New York: Perseus Books.

- Plag, Ingo (1996): 'Selectional restrictions in English suffixation revisited. A reply to Fabb (1988)', *Linguistics* 34: 769-798.
- Plag, Ingo (1999): *Morphological Productivity. Structural Constraints in English Derivation*, Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Plag, Ingo (2003): *Word-formation in English*. Cambridge University Press.
- Plag, Ingo, Christiane Dalton-Puffer and Harald Baayen (1999): 'Morphological productivity across speech and writing', *English Language and Linguistics* 3: 209-228.
- Plank, Frans (1981): *Morphologische (Ir-)Regularitäten: Aspekte der Wortstrukturtheorie*, Tübingen: Narr.
- Radford, Andrew et al. (2009): *Linguistics: An Introduction*, 2nd Edition, Cambridge University Press.
- Raffelsiefen, Renate (1993): 'Relating words. A model of base-recognition', *Linguistic Analysis* 23, 3-164.
- Raffelsiefen, Renate (1999): 'Phonological constraints on English word formation', in van Marle and Booij (eds.), pp. 225-288.
- Riddle, Elizabeth (1985): 'A historical perspective on the productivity of the suffixes *-ness* and *-ity*', in Fisiak (ed.), pp. 435-461.
- Rose, James H. (1973): 'Principled limitations on productivity in denominal verbs', *Foundations of Language* 10: 509-526.
- Rúa, Paula López (2002): 'On the structure of acronyms and neighbouring categories: a prototype-based account', *English Language and Linguistics* 6: 31-60.
- Ryder, Mary Ellen (1994): *Ordered Chaos: The Interpretation of English Noun-Noun Compounds*, Berkeley: University of Calif. Press.
- Ryder, Mary Ellen (1999): 'Bankers and blue-chippers: an account of *-er* formations in Present-day English', *English Language and Linguistics* 3: 269-297.
- Saciuk, Bogdan (1969): 'The stratal division of the lexicon', *Papers in Linguistics* 1: 464-532.
- Sag, Ivan A. and Anna Szabolcsi (eds.) (1992): *Lexical Matters*, Stanford: Center for the Study of Language and Information.
- Schneider, Klaus Peter (2003): *Diminutives in English*, Tübingen: Niemeyer.
- Selkirk, Elisabeth (1982): *The Syntax of Words*, Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Siegel, Dorothy (1974): *Topics in English morphology*, Ph. D. thesis, MIT.

- Skousen, Royal (1995): 'Analogy: A Non-rule Alternative to Neural Networks', *Rivista di Linguistica* 7.2: 213-231.
- Spencer, Andrew (1988): 'Bracketing paradoxes and the English lexicon', *Language*, 64: 63-82.
- Spencer, Andrew (1991): *Morphological Theory: An Introduction to Word Structure in Generative Grammar*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Spencer, Andrew and Arnold M. Zwicky (eds.) (1998, *The Handbook of Morphology*, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Stemberger, Joseph (1998): 'Morphology in language production with special reference to connectionism', in Spencer and Zwicky (eds), pp. 428-452.
- Stockwell, Robert, and Donka Minkova (2001): *English Words: History and Structure*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Szymanek, Bogdan (1993): *Introduction to Morphological Analysis*. Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa.
- Williams, Edwin (1981b): 'Argument Structure and Morphology', *The Linguistic Review* 1: 81-114.
- Zimmer, Karl E. (1964): *Affixal Negation in English and other Languages: an Investigation of Restricted Productivity* (Supplement to *Word* 20), London: Clowes.



Univerzita J. Selyeho  
Pedagogická fakulta  
Bratislavská cesta 3322  
SK-945 01 Komárno  
[www.ujs.sk](http://www.ujs.sk)

Anna T. Litovkina – Szilvia N. Varagya  
**Lecture Notes on Morphology**

Recenzenti / Recenzensek / Reviewed by:  
Dr. Barta Péter, CSc.  
Doc. Fedoszov Oleg, PhD.

Rozsah / Terjedelem / Author's Sheet: 98 AH / 98 szerzői ív / 98 AS  
Vydavateľ / Kiadó / Publisher: Univerzita J. Selyeho / Selye János Egyetem /  
J. Selye University

Rok vydania / Kiadás éve / Year of Edition: 2022  
Prvé vydanie / Első kiadás / First Edition

ISBN 978-80-8122-414-0

prefix

*derivation*

m

*suffix*

*neologism*



9 788081 224140

ISBN 978-80-8122-414-0