## LNGT0101 Introduction to Linguistics

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Lecture \#12
Oct $22^{\text {nd }}, 2012$

## Announcements

- HW3 is due today. I will post the solutions once I receive all homework assignments.
- Midterm will be posted on Wednesday. It'll be due a week after, on Wednesday Oct $31^{\text {st }}$.
- We will have a guest lecturer, Gustavo Freire, on Nov $5^{\text {th }}$ to talk to us about his research on first language acquisition by English and Brazilian Portuguese children.


## Presentations for Wednesday on tonight's debate

- Two articles from the NYT on the 'linguistics' of the presidential campaign.
- I need four political junkies, 2 for each article, to read the article, watch the debate, see if what is mentioned in each article materializes tonight, then report to class on Wed. Any takers?
- Links to both articles are on the syllabus table in the cell for Wed's readings. So, everyone is expected to read the articles as well.


## Today's agenda

- Do some morphology problems.
- Talk about some regular processes of word formation that add words to the lexicon of a language.
- Morphological typology: How do languages differ morphologically?


## Morphological analysis: Bontoc

| [fikas] "strong" | [fumikas] "to become strong" |
| :--- | :--- |
| [kilad] "red" | [kumilad] "to become red" |
| [fusul] "enemy" | [fumusul] "to become an enemy" |

- How are verbs formed from adjectives/nouns in Bontoc?
- If the word for "dark" in Bontoc is [nitad], what would the form meaning "to become dark" be ?
- If [pumukaw] means "to become white," what would the form meaning "white" in Bontoc be ?

Morphological analysis: Zulu
(exercise 5 from the textbook, pp. 109-110)

| umfazi "married woman" | abafazi "married women" |
| :--- | :--- |
| umfani "boy" | abafani "boys" |
| umzali "parent" | abazali "parents" |
| umfundisi "teacher" | abafundisi "teachers" |
| umbazi "carver" | ababazi "carvers" |
| umlimi "farmer" | abalimi "farmers" |
| umfundi "reader" | abafundi "readers" |

Morphological analysis: Zulu<br>(exercise 5 from the textbook, pp. 109-110)

| fundisa "to teach" | funda "to read" |
| :--- | :--- |
| lima "to cultivate" | baza "to carve" |

- Suppose now that I told you that "abadlali" means "players" in Zulu. What's the form for "player"? What's the form for "to play"?


## Cebuano

(exercise 7 from the textbook, p. 111)
7. Here are some nouns from the Philippine language Cebuano.
sibwano "a Cebuano"
ilokano "an Ilocano"
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { ilokano "an Ilocano" } & \text { ininglis "the English language" } \\ \text { tagalog "a Tagalog person" tinagalog "the Tagalo }\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { tagalog "a Tagalog person" } & \text { tinagalog "the Tagalog language" } \\ \text { inglis "an Englishman" } & \text { inilokano "the Ilocano language" }\end{array}$
bisaja "a Visayan" sinibwano "the Cebuano language"
a. What is the exact rule for deriving language names from ethnic group names?
What type of affixation is represented here?
c. If suwid meant "a Swede" and italo meant "an Italian," what would be the words for the Swedish language and the Italian language?
d. If finuranso meant "the French language" and inunagari meant "the Hungarian language," what would be the words for a Frenchman and a Hungarian?

## Turkish

(exercise 17 from the textbook, p 115)
17. Following is a list of words from Turkish. In Turkish, articles and morphemes indicating location are affixed to the noun.

| deniz | "an ocean" | evden | "from a house" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| denize | "to an ocean" | evimden | "from my house" |
| denizin | "of an ocean" | denizimde | "in my ocean" |
| eve | "to a house" | elde | "in a hand" |

a. What is the Turkish morpheme meaning "to"?
b. What kind of affixes in Turkish corresponds to English prepositions (e.g., prefixes, suffixes, infixes, free morphemes)?
c. What would the Turkish word for "from an ocean" be?
d. How many morphemes are there in the Turkish word denizimde?

## Processes of word-formation (enriching the Lexicon)

## Processes of word-formation

- There are systematic word-formation processes that take place across human languages.
- Depending on the language, some of these processes may or may not be available. But the result is the same: New words are always created and added to the dictionary of the language.


## Derivation

- The most productive process of word formation in a language is the use of derivational morphemes to form new words from already existing forms, as we discussed last class:
govern $\rightarrow$ government $\rightarrow$ governmental $\rightarrow$ non-governmental
- There are two classes of derivational affixes in English based on whether or not they trigger phonological effects, as on the handout.


## Loan translations (calque)

- Related to borrowings are loan translations, where a new word or expression is created via translation of a foreign term, rather than actual borrowing of the term in the language, e.g.,

| marriage of convenience (from French |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| mariage de convenance) |  |
| Superman | (from German Übermensch) |
| perros calientes | (from English hot dogs) |
| luna de miel | (from English honeymoon) |

## Word coinage

- Word coinage happens when a name of a product acquires a general meaning and gets used to refer to anything that has the same function of the original product:
kleenex, kodak, nylon, Dacron
- Conversion (aka zero derivation) is the extension of the use of one word from its original grammatical category to another category as well.
- For example, the word must is a verb (e.g. "You must attend classes regularly"), but it can also be used as a noun as in "Class attendance is a must".
- Same applies to "vacation", a noun that can also be used as a verb, and "major", an adjective that can be used as a noun and a verb.


## Conversion: Have you folks been menued yet?

## Borrowing

- New words also enter a language through borrowing from other languages.
- Here are some examples of foreign words that found their way into English:

| leak, yacht | (from Dutch) |
| :--- | :--- |
| barbecue, cockroach | (from Spanish) |
| piano, concerto | (from Italian) |

- LINK


## Compounding

- Like word structure, the internal structure of a compound can be represented using trees:


Structure of compounds


## German compounding

- German:
(10)

Compound Muttersprach Schreibtisch
stehenbleibe
Wunderkind Parkzeitüberschreitung

Meaning 'native language ${ }^{\prime}$ 'desk' 'stand (still)' 'child prodigy' exceeding of the amount of time one is allowed to park'

Meanings of Individual Morphemes
< mother language
< write table
< stand remain
$<$ miracle child
< park time
exceedance

## Properties of English compounds

- Stress placement:
'greenhouse vs. green 'house
'blackboard vs. black 'board
- Modification by "very":

We live next to a very green house.
*We live next to a very greenhouse.

- Inflectional morphemes are added to the compound as a whole:
drop kick $\rightarrow$ drop kicked, *dropped kick
bear hunter $\rightarrow$ bear hunters, *bears hunter


## Endocentric vs. exocentric compounds

- Semantically, compounds can be divided into two types: A. Endocentric compounds, which denote a subtype of the concept denoted by the rightmost component of the compound, e.g,, dog food is a type of food sky blue is a type of blue
B. In exocentric compounds, by contrast, the meaning of the compound does not follow from the meanings of its parts, e.g.,
redneck is not a type of neck
redhead is not a type of head.


## Endocentric vs. exocentric compounds

- Observe the plurals:

| Singular |  | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| club foot | $\rightarrow$ |  |
| Bigfoot | $\rightarrow$ |  |
| policeman | $\rightarrow$ |  |
| Walkman | $\rightarrow$ |  |

## Acronyms

- Acronyms are words created from the initial letters of several words. Typical examples are NATO, FBI, CIA, UN, UNICEF, FAQ, WYSIWYG, radar, laser.
- Sometimes acronyms are actually created first to match a word that already exists in the language, e.g., MADD (Mothers against Drunk Drivers).


## Back-formation

- Back-formation of words results when a word is formed from another word by taking off what looks like a typical affix in the language.
- This was the case with the verb edit, which entered English as a back-formation from editor.
- Same applies to the pairs television-televise, self-destruction-self-destruct, donation-donate.


## Blending

- Blending is another way of combining two words to form a new word. The difference between blending and compounding, however, is that in blending only parts of the words, not the whole words, are combined. Here's a couple of examples:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { smoke }+ \text { fog } \rightarrow \text { smog } \\
& \text { motor }+ \text { hotel } \rightarrow \text { motel } \\
& \text { information }+ \text { commercial } \rightarrow \text { infomercial }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Eponyms

- Eponyms are words derived from proper names, e.g., "sandwich" from the Earl of Sandwich; "lynch" after William Lynch.
- LINK


## Clipping

- Another process of word-formation is clipping, which is the shortening of a longer word. Clipping in English gave rise to words such as fax from facsimile, gym from gymnasium, and lab from laboratory.


## What process(es) is invovled?

- Terra firma
- Webcam
- Facebook
- CEO
- Enabler
- Execs
- Blog (noun) and blog (verb)

How do languages differ in their
word structure?

## Morphological typology

## Synthesis: How many morphemes does your language have per word?

- One aspect of morphological variation has to do with synthesis: Some languages may choose to "stack" morphemes on top of one another within words; others may elect to use at most one morpheme per word, and many others will fall somewhere between these two extremes.
- Let us start by comparing Yay to Oneida (examples from Whaley 1997:127):


## Synthesis: How many morphemes does your language have per word?

Yay:
a. mi ran tua ywa lew
not see class snake cmplt
"He did not see the snake."

## Oneida:

b. yo-nuhs-a-tho:lé:
3.neut.pat-room-epenthetic-be.cold.stat "The room is cold."

## Morphological typology: Index of synthesis

- On the so-called index of synthesis for morphological typology (Comrie 1989), understood as a continuum, Yay is considered an isolating language, whereas Oneida would be closer to the synthetic end of the scale, with English closer to the Yay-end than to the Oneida-end:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Isolating <-x--------x------------------------->Synthetic } \\
\text { Yay English } \quad \text { Oneida }
\end{gathered}
$$

## Morphological typology: Index of synthesis

- Some languages take synthesis to the extreme, though, marking all grammatical relationships on the verb with extensive affixation, thereby creating long and complex words that would correspond to whole sentences in languages like English, as the case is in Tiwa (example from Whaley 1997:131):
men-mukhin-tuwi-ban
Dual-hat-buy-PAST
"You two bought a hat."


## Morphological typology: Index of synthesis

- Or Eskimo:
iglu-kpi-yuma-laak-tu-ya
house-build-intend-anxious-reflexive-I
"I'm anxious to build a house."
- Or Mohawk (from Baker 2001:88):

Katerihwaiénstha'
"I am a student. [Literally: I habitually cause myself to have ideas.]"

## Morphological typology: Index of synthesis

- Or Mohawk again, though rather more ridiculously:

Washakotya'tawitsheraherkvhta'se'
"He made the thing that one puts on one's body (i.e., the dress) ugly for her."

- We call languages like Tiwa, Eskimo, and Mohawk, polysynthetic languages.


## Morphological typology: Index of fusion One-to-one or one-to-many?

- Synthetic languages, in turn, differ in whether morphemes are easily segmentable or not. Consider this paradigm from Michoacan Nahuatl, for example:

| no-kali | "my house" | no-pelo | "my dog" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| no-kali-mes | "my houses" | mo-pelo | "your dog" |
| mo-kali | "your house" | mo-pelo-mes | "your dogs" |
| i-kali | "his house" | i-pelo | "his dog" |

## Morphological typology: Index of fusion

- On the so-called index of fusion for morphological typology, also conceived of as a continuum, Michoacan Nahuatl is considered an agglutinative language, whereas Ancient Greek would be closer to the fusional end of the scale:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Agglutinative <---x------------------------------------->Fusional } \\
\text { Nahuatl }
\end{gathered}
$$

## Morphological typology: Index of fusion

- But now compare with Ancient Greek:
lu-ō "1sg.Pres.Active.Indicative (I am releasing)"
lu-ōmai "1sg.Pres.Active.Subjunctive (I should release)"
lu-omai "1sg.Pres.Passive.Indicative (I am being released)"
lu-oimi "1sg.Pres.Active.Optative (I might release)"
lu-etai "3sg.Pres.Active.Indicative (He is being released)"


## Next class agenda

- Syntax: Chapter 4 of the textbook, pp. 117-

148. 

## Abbreviations used on the slides

- CLASS = classifier
- CMPLT = complete
- NEUT = neuter
- PAT = patient
- STAT = stative


## References

- Baker, M. 2001. The atoms of language. New York: Basic Books.
- Comrie, Bernard. 1989. Language universals and linguistic typology. 2nd edition. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Whaley, L. 1997. Introduction to typology: The unity and diversity of language. Sage Publications.

