

# Morphology Review

<https://wansbaa.jimdofree.com/>

13-11-2020

# A few question to start with

---

- What is a word?
- How can one tell one word from another?
- Is it always the same scheme with all the possible languages?
- What is morphology?
- What are its main branches?
- What is linguistic typology?
- Why is it useful?
- What are the key language morphological types?
- How can we identify a morpheme?

# Some Phonological Evidence for the Word

---

The schemes of words (word-forms) delimitation in the stream of speech are often based on **certain phonological rules** which are sensitive to word boundaries and the word as a unit of structure and organization.

# Morpheme: introductory

---

The smallest unit which has a meaning or grammatical function that words can be broken down into are known as **morphemes**.

So to be clear:

“un” (in the word ‘unclear’) is a morpheme.  
“yes” is also a morpheme, but also happens to be a word.

# Some Phonological Evidence for the Word

---

## Stress.

In English, each content word will have exactly one primary stress.

Do the following examples all seem like single words?

Where is their primary stress?

Dehumidifier [di:ʔhju:ʔmɪʔdɪʔfaɪə(r)ʔ]

Recapitulation [ˌri:kəˌpɪtjəˈleɪʃ(ə)n]

# Some Phonological Evidence for the Word

---

There are also **phonotactic considerations**: for certain sequences of sounds cannot occur within syllables, but may be permissible over word boundaries (e.g. [dzm], above in 'words must')

# Some Phonological Evidence for the Word

---

Some languages have *vowel harmony* that applies to entire words--- for example, in Turkish all the vowels in most words must be all front vowels or all back vowels.

We never find vowel harmony occurring over entire sentences.

/el-ler-in/ 'hand'-PLR-gen.vs.

/at-lar-un/ 'horse,'-PLR-gen.

# Some Morphological Evidence for the Word

---

## □ Positional mobility

→ word form as a whole can be moved.

Eg. I love plums, Plums I love.

## □ Uninterruptability

→ extraneous material cannot be introduced into the middle of a word-form.

## □ Internal stability

→ fixed order of morphemes within word forms: Dehumidifiers (!)

# Just affixes

---

- ❑ Affix ['æfɪks] an **addition** to the **base form** or **stem of a word** in order to modify its meaning or create a new word
- ❑ **Affixes are bound morphemes** that attach to the stem of a word to form either a new word or a new form of the same word.
- ❑ **Prefixes and suffixes** are the two types of affixes in the English language.

# Morphological types across the world's languages

---

- ❑ Linguists can categorize languages based on their word-building properties and usage of different **affixation processes**.
- ❑ The broadest distinction among languages is whether or not affixation is allowed at all, or if every word must be a single morpheme.
- ❑ For languages that allow affixation, we can further categorize these according to their morphological characteristics

# Analytic and Isolating Languages

---

**Analytic languages** have sentences composed entirely of *free* morphemes, where each word consists of *only one morpheme*.

Isolating languages are “purely analytic” and allow no affixation (inflectional or derivational) at all.

**PS.** Sometimes *analytic* languages *allow* some derivational morphology such as **compounds** (two free roots in a single word)

# Analytic and Isolating Languages

---

A canonically analytic language  
is Mandarin Chinese.

Note that properties such  
as “plural” and “past” comprise their own  
morphemes and their own words.

[wɔ mən tan tʃin lə]

1st PLR play piano PST

‘we played the piano’

# Synthetic Languages

---

Synthetic languages allow affixation such that words may (though are not required to) include two or more morphemes.

These languages have *bound morphemes*, meaning they must be attached to another word (whereas analytic languages only have free morphemes).

# August Wilhelm Schlegel (1767–1845)

In his 'Observations sur la langue et la littérature provençales' (1818), A.W. Schlegel says that all languages can be divided into **three classes**:

- (a) languages without any grammatical structure, like Chinese;
- (b) languages with agglutinated affixes, like Turkish;
- (c) languages with inflections, to be distinguished in their turn as (c') synthetic and (c'') analytic languages.



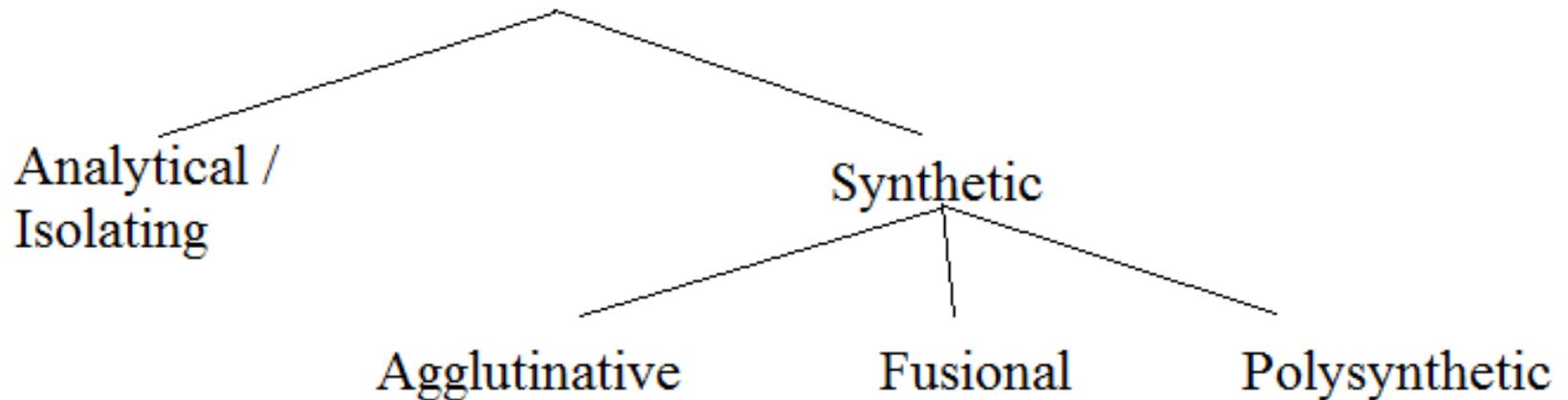
# August Schleicher, 1859

Isolating	Agglutinating	Inflexional [ɪn'fleks(ə)n(ə)l] / inflected
Based on isolated roots interacting in a sentence	Turkic, Mongolic, Finnish, Hungarian	Semitic and ancient Indo-European
Ancient Chinese; Burmese [bɜ:'mi:z]	Tibetan [tə'betn]	Modern Indo-European
Archaic [ɑ:'keɪk]		New

# Synthetic Languages

---

Synthetic languages include three subcategories:



# Synthetic Languages

---

Synthetic languages include three subcategories:

- agglutinative,
- **fusional,**
- and polysynthetic.

# Synthetic Language Type 1: Agglutinative

---

Agglutinative languages have words which may consist of more than one, and possibly many, morphemes.

The key characteristic separating agglutinative languages from other synthetic languages is that morphemes within words are **easily parsed** or “loosely” arranged;

the morpheme boundaries are easy to identify.

- ✓ 1:many word to morpheme ratio;
- ✓ 1:1 morpheme to meaning

We use the metaphor “**beads on a string**” to describe agglutinative languages

# Synthetic Language Type 1: Agglutinative

Agglutination in Tatar ['tɑ:tə] language

Take a look at the word-form

*ташларымдагылар*

????????????????

Each affix в которой каждый аффикс, adherent to the root '*таш*' /*stone*/ «камень»,

expresses only one definite meaning (seme)

So *-лар*- means **Plural**;

*-ым* – **Possessive case (1<sup>st</sup> person singular)**,

*-да* – **locative case exponent**;

*-гы* – **means adjective**.

# Synthetic Language Type 1: Agglutinative

Agglutination in Tatar ['tɑ:tə] language

Take a look at the word-form

*ташларымдагылар*

«находящиеся на моих камнях»,

Each affix в которой каждый аффикс, adherent to the root '*таш*' /*stone*/ «камень»,

expresses only one definite meaning (seme)

So *-лар*- means **Plural**;

*-ым* – **Possessive case (1<sup>st</sup> person singular)**,

*-да* – **locative case exponent**;

*-гы* – **means adjective**.

# Synthetic Language Type 1: Agglutinative

---

Examples of canonical agglutinative languages include Turkish, Swahili, Hungarian

el-ler-imiz-in (Turkish)

hand-plr.-1st plr.-genitive case, → 'of our hands'

ni-na-soma (Swahili)

I-present-read = 'I am reading'

(also u-na-soma 'you are reading,'

ni-li-soma 'I read,' etc.)

# Synthetic Language Type 2: Fusional

---

Fusional languages, like other synthetic languages, may have more than one morpheme per word

However, fusional languages may have morphemes that combine multiple pieces of grammatical information; that is, **there is not a clear 1 to 1 relationship** between grammatical information and morphemes

# Synthetic Language Type 2: Fusional

---

Take, for example, the Russian verb infinitive

*печь*

Where is the root?

Where is the affix?

Where is the borderline between both of them?

# Synthetic Language Type 2: Fusional

Take, for example, the Russian verb infinitive

*печь*

из *пек+ти*

в звуке [ч] неразрывно объединились / слились  
последний звук корня [к] и первый согласный  
инфинитивного форманта *-ти*.

# Synthetic Language Type 2: Fusional

---

For example, in Spanish:

[ 'abl-**o** ]      'I am speaking'

-[**o**] suffix means 1st person sng., present tense

[ 'abl-**a** ]      's/he is speaking'

-[**a**] suffix means 3rd person sng. present tense

[abl- ' **o** ]      's/he spoke'

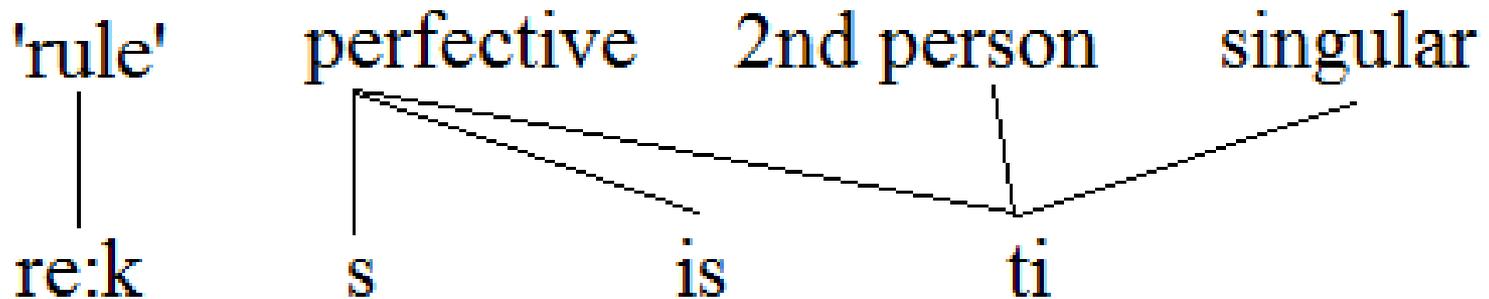
-[ ' **o** ] suffix with stress means 3rd singular past tense

# Synthetic Language Type 2: Fusional

For example, Latin fusion:

**REXISTI** [re:ksisti] 'you all ruled'

There are four pieces of grammatical information and four morphs, however the 'perfective' meaning is shared among several morphs.



# Synthetic Language Type 3: Polysynthetic

---

Polysynthetic languages often display a high degree of affixation (high number of morphemes per word) and fusion of morphemes, like agglutinative and fusional languages.

Additionally, however, polysynthetic languages may have words with **multiple stems in a single word** (which are not compounds).

This may be achieved by incorporating the subject and object nouns into complex verb forms.

# Synthetic Language Type 3: Polysynthetic

---

This may be achieved by incorporating the subject and object nouns into complex verb forms.

For example:

anin- ɲam-ɟɔ-te-n (Sora)

he-catch-fish-nonpast-do 'he is fish-catching'

This is called *noun incorporation*, where the object 'fish' is incorporated in the verb 'catch.'

# Synthetic Language Type 3: Polysynthetic

---

Some of the most extreme examples come from Eskimo languages such as **West Greenlandic**:

tusaa-nngit-su-usaar-tuaannar-sinnaa-nngi-vip-putit

‘hear’-neg.-intrans.participle-‘pretend’-‘all the time’-‘can’-neg.-‘really’-2nd.sng.indicative

‘You simply cannot pretend not to be hearing all the time’

# Synthetic Language Type 3: Polysynthetic

---

The Verb in polysynthetic language tends to be incorporating the subject and object of action like that in Chukchi ['tʃʊktʃi:] language:

E.g.:

тымайы'ывалямнаркын

ты – I,

майы – big,

ывал-knife,

ямна – grind (sharpen),

ркын - делать

# Synthetic Language Type 3: Polysynthetic

---

The Verb in polysynthetic language tends to be incorporating the subject and object of action like that in Chukchi ['tʃʊktʃi:] language:

E.g.:

тымайы'ывалямнаркын

ты – I, майы – big, ывал-knife, ямна – grind  
(sharpen), ркын - делать)

Approximately something like this:

What you are doing is sharpening a big knife.

# Languages often show elements of different morphological types

---

If a language is hard to classify as one of the four main types,

it may be considered “mixed.”

The properties that distinguish these types may in fact be gradient rather than categorical.

# Languages often show elements of different morphological types

---

Ask yourself the following questions:

1) How many morphemes can occur in a single word?

If the answer is one, or usually one, the language is analytical.

Otherwise, it is probably synthetic.

A language with a few might be fusional, agglutinative, or polysynthetic;

A language with many is probably agglutinative or polysynthetic (since fusional morphemes may contain multiple bits of grammatical information).

# Languages often show elements of different morphological types

2) If the language allows affixation, are the morphemes easy to divide? Is each piece of grammatical information contained in a single morpheme (and the reverse)?

yes, easy to divide



agglutinative  
(or possibly polysynthetic)

no, hard to divide, morphemes  
contain multiple bits of  
grammatical information



fusional or  
polysynthetic

## Languages often show elements of different morphological types

---

3) Does the language allow words with multiple roots (such as noun incorporation)?

If yes, the language is likely polysynthetic.

These languages may also have a high degree of fusion and may contain many morphemes in one word (see Greenlandic example above) .

Languages often show elements  
of different morphological types

---

- A. Polysynthetic (incorporating)
- B. Fusional
- C. Agglutinative
- D. Analytical (isolating)

# Languages often show elements of different morphological types

---

Ancient Greek:

➤ [lu-o:] 'I release'

release-1st person singular present active indicative

➤ [lu-e:] 'You should release'

release-2nd person singular present middle subjunctive

➤ [lu:-etai] 'he is being released'

release-3rd person singular present passive indicative

# Languages often show elements of different morphological types

---

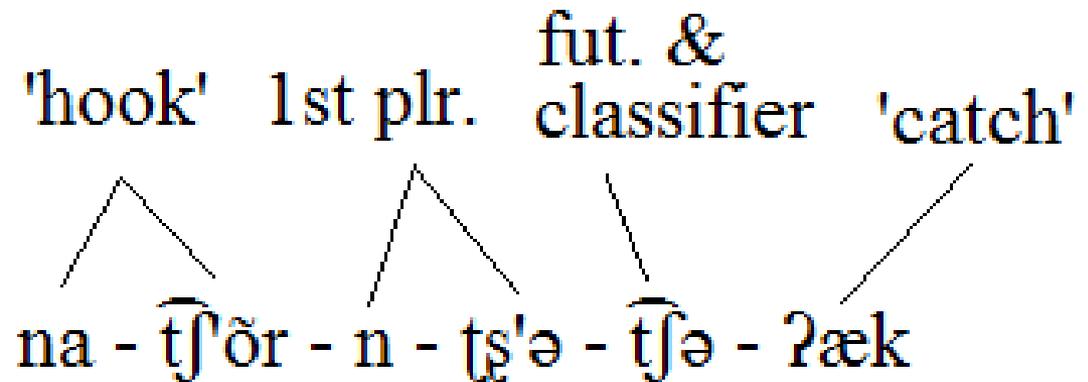
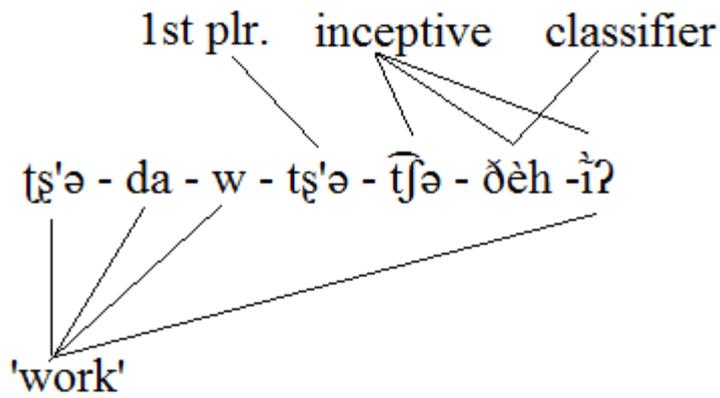
Aztecan:

[ni-ki-ta] = 'I see it'  
/I-it-see/

[ni-ki-ta-k] = 'I saw it'  
/I-it-see-past/

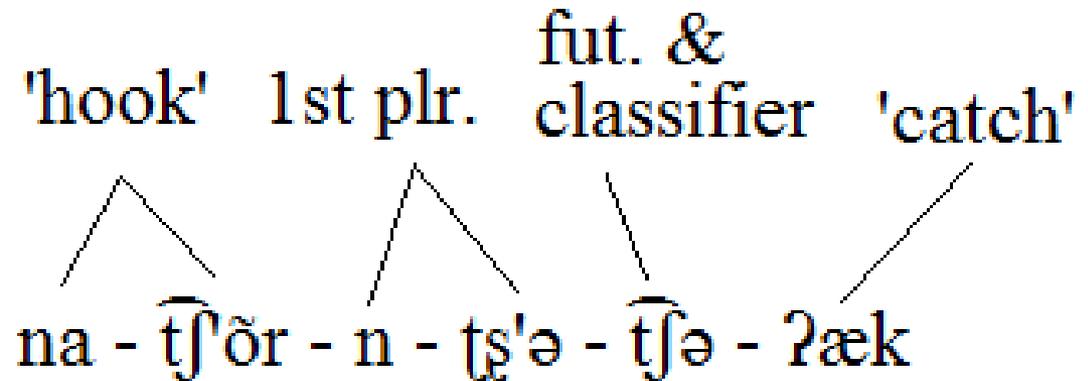
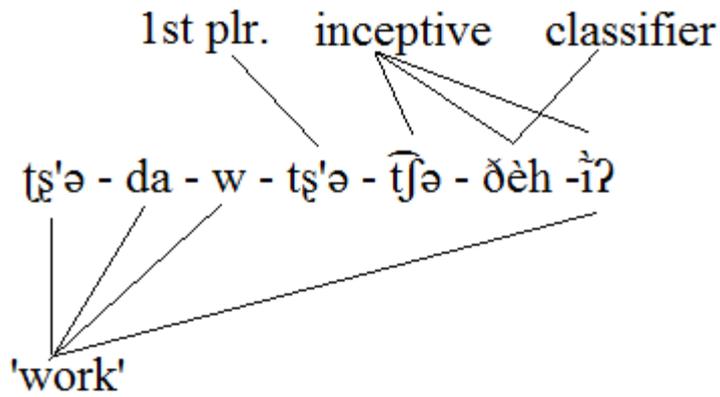
# Languages often show elements of different morphological types

## Han (Athabascan)



# Languages often show elements of different morphological types

## Han (Athabascan)



= English:

We are starting to work

= English:

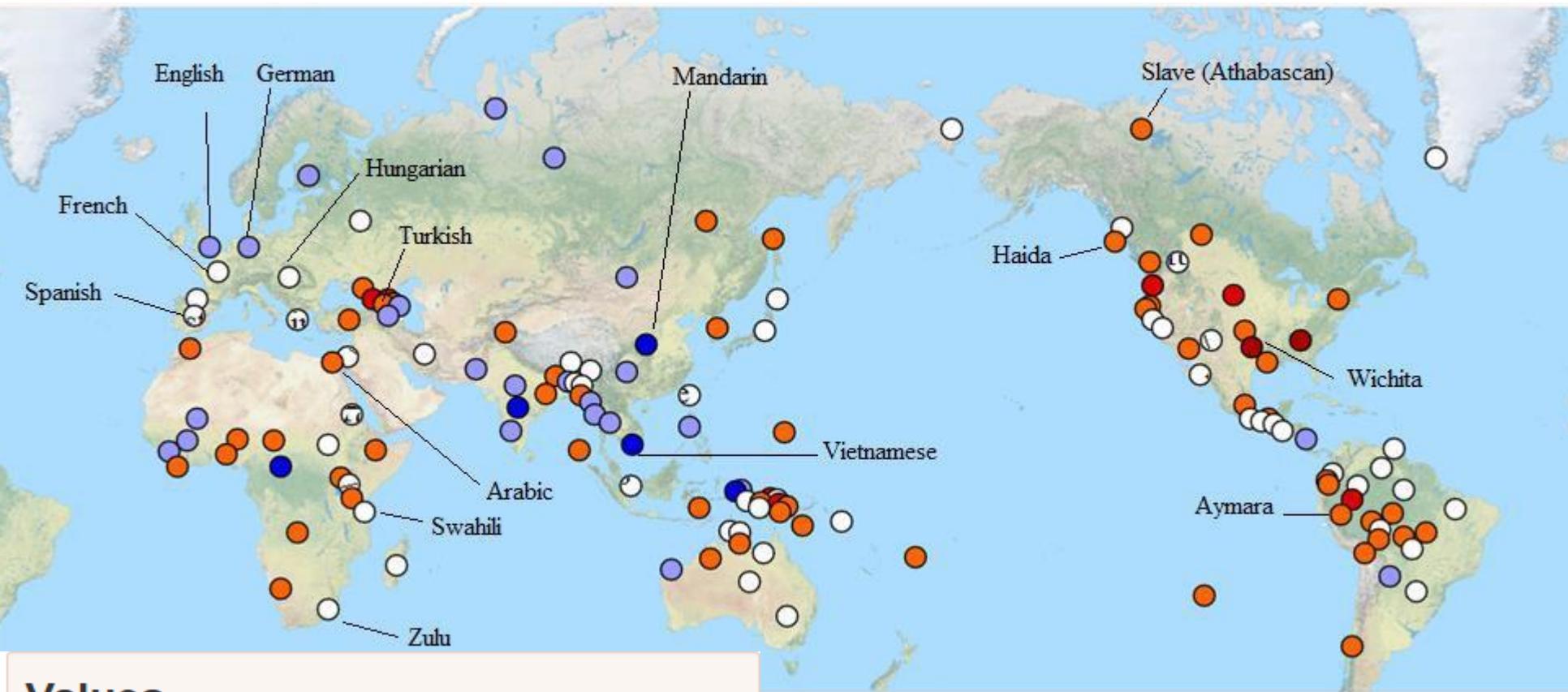
We will hook fish

Languages often show elements  
of different morphological types

---

## English

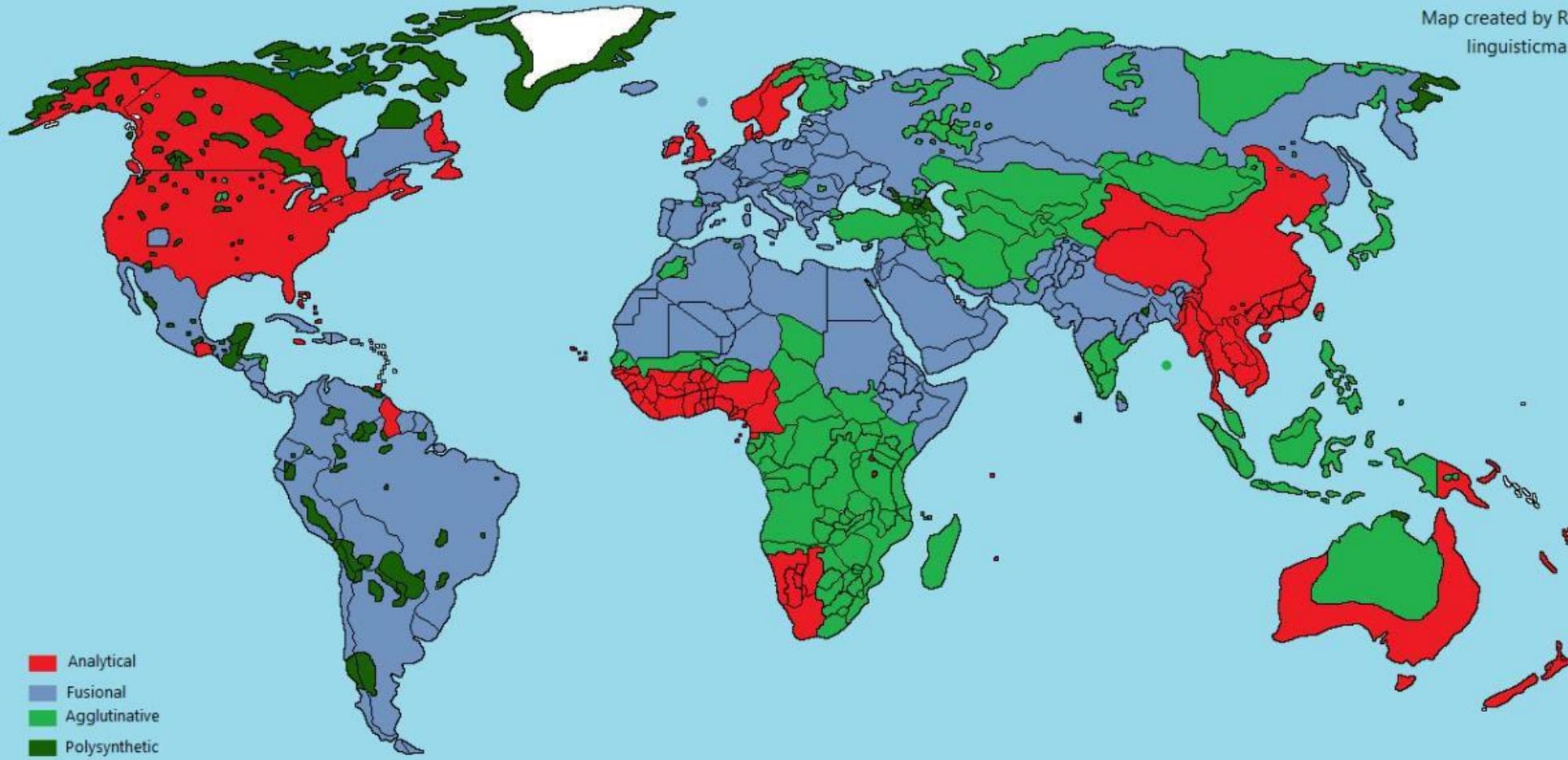
- I. 'The boy will play with the dog.'
- II. 'John's cat eats mice.'
- III. 'antidisestablishmentarianism'



## Values

● (Blue)	0-1 category per word	5
● (Light Blue)	2-3 categories per word	24
○ (White)	4-5 categories per word	52
● (Orange)	6-7 categories per word	31
● (Dark Orange)	8-9 categories per word	24
● (Red)	10-11 categories per word	7
● (Dark Red)	12-13 categories per word	2

Map created by R  
linguistica



# Genetic versus areal features

---

**Language families** are defined by having a **genetic relationship**, where elements of the language are passed *down* (through time). Sometimes features, even morphological characteristics, can spread among languages that are spoken near each other, even when unrelated. We call these **areal features** (e.g., see southeast Asia, N. America).

# Genetic versus areal features

---

## Joseph Harold Greenberg

(May, 1915 – May, 2001) was an American linguist, known mainly for his work concerning linguistic typology and the genetic classification of languages.

# Typological versus Genetic features of languages

---

J. Greenberg came to the conclusion that the most analytical language he studied is

**Vietnamese** (synthesis index - 1, 00), and the most synthetic language is Eskimo ['eskiməu] / One should better say Inuit ['in(j)uit] (synthesis index - 3, 72).

# Typological versus Genetic features of languages

## Joseph Harold Greenberg Synthetism index

Eskimo	Sanskrit	Swahili [swa:'hi :lɪ]	Russian	Yakut	Anglo- Saxon	German	English	Vietnam ese
3, 72	2, 59	2, 55	2, 39	2, 17	2, 12	1, 97	1, 68	1, 06

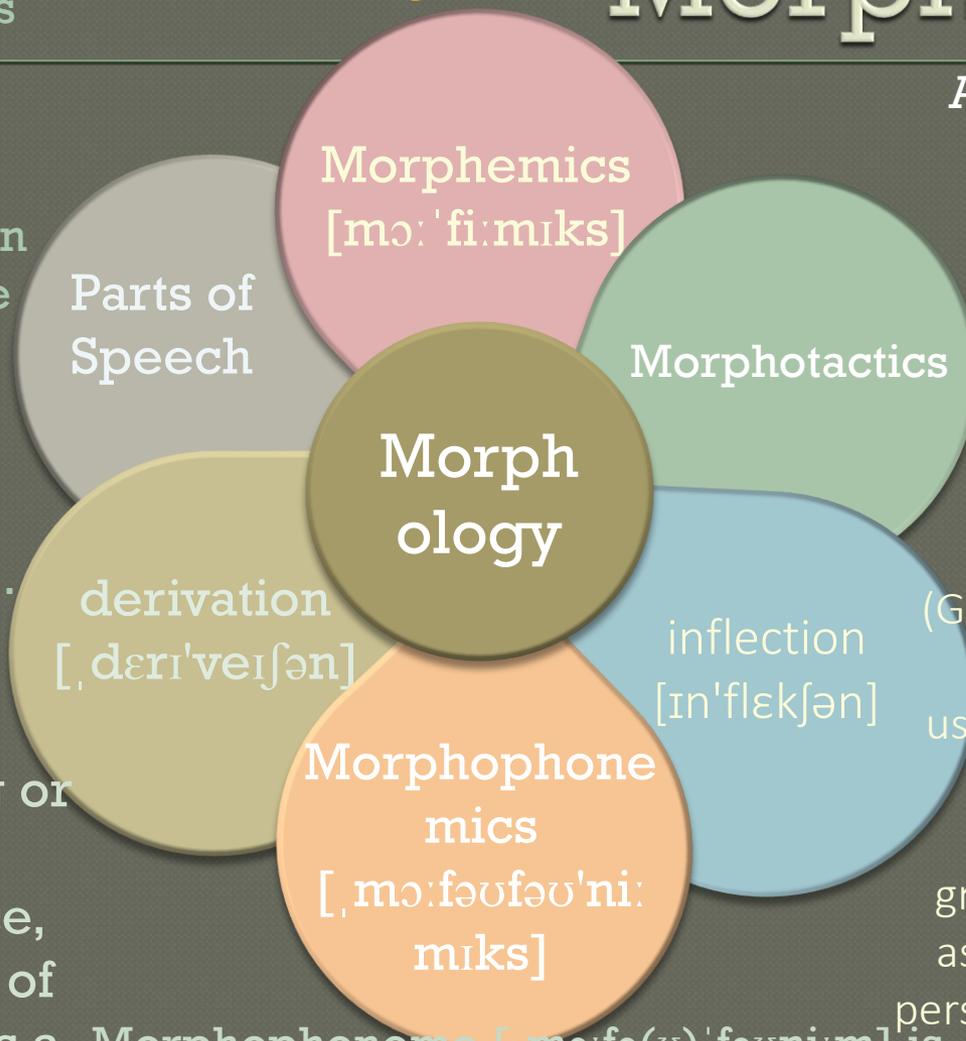
- ❑ If the M/W Index is below 2, such languages are called **analytic** (Vietnamese, English, Chinese, Persian, Italian, German, Danish etc).
- ❑ If the M/W Index is between 2 and 3, such languages are called **synthetic** (Sanskrit, Russian, Lithuanian, Ancient Greek, Old (Church) Slavonic, Czech(ic), Polish, Yakut, Swahili, etc).
- ❑ If the M/W Index is **above 3**, such languages are called **polysynthetic** (besides the Eskimo, some other Paleo-Asian, Amerindian, and some languages of Caucasus are polysynthetic).

Morphemics [mɔ:'fi:mɪks] is the study of word structure in terms of minimal meaningful units

# Morphology

Morphotactics represent the ordering restrictions in place on the ordering of morphemes. Etymologically, it can be translated as "the set of rules that define how morphemes (morpho) can touch (tactics) each other".

**Derivation** [ˌdɛrɪ'veɪʃən] the act of deriving or state of being derived; the source, origin, or descent of something, such as a word



A part of speech is a category of words (lexical items) that have similar grammatical properties.

**inflection** [ɪn'flekʃən] or inflexion (Grammar) a change in the form of a word, usually modification or affixation, signalling change in such grammatical functions as tense, voice, mood, person, gender, number, or case

**Morphophoneme** [ˌmɔ:fə(ʊ)'fəʊni:m] is the set of phonemes or sequences of phonemes that constitute the various allomorphs of a morpheme;

# Morphology

Morphemics [mə:'fi:miks]:  
Root word is the base of a word  
after all affixes are removed .

Morphotactics:  
Base & affixes:  
Prefix, circumfix,  
inter-fix, simul-fix,  
infix, postfix, affix,  
supra-fix.  
Make an English  
word with  
two details:  
-er- and -sing-  
Good luck )

Derivation  
[,dɛrɪ'veɪʃən]  
Root – stem - affix

Poor [puə] , poverty ['pɒvəti] – are the allomorphs of one morpheme /constitute the various allomorphs of a morpheme morpheme;

English parts of  
speech are Noun,  
Pronoun, Verb,  
Adjective, Article,  
Adverb, Preposition,  
Conjunction.

inflection [ɪn'flekʃən]  
or inflexion  
(Grammar) a change in  
the form of a word,  
Go- went –gone;  
I am going;  
You are going;  
We are going....  
Good - better – best...



# The word and the morpheme

---

- **The morpheme** is unanimously recognized as a minimal meaningful segment of the word.
- **The word** is the smallest free form that can occupy different positions in the sentence and can be used as a potential minimal sentence.

## *BUT - A word or a morpheme?*

- *waterman, password* (not the smallest free forms)
- *A book, the book, (0) books* – a zero word?
- not all function words can be minimal sentences

# The Morpheme: Different Approaches

---

- **Functional (descriptive) approach** emphasizes function, meaning, no matter how it is expressed. A morpheme can be *immaterial* (logical stress, pauses, zero morphemes, etc.) – *Moscow school of linguistics*
- **Formal approach** insists that a morpheme is a minimal **material linear sign** expressing a certain meaning. – *Saint-Petersburg (Leningrad) school*

# The Morpheme and the Morph

- **The Morpheme – an invariant**, can be immaterial, non-linear, renders some grammatical meaning:  
*-ed* (past tense of the verb), *-es* (the 3d person singular)
- **The morph - a variant**, a linear unit, a meaningful segment of a concrete word-form. - *played*

# The Notion of the Allomorph

---

- If a morpheme is manifested by several positional variants, these *phonetic (and/or graphic) variants, or morphs*, are called **allomorphs**.
- Allomorphs are identical from the point of view of their meanings but differ in **environments**, or **distribution**.
- If 2 or more morphs have the same meaning and the difference in their form is accounted for by different environments, these morphs are said to be in **complementary distribution**, that is they cannot substitute each other. So they are allomorphs of the same morpheme (e.g. -s /s/ /z/ iz/).

## Alternative view!

---

- Some linguists are reluctant to recognize *oxen*, *phenomena*, *etc.* and *mice*, *geese* as allomorphs of the morpheme (-s). Descriptive linguistics looks upon such cases as a special variety of a morpheme and calls it **a substitute**.

prefixes, root words, & suffixes

word	prefix & meaning		root & meaning		suffix & meaning	
	<b>independently</b>	in	not, without	dependent	to rely on another	ly
<b>reliability</b>	re	back, again	liable	responsible	ity	state of
<b>rapidly</b>	-	-	rapid	quickly	ly	characterized by
<b>multitasked</b>	multi	many	task	a piece of work to be done or undertaken	ed	forming the past participle of
<b>disappeared</b>	dis	the opposite of, not	appear	the way that something or someone looks	ed	forming the past participle
<b>rider</b>	-	-	ride	sit on and control the movement of	er	one who
<b>impossible</b>	im	not	possible	able to be done	ible	is, can be

prefix-A prefix is added to the beginning of a base or root word to change its meaning

# Learning activity

A Few questions about English words

- ❑ Are *cat* and *cats* one word or two?
- What about *cat*, *catty* and *catcall*:
  - ❑ one, two, three words or more?
  - And how many words are there in '*catty*' and '*catcall*'?
  - ❑ How many words are there in '*It's raining cats and dogs*'?  
3, 4, 5, 6 ???

# Morphemic word-structures:

---

1. There are two kinds (or levels) of approach to the study of word-structure: the one of morphemic analysis and the one of derivational or word-formation analysis.
2. The basic unit of the morphemic level is the **morpheme** defined as the smallest indivisible two-facet language unit.

# Morphemic word-structures:

---

3. Three types of morphemic segmentability of words are distinguished in linguistic literature: **complete, conditional and defective.**

Words of conditional and defective segmentability are made up of full morphemes and pseudo (quasi) morphemes. The latter do not rise to the status of full morphemes either for semantic reasons or because of their unique distribution.

# Morphemic word-structures:

---

4. Semantically morphemes fall into root-morphemes and affixational morphemes (prefixes and suffixes);

structurally into free, bound and semi-free (semi-bound) morphemes.

5. The structural types of words at the morphemic level are described in terms of the number and type of their ICs as monomorphic and polymorphic words.



# PRINCIPLES OF WORD-SEGMENTATION

---

- According to *the root principle* the identification of the root-morpheme *agree-* in the words *agreeable, agreement, disagree* makes it possible to split these words into the root *agree-* and the affixational morphemes *-able, -ment, dis-*.

# PRINCIPLES OF WORD-SEGMENTATION

---

- According to *the affix principle* the segmentation of the word into its constituent morphemes is based on the identification of an affixational morpheme within a set of words, for example, the identification of the morphemes *-less* leads to the segmentation of words like *thoughtless, careless, merciless* into the suffixational morpheme *-less* and the root-morphemes *thought-, care-, merci-* within a word-cluster.

# TRICKS OF WORD-SEGMENTS

---

The affixational morphemes with the same denotational meaning sometimes differ only in connotation: the morphemes *-ly*, *-like*, *-ish* in the words *womanly*, *womanlike*, *womanish* have the same denotational meaning of similarity but differ in the connotation component:

*женственный* – *женский* – *бабий*.

# Defective segmentability

---

- **Defective segmentability** is the property of words whose component morphemes seldom or never recur in other words.  
One of the component morphemes of these words is **a unique morpheme**, which is isolated and understood as meaningful because the constituent morphemes display a more or less clear denotational meaning.

# PROCEDURE OF MORPHEMIC ANALYSIS

---

The procedure of segmenting words into the constituent morphemes is known as **the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents**

(any of two meaningful parts forming a larger linguistic unit. *L. Bloomfield*).

It is based on a binary principle, i.e. each stage of the procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into.

---

At each stage these two components are referred to as **the Immediate constituents (ICs)**. Each IC at the next stage of analysis is broken into smaller meaningful elements.

The analysis is completed when constituents are incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These morphemes are referred to as the **Ultimate Constituents (UCs)**.

---

The noun *friendliness* is first segmented into the ICs:

1. *friendly-* (recurring in the adjectives *friendly* and *friendly-looking*).
2. *-ness* (found in a countless number of nouns): *happiness, darkness*.

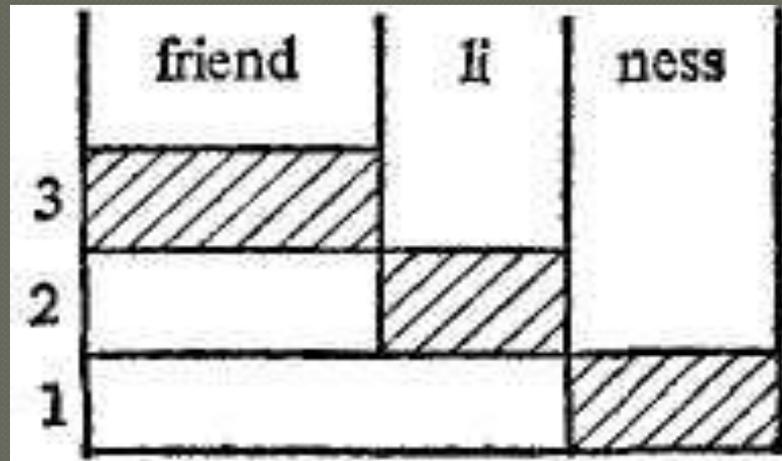
The IC *-ness* is at the same time an UC of the noun, as it cannot be broken into any smaller elements possessing both sound-form and meaning.

The IC *friendly-* is next broken into the ICs

- 1) *friend-* (recurring in *friendship, unfriendly*) and
- 2) *-ly* (recurring in *wifely, brotherly*).

The ICs *friend-* and *-ly* are both UCs of the word under analysis.

# The procedure of segmenting a word into its UC morphemes



# The grammatical meaning (GM) -

---

- abstract and general by nature, it is normally manifested by at least two particular meanings opposed to each other. One of them is usually more definite and narrow than the other.
- GM is found not in grammar categories only (Case, Number, etc), it is a meaning common to a whole class of words uniting words in parts of speech (Ex. Substance, Property) or can be common for a group of lexical morphemes (er- doer, less – a lack of some property, etc).

# Different ways of expressing the Grammatical Meaning

---

- 1) inflection (word-changing);
- 2) word order;
- 3) function words;
- 4) intonation & stress.

# 4 ways of word-changing:

---

## SYNTHETIC [sɪn'θetɪk]

- **Affixation** (walk – walk-s – walk-ed)
- **Sound interchange** (man – men, take-took)
- **Suppletivity** - an interlacement of roots within one system of forms (good-better)

## ANALYTIC(AL) [ˌæn(ə)'lɪtɪk((ə)l)]

- **Analytical way of word-changing** - the lexical and the GR. meaning are expressed separately by 2 words (**have done**)

## AGGLUTINATIVE [ə'glu:tɪnətɪv]

- (of a language, e.g. Hungarian, Turkish, Korean, and Swahili) tending to express concepts in complex words consisting of many elements, rather than by inflection or by using isolated elements.

# The grammatical form (GF) -

---

- GF is a special **morphemic sign** that distinguishes one form of the word from another, each expressing a certain particular meaning of a grammatical category (number: *boy – boys*, tense: *see – saw – will see*).
- a **paradigm** ['pærə,daɪm] - the sum total of all grammatical forms of a certain linguistic unit.
- The paradigm of a verb, for instance, comprises a large number of forms subdivided into minor paradigms representing various grammatical categories of the verb (person, mood, tense, aspect, etc.).
- Invariable parts of speech have no paradigm (?).

# What is a Word Cluster?

---

*please*    *pleasing*    *pleasure*    *pleasant*  
[pli:z]    [pli:z]    [plez]    [plez]

All the representations of the given morpheme in the **word cluster** that manifest alteration are called *allomorphs* of that morpheme or *morpheme variants*.

Thus, [pli:z], [plez] and [plez] are allomorphs of one and the same morpheme.

# CLASSES OF WORDS OR PARTS OF SPEECH

---

- In traditional grammar, a **part of speech** is a category of words (or, more generally, of lexical items) that have similar grammatical properties. Words that are assigned to the same part of speech generally display **similar syntactic behavior**—they play **similar roles** within the grammatical structure of sentences—and **sometimes similar morphology** in that they undergo inflection for similar properties.

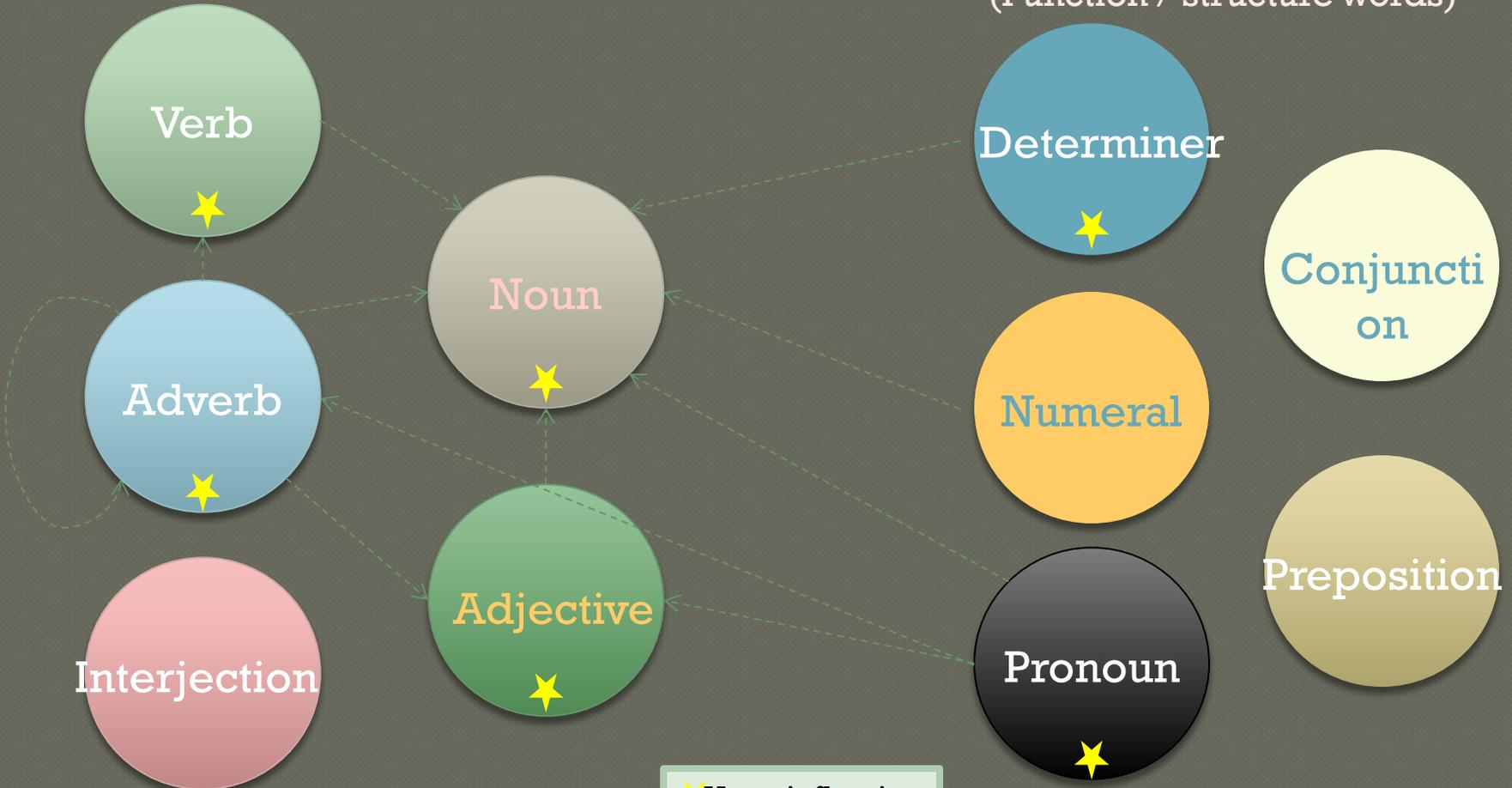
# Word classes & inflection

## Open class

(content / lexical / autosemantic words)

## Closed class

(Function / structure words)



Building  
blocks

★ Have inflection

The glue

# English word structure

## Lexical and word clusters

	Lexical cluster 1		Lexical cluster 2	Lexical cluster 3	Lexical cluster 4	Lexical cluster 5
Rain (noun)	Rain verb	Rainy adjective	(v) Go by, through, on, off, away etc.	good; goody (adjective)	think of; think about; think hard;	please (v), pleasant (ad), pleasure (n) etc.
Part of speech paradigm	Part of speech paradigm	Part of speech paradigm	Part of speech paradigm	Part of speech paradigm	Part of speech paradigm	Part of speech paradigms
Declension inflection	Conjugation inflections	Declension inflection	Conjugation inflections	Rainy adjective	Conjugation inflections	Paradigm inflections
Corresponding words and word-forms	Corresponding words and word-forms	Corresponding words and word-forms	Go, goes – went –gone- will be going	Corresponding words and word-forms	Think, thought, thought	Corresponding words and word-forms
Samples: I want to feel the rain...	Samples: It's been raining heavily.	Samples: On one rainy day...	Samples: It's been raining heavily.	Samples: good, better, the best.	Samples: I've been thinking about you!	Samples: pleasing; pleased; pleasantly

# What is a Collocation?

---

- “Collocation is the readily observable phenomenon whereby certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency. Instead of words, we consciously try to think of collocations, and to present these in expressions. Rather than trying to break things into ever smaller pieces, there is a conscious effort to see things in larger, more holistic, ways.”  
(Michael Lewis, (1997).

Implementing the lexical approach: Putting theory into practice. Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications.)

# What is a Colligation?

---

“**Collocation** is the way a word regularly co-occurs with a (grammatical) pattern, the word and its grammatical environment. Each word has its own “grammar”.

# Learning activity

---

## The Task

Fill in blanks, please. Then check if your ideas coincide with those of your fellow students.

I have a close friend called Irene. I've known her (1)..... 15 years now. We met at (2) ..... – she was a colleague (3) ..... at the company where I used (4) ..... . We get 5..... although we don't have a lot in (6) ..... – we have quite different (7)..... . We don't work together any (8)....., and when I changed jobs we lost (9) ..... for a couple of years. But now we (10) ..... in touch regularly.

# Learning activity

---

# Learning activity

---

## The Task

Fill in the blanks in English.

The rivers are ... (замерзла).

The flowers are ... (замерзли).

# Learning activity

---

## The Task

Fill in the blanks in English.

The rivers are frozen(замерзла).

The flowers are frosted (замерзли).

# Learning activity

## Lexeme

---

□ Because cat and cats mean the same and belong to the same word class (both are nouns), linguists say that they *belong to the same lexeme*.

They are different forms of that lexeme, however; one for singular and one for plural. In other words, they are different word-forms of the same lexeme.

A lexeme, then, is an abstract kind of word which comprises a number of actual instantiations, or word-forms.

# Learning activity

---

- ❑ So to solve the ambiguity of the notion word, linguists have come up with other, more narrowly defined terms. Apart from **lexeme** and **word-form**, you will also come across notions like **grammatical word**, lexical item, **phrasal word** and others.
- ❑ There is a discussion of these notions at the beginning of Chapter 4 of Yule (2010) and also in Chapter 10 of Carstairs-McCarthy (2002).

# Learning activity

---

□ Cat and catty, on the other hand, mean different things: one is a noun and the other is an adjective; one refers to a small animal and the other to the quality of being unkind or mean (as in a catty remark).

□ Deduction:

We would not want to say that cat and catty belong to the same lexeme.

# Лингвистический анализ простого предложения

---

*"Письма знакомой из Киева не заменяют фотографии его любимой и милой дочери Марии".*

# Cranberry Morpheme

---

- In linguistic morphology, a **cranberry morpheme (or fossilized term)** is a type of bound morpheme that cannot be assigned an independent meaning or grammatical function, but nonetheless serves to distinguish one word from another.

# Cranberry Morpheme

---

- Etymology
- Look up cranberry ['krænb(ə)rɪ], mulberry ['mʌlb(ə)rɪ], gooseberry, raspberry, or blackberry.
- The archetypal example is the cran of cranberry. Unrelated to the homonym cran with the meaning a case of herrings, this cran actually comes from crane (the bird), although the connection is not immediately evident. Similarly, mul exists only in mulberry (mul is from Latin morus, the mulberry tree).

# Cranberry Morpheme

---

- Phonetically (???), the first morpheme of raspberry also counts as a **cranberry morpheme**, even though the word "rasp" does occur by itself.
- Etymology: from earlier **raspis raspberry**, of unknown origin + BERRY:

# Cranberry Morpheme

---

- Phonetically (???), the first morpheme of raspberry also counts as a **cranberry morpheme**, even though the word "rasp" does occur by itself.
- Compare these with blackberry, which has two obvious **unbound morphemes**, and to loganberry and boysenberry, whose first morphemes are derived from **personal names**.

# Cranberry Morpheme

---

- ◉ Some semantics: LANGUAGE & COLOUR
- ◉ Look up mulberry ['mʌlb(ə)rɪ] in a dictionary
- ◉ mulberry ['mʌlb(ə)rɪ]
- ◉ 1. 1) а) шелковица, тутовое дерево б) тутовая ягода
- ◉ 2) багровый, тёмно-красный цвет 2. багровый, тёмно-красный.

# Cranberry Morpheme

---

- Some semantics: **LANGUAGE** & **COLOUR**
- Look up **mulberry** ['mʌlb(ə)rɪ] in a dictionary
- mulberry ['mʌlbəri, -brɪ] , -ries 1) any moraceous tree of the temperate genus *Morus*, having edible blackberry-like fruit, such as *M. alba* (white mulberry), the leaves of which are used to feed silkworms
- 2) the fruit of any of these trees; 3) any of several similar or related trees, such as the paper mulberry and Indian mulberry; 4) a) a dark purple colour; b) (as adjective) a mulberry dress.

# Cranberry Morpheme

---

- Some semantics: LANGUAGE & COLOUR

RU	ENG
Багровый;	a dark purple colour
Тёмно- красный	

# Cranberry Morpheme

## Some semantics: LANGUAGE & COLOUR

RU	ENG
Багровый;	a dark purple colour
Тёмно- красный	

# Polysemy [ˌpɒlɪ'siːmi, pə'liːsəmi]

---

**Polysemy** [ˌpɒlɪ'siːmi, pə'liːsəmi]

is the existence of several meanings in a single word Compare: monosemy

**Etymology:** from New Latin polysēmia, from Greek polusēmos having many meanings, from POLY- + sēma a sign

**Derived words:** polysemous

# Auto-antonym /ɔːtə(u)-'æntənɪm/

---

**Enantiosemy** = contronym = contronym = auto-antonym [ɔːtə(u)-'æntənɪm] = self-antonym (Gr. ἐνάντιος [enantíos] “opposite” and σημασία [semasia] “meaning”) – is a word which means opposite things.

# Auto-antonym /ɔːtə(u)-'æntənɪm/

---

**Enantiosemy** in other words:

In other words enantiosemy is a linguistic phenomenon of antonymy [æn'tənəmɪ](?) within the same word.

Auto-antonym /ɔːtə(u)-'æntənim/  

---

The **origin** of this phenomenon is **three-fold**:

# Auto-antonym /ɔːtə(u)-'æntənim/

---

1) some cases of enantiosemy are **homographs**, that is two words which used to be quite different in the past, but developed the same form in modern English. For instance, the word cleave is an example of enantiosemy which means “to separate” and “to adhere”. The meaning “separate” comes from Old English **clēofan**. The meaning “adhere” comes from Old English **clifian**;

# Auto-antonym /ɔːtə(u)-'æntənɪm/

---

2) some cases of enantiosemy are a form of **polysemy**, a word that developed several meanings some of which are opposite.

For instance, quite (“clear” or “free” in Middle English) means “slightly” (quite nice) or “**completely**” (quite right).

A considerable number of English words in this category are the nouns which became verbs, e.g. to dust (“to remove dust” and “to add dust”); to seed (“to produce seeds” and “to remove seeds”);

# Auto-antonym /ɔːtə(u)-'æntənɪm/

---

3) finally, some cases of enantiosemy are words which come from different languages (or language varieties) and have the opposite meanings in these languages. One such instance is in the picture above. In this picture, there are three lines in English, Spanish, and French correspondingly. The English word flammable means “catching fire easily” while inflammable would mean “not susceptible to fire”..

# Auto-antonym /ɔːtə(u)-'æntənim/

---

3) Another such example is BrE **to table a deal** “to present a deal for discussion” vs AmE **to table a deal** “to withdraw a deal from a discussion”. These examples may qualify for translator’s false friends. However, not all translator’s false friends are **enantiosemy**, but only those which are **opposite in meaning**.

# Auto-antonym /ɔːtə(u)-'æntənɪm/

---

Some other examples of *enantiosemy* include:

- ❑ custom = “standard” and “tailored”
- ❑ fast = “immovable” and “moving quickly”
- ❑ presently = “now” and “not now, but shortly in the future”
- ❑ to rent = “to borrow from” and “to lend to”
- ❑ to sanction = “to allow” and “to forbid”
- ❑ to trim = “to add edging” and “to cut away at the edges”

# Paronymic Attraction

---

In etymology, including onomastics [ɒnə'mæstɪks], **paronymic attraction** is the distorting effect exerted on a word by one of its **paronyms** (that is, a ['kweɪzɪ]/ ['kwɑːzɪ] quasi-homonym).

# Paronymic Attraction

---

Paronymic attraction is the origin of many names.

The attraction can even be cross-linguistic: the resemblance between the Romanian language word locație (a space for which a rent should be paid) and the English word "location" helped a semantic shift of the former word to include the latter sense.

# Paronymic Attraction

---

A common phenomenon, **paronymic attraction** is usually expressed through the replacement of a word whose meaning is not understood by a term designating a name (common or proper) or a common concept.

For example, in the French language, **interpoler** (to add something in the middle of writing) and **interpeller** (to question someone formally) are sometimes substituted for each other because of their similar sound, **despite their differences in meaning.**

# What is semantics?

---

The study of the linguistic meaning of morphemes, words, phrases, and sentences is called Semantics.

# Sememe ['sɛmi:m, 'si:m-]

Sememe ['sɛmi:m, 'si:m-] is the unit of meaning carried by a **morpheme**

Origin: early 20th cent.: from seme + -eme

# Semanteme [sɪ'mænti:m]

semanteme [sɪ'mænti:m]  
is a minimal distinctive unit of  
meaning

# Subfields of word meaning

**Denotation** (referents) is the set of entities to which a linguistic unit (a word) refers.

The denotation of the word summer corresponds to the season between spring and autumn (regardless of whether or not it is hot and unpleasant).

One approach to semantics attempts to equate meaning with denotation.

# Subfields of word meaning

**Denotation** (referents) is the set of entities to which a linguistic unit (a word) refers.

The denotation of the word summer corresponds to the season between spring and autumn (regardless of whether or not it is hot and unpleasant).

One approach to semantics attempts to equate meaning with denotation.

# Subfields of word meaning

## The denotational aspect of lexical meaning:

- expresses the notional content of a word.
- is the component of the lexical meaning that makes communication possible.

# Subfields of word meaning

## Connotation

The connotational aspect of lexical meaning is the part of meaning which reflects the attitude of the speaker towards what he speaks about.

Connotation conveys additional information in the process of communication.

# Subfields of word meaning

Maybe all the types of meanings of words are somewhat hard to count. E.g. these may include:

- i. Common denotation or individual reference, practiced by sb in a certain situation;
- ii. Emotion of the speaker or a rhetoric set, causing emotion in the listener;
- iii. Some gradable evaluative components;
- iv. Social Register or some distinct discourse
- v. markedness;
- vi. Eloquent etymology - meaningful inner form of a word;
- vii. Pragmatic meaning (or message) etc.

# Subfields of word meaning

Connotation is the set of associations that a word's use can evoke (bring to mind):

For Canadians, the word winter evokes thoughts of:

snow, bitter cold, long nights, and the like.

These associations make up the word's connotation, but they cannot be its (entire) meaning: The word winter is used for the season (December to March) even if none of the above is experienced. Therefore, we must look beyond connotation for our understanding of what meaning is.

# Polysemy ['pɒlɪsiːmi, pə'liːsɪmi]

When we have two lexemes that sound the same/are spelled the same but whose meanings appear to be totally unrelated to each other, we talk about homonymy.

You can read about this in Yule (2010, 120).

It is not always easy to decide whether we have polysemy or homonymy.

# synonyms are antonyms

Two words with a similar meaning might have different connotations, for example **plump** is generally positive, whereas fat is generally negative.

# Derivation

## Types of Word-Formation Processes

One of the most productive ways to form new words is through affixation, which is forming new words by the combination of bound affixes and free morphemes.

# Derivation 01.

In English we can witness three major types of affixation:

- ❑ **prefixation:** where an affix is placed before the base of the word
- ❑ **suffixation:** where an affix is placed after the base of the word
- ❑ **infixation:** where an affix is placed within a stem

# Derivation 02.

The second word-formation process is known as **Compounding**, which is forming new words not from bound affixes but from two or more independent words: the words can be **free morphemes**, words derived by affixation, or even words formed by compounds themselves.

**E.G.** air-conditioner; handicraft, blackbird; statesman, looking-glass; textbook; speedometer [spi:'dɒmɪtə], street-fighting, long-legged, twenty-two-year-old watchmaker; **ex**-girlfriend, but also car park, soap opera etc.

# Derivation 02.

**Compound words** may have different stress, as in the following examples:

1. The wool sweater gave the man **a red neck**.
2. **The redneck** in the bar got drunk and started yelling.

# Derivation 03.

A third word-formation process is known as **Reduplication**, which is forming new words either **by doubling an entire free morpheme (total reduplication)** or part of a morpheme (**partial reduplication**).

English doesn't use this a lot, but other languages make much more extensive use of reduplication.

In Indonesian [ ,**indəu'ni:ʒən** ], [**-'ni:ʒiən**], for example, total reduplication is used to form plurals: Rumah = 'house'; **rumahrumah** = 'houses'

# Derivation 03.

If you want to read a bit about English Reduplication, Press the link below!

<https://www.thoughtco.com/reduplicative-words-1692030>

# Derivation 04.

The fourth type of word-formation process is known as **Blending**, where *two words merge into each other*, such as:

- *brunch*  
from breakfast and lunch
- *smog*  
from smoke and fog

# Derivation 05.

## BACK-FORMATION

/also called *back-derivation*/

is the process of forming a new word (a neologism) by removing actual or supposed affixes from another word.

Put simply, a back-formation is a shortened word (such as *edit*) created from a longer word (*editor*).

Verb: *back-form* (which is itself a back-formation).

E.G. *vaccinate* from *vaccination*

