

# LNGT0101

## Introduction to Linguistics



Lecture #7  
Sept 29<sup>th</sup>, 2014

## Announcements

- HW2 is now posted. It's due next Monday Oct 6 by 5pm.
- On Wednesday we have a presentation and discussion of Myth 10: *Some languages have no grammar.*

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## Comments on HW1

- Descriptive grammar vs. prescriptive grammar again.

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## Today's agenda

- Do two more morphology problems.
- Introducing allomorphy.
- Talk about some regular processes of word formation that add words to the lexicon of a language.

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## Swedish

|          |               |           |               |
|----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|
| en lampa | 'a lamp'      | en bil    | 'a car'       |
| en stol  | 'a chair'     | en soffa  | 'a sofa'      |
| en matta | 'a carpet'    | en tratt  | 'a funnel'    |
| lampor   | 'lamps'       | bilar     | 'cars'        |
| stolar   | 'chairs'      | soffor    | 'sofas'       |
| mattor   | 'carpets'     | trattar   | 'funnels'     |
| lampan   | 'the lamp'    | bilen     | 'the car'     |
| stolen   | 'the chair'   | soffan    | 'the sofa'    |
| mattan   | 'the carpet'  | tratten   | 'the funnel'  |
| lamporna | 'the lamps'   | bilarna   | 'the cars'    |
| stolarna | 'the chairs'  | sofforna  | 'the sofas'   |
| mattorna | 'the carpets' | trattarna | 'the funnels' |

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## Swedish

- What is the Swedish word for the indefinite article *a* (or *an*)?
- What are the two forms of the plural morpheme in these data? How can you tell which plural form applies?
- What are the two forms of the morpheme that make a singular word definite, that is, correspond to the English article *the*? How can you tell which form applies?
- What is the morpheme that makes a plural word definite?
- In what order do the various suffixes occur when there is more than one?
- If *en flicka* is 'a girl,' what are the forms for 'girls,' 'the girl,' and 'the girls'?
- If *bussarna* is 'the buses,' what are the forms for 'buses' and 'the bus'?

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## Cebuano

7. Here are some nouns from the Philippine language Cebuano.

|           |                        |
|-----------|------------------------|
| sibwano   | 'a Cebuano'            |
| ilokano   | 'an Ilocano'           |
| tagalog   | 'a Tagalog person'     |
| inglis    | 'an Englishman'        |
| bisaja    | 'a Visayan'            |
| binisaja  | 'the Visayan language' |
| ininglis  | 'the English language' |
| tinagalog | 'the Tagalog language' |
| inilokano | 'the Ilocano language' |
| sinibwano | 'the Cebuano language' |

- What is the exact rule for deriving language names from ethnic group names?
- What type of affixation is represented here?
- If *suwid* meant 'a Swede' and *italo* meant 'an Italian,' what would be the words for the Swedish language and the Italian language?
- If *finuranso* meant 'the French language' and *inunagari* meant 'the Hungarian language,' what would be the words for a Frenchman and a Hungarian?

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## Variants of the same morpheme: Introducing Allomorphs

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## Variants of the same morpheme: Introducing Allomorphs

- So far we've been ignoring exceptions. Time to look at these.
- For example, not all English nouns form their plurals by adding an *-s* suffix, e.g.,
  - one man → two men (vowel change)
  - one sheep → two sheep (zero change)
  - one ox → two oxen (*-en* suffixation)
- Also, the plural *-s* morpheme is actually pronounced in three different ways:
  - [*-s*] cat → cats
  - [*-z*] dog → dogs
  - [*-əz*] kiss → kisses

**Note:** [*ə*] is a weak vowel that we'll talk about in phonetics.

## English Plural Allomorphy

- Since all these cases involve the same morphological operation of plural formation, we do not want to say that there are multiple plural morphemes in English.
- Rather, there is only **one** plural morpheme that can take different guises. Technically, we say that the plural morpheme in English has different **allomorphs**:
  - [*-s*] allomorph: cat → cats
  - [*-z*] allomorph: dog → dogs
  - [*-əz*] allomorph: kiss → kisses
  - vowel change allomorph: man → men
  - zero allomorph: sheep → sheep
  - en* allomorph: ox → oxen

## Some other morphological processes in human language that you need to know

## Suppletion

- Suppletion is the replacement of a morpheme by an entirely different morpheme to indicate a grammatical contrast. What's an example from English?
- Suppletive forms are found in many other languages:  
 French: *aller* "to go" → *ira* "he/she will go"  
 Spanish: *ir* "to go" → *fue* "he/she went"  
 Classical Arabic *ʔimraʔa(t)* "woman" → *nisa:ʔ* "women"

## Cliticization

- Cliticization is a morphological operation that does not create new words, but still combine two morphemes together in one word.
- English shows cliticization in cases of contraction, e.g.,  
 I am → *I'm*                      we have → *we've*  
 want to → *wanna*
- French and other Romance languages show cliticization with pronouns, e.g.,  
 Je t'aime.                              Suzanne les voit.  
 I you-like                              Suzanne them sees  
 "I like you."                              "Suzanne sees them."

## Reduplication

- **Reduplication** is a grammatical operation that marks a grammatical or semantic contrast by repeating all or part of the base to which it applies.
- Turkish and Indonesian exhibit **full** reduplication:  
 Turkish: *javaʃ* "slowly" → *javaʃ javaʃ* "very slowly"  
 Indonesian: *oraŋ* "man" → *oraŋ oraŋ* "all sorts of men"
- Tagalog exhibits **partial** reduplication:  
*lakad* "walk" → *lalakad* "will walk"  
*takbuh* "run" → *tatakhuh* "will run"

## Forming plural in Samoan

| Singular verb  | English translation | Plural verb      | English translation    |
|----------------|---------------------|------------------|------------------------|
| <i>nofo</i>    | 'he sits'           | <i>nonofo</i>    | 'they sit'             |
| <i>moe</i>     | 'he sleeps'         | <i>momoe</i>     | 'they sleep'           |
| <i>alofa</i>   | 'he loves'          | <i>alolofa</i>   | 'they love'            |
| <i>savali</i>  | 'he walks'          | <i>savavali</i>  | 'they walk'            |
| <i>maliu</i>   | 'he dies'           | <i>maliliu</i>   | 'they die'             |
| <i>atamaʔi</i> | 'he is intelligent' | <i>atamamaʔi</i> | 'they are intelligent' |

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

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## 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.

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## 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* → *government* → *governmental* →  
*non-governmental*

- There are two classes of derivational affixes in English based on whether or not they trigger phonological effects. See page 2 of the handout from last class.

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## 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*

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## Conversion:

Have you folks been *menued* yet?

- **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.

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## 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:

|                            |                |
|----------------------------|----------------|
| <i>leak, yacht</i>         | (from Dutch)   |
| <i>barbecue, cockroach</i> | (from Spanish) |
| <i>piano, concerto</i>     | (from Italian) |

- [LINK](#)

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## 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*)

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## Compounding

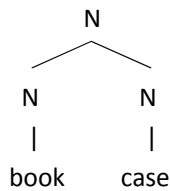
- New words are also created through the common process of compounding, i.e. combining two or more words together to form a new complex word. Here are some examples of compounding:

*post + card* → *postcard*  
*post + office* → *post office*  
*book + case* → *bookcase*  
*sister + in + law* → *sister-in-law*

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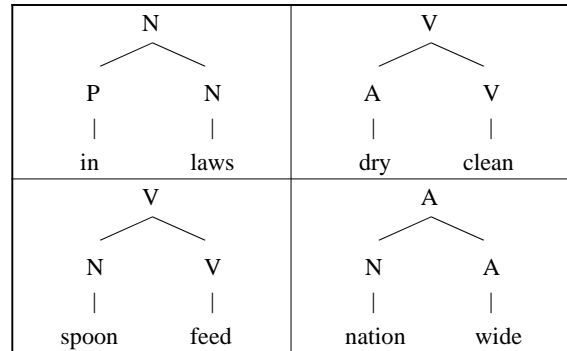
## Compounding

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



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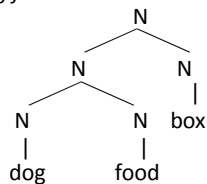
## Structure of compounds



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## Structure of compounds

- We can also use trees to represent the internal structure of cases of multiple compounding such as *dog food box*:



- This is a phonology book chapter. So, what is it?*

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## German compounding

- German:

(10)

### Compound

Muttersprache  
Schreibtisch  
stehenbleiben  
Wunderkind  
Parkzeitüberschreitung

### Meaning

'native language'  
'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

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## 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 → drop kicked, \*dropped kick  
bear hunter → bear hunters, \*bears hunter

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## 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.

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### Endocentric vs. exocentric compounds

- Observe the plurals of the two types of compounds:

| Singular  |   | Plural |
|-----------|---|--------|
| club foot | → |        |
| Bigfoot   | → |        |
| policeman | → |        |
| Walkman   | → |        |

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### Next class agenda

- More on word-formation processes.
- Morphological typology.
- Presentation and discussion of Myth 10: *Some languages have no grammar*.
- Introducing syntax: Chapter 3 of the textbook, pp. 76-87.

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