MODULE 1

# Introduction to Words and Morphemes

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## INTRODUCTION

Knowledge of a language enables you to combine words to form phrases, and phrases to form sentences. You cannot buy a dictionary of any language with all its sentences, because no dictionary can list all the possible sentences. Knowing a language means being able to produce new sentences never spoken before and to understand sentences never heard before.

Knowledge of a language, then, makes it possible to understand and produce new sentences. If you counted the number of sentences in this book that you have seen or heard before, the number would be small. Next time you write an essay or a letter, see how many of your sentences are new. Few sentences are stored in your brain, to be pulled out to fit some situation or matched with some sentence that you hear. Novel sentences never spoken or heard before cannot be stored in your memory.

In this unit you are going to:

1. Add your knowledge about linguistics which begins with introduction consisting Morphosyntax that is a combination between Morphology and Syntax. The exercises will show your comprehending the Morphosyntax.
2. Differentiate between content words and function words.
3. Differentiate between bound and free morpheme and finally you are able to do exercises on Identifying Morphemes.

UNIT 1

# Morphosyntax

## DEFINITIONS

Language is a tool used by people for communication and a formal symbolic system. The art of conceptualizing and describing a language involves analyzing its formal systematic properties and interpreting the language as a communicative character. Most of linguists today find the term 'grammar' is equated with not only Morphology but also Syntax. The domain of Morphology is words. How words are formed is the concern of this field so morphological structure is the structure which consists of the elements to form words. While Syntax describes the ways that words fit together to form sentences is utterances. Unit 1 begins with several definitions used in this book dealing with Morphosyntax, surely they are not only some of Morphology's but also Syntax'. In short Morphosyntax is the study of grammatical categories or linguistic units that have both morphological and syntactic properties. It is also meant the set of rules that govern linguistic units whose properties are definable by both morphological and syntactic criteria. The other definitions are below:

1. **Morphology**
   As a branch of linguistics, morphology is the study of the internal structure of words or the way in which words are constructed out of smaller meaningful units. Word forms can often be analyzed into segments. For instance the English word: unacceptable can be analysed as "un-accept-able".

2. **Morphs**
   Morphs are segments of the phonological unit. See the word: "un-accept-able" . The segments Un- and –able are called **morphs** and mean something
   Un- = negative
   -able = adjective means 'it is possible'
   while "accept" = lexeme

**3. Lexeme**

The lexeme is the word which the phonological unit is a realization of the form – e.g. the past participle of the lexeme which is called grammatical word. For example the word: "go" and "went" are different word forms which realize a single lexeme, "GO". Another example: cook and cooks are different word-forms which belong to the same lexeme. About the morphs and lexemes will be discussed in unit 2.

**4. Morphemes**

Morphemes are segments of the grammatical word which represent choices from a set of options forming a grammatical category. As an example let us see the article "a" and "an". We see that both "a" and "an" (and the other sets) are 'the same thing'. Then we will say that these various sets of morphs realise the same morpheme.

**5. Syntax**

Syntax which is a branch of linguistics is dealing with the internal structure of sentences and the interrelationships among the internal parts. It focuses on grammar that explains the way in which words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within (and sometimes between) sentences and how words put together.

**6. Semantics**

A branch of linguistics that studies the nature of the meaning of individual words, and the meaning of words, and the meaning of words grouped into phrases and sentences.

**7. Phonology**

A branch of linguistics that studies the structure and systematic patterning of sounds in human language.

**8. Sentences**

A sentence is the largest unit to which syntactic rules apply; an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form. However there are some exceptions such as example below:

Ellipses: ‘What are you reading?’ ‘Short story’
Interjections: ‘No’, ‘Honey!’ ‘Least said, soonest mended’

**9. Sentence Analysis**

Sentence analysis is to analyse group together units within the sentence.

For instance: ‘Hilary couldn’t open the window’

Hilary couldn’t open = verb phrase, the window = noun phrase

sentences
are analysed into
clauses
are analysed into
phrases
are analysed into
words
are analysed into
morphemes

**10. Constituent Analysis**

An analysis of syntactic units in a phrase structure tree.
See example below:

The boy loves *the girl.*
(the girl is a noun phrase constituent)

**11. Immediate Constituent Analysis**

An analysis of a sentence based on the functions of the component to identify the major components and the immediate relationship of each component.

a. Functional labels:
   Subject (S)
   Verb (V)
   Object (DO)
   Adverb (Adv)

b. S+V: The dog + is barking.
S+V+DO: The woman + prepared + lunch.
S+V+DO+IDO: The man + gave + a book + to John
S+V+Adverb He is walking quickly.

c. Identify the major components
The girl chased the dog
(The girl) (chased the dog)
(The girl) (chased (the dog))
((The) (girl)) (chased ((the)(dog))

This can be represented by a tree diagram which will be discussed in module 9:

**Activity**
Match sentences in Column A to the right answer in column B.

| A | B |
|---|---|
| 1. The domain of Morphology | a. Language |
| 2. To analyse group together units within the sentence | b. Semantics |
| 3. A tool used by people for communication and a formal symbolic system. | c. Morphological Structure |
| 4. Segments of the grammatical word which represent choices from a set of options forming a grammatical category. | d. Sentence Analysis |
| 5. A branch of linguistics that studies the structure and systematic patterning of sounds in human language. | e. Syntax |
| 6. The structure which consists of the elements to form words. | f. Morphemes |
| 7. The largest unit to which syntactic rules apply. | g. Segments |
| 8. A branch of linguistics is dealing with the internal structure of sentences and the interrelationships among the internal parts. | h. Phonology |
| 9. Word forms can often be analyzed into. | i. Words |

| A | B |
|---|---|
| 10. A branch of linguistics that studies the nature of the meaning of individual words, and the meaning of words, and the meaning of words grouped into phrases and sentences. | j. A Sentence |

*Key to Activity*

| A | B |
|---|---|
| 1. The domain of Morphology | a. Words |
| 2. To analyse group together units within the sentence | b. Sentence analysis |
| 3. A tool used by people for communication and a formal symbolic system. | c. Language |
| 4. Segments of the grammatical word which represent choices from a set of options forming a grammatical category. | d. Morphemes |
| 5. A branch of linguistics that studies the structure and systematic patterning of sounds in human language. | e. Phonology |
| 6. The structure which consists of the elements to form words. | f. Morphological structure |
| 7. The largest unit to which syntactic rules apply. | g. A Sentence |
| 8. A branch of linguistics is dealing with the internal structure of sentences and the interrelationships among the internal parts. | h. Syntax |
| 9. Word forms can often be analyzed into. | i. Segments |
| 10. A branch of linguistics that studies the nature of the meaning of individual words, and the meaning of words, and the meaning of words grouped into phrases and sentences. | j. Semantics |

## SUMMARY

Speakers use a finite set of rules to produce and understand an infinite set of possible sentences. These rules are part of the **grammar** of a language, which develops when you acquire the language and includes the sound system (the **Phonology**), the structure of words (the **Morphology**), how words may be combined into phrases and sentences (the **Syntax**), the ways in which sounds and meanings are related (the **Semantics**), and the words or **Lexicon.** The sounds and meanings of these words are related in an arbitrary fashion. If you had never heard the word **Syntax** you would not, by its sounds, know what it meant, then, is a system that relates sounds (or hand and body gestures) with meanings. When you know a language you know this system.

## FORMATIVE TEST 1

**Problem 1**

Decide whether these statements in column A are T (true) or F (false). Then write down your answer (T or F) in column B.

| No. | A | B |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Syntax describes the ways that words fit together to form sentences or utterances. | T / F |
| 2. | At present linguists find the term 'grammar' is equated with not only Morphology but also Syntax. | T / F |
| 3. | An analysis of a sentence based on the functions of the component to identify the major components and the immediate relationship of each component is Immediate Constituent Analysis. | T / F |
| 4. | Language is a tool used by people only for communication. | T / F |
| 5. | Constituent Analysis is an analysis of morphological units in a phrase structure tree. | T / F |
| 6. | The past participle of the lexeme is called grammatical word. | T / F |

| No. | A | B |
|---|---|---|
| 7. | Language partly means and a formal symbolic system. | T / F |
| 8. | Morphological structure is the structure which consists of the elements to form words. | T / F |
| 9. | A sentence is the largest unit to which syntactic rules apply. | T / F |
| 10. | The phonological unit which is a realization of the form is called the lexeme. | T / F |
| 11. | Morphs are segments of the phonological unit. | T / F |
| 12. | Word forms are not able to be analyzed into segments. | T / F |
| 13. | Words that we find in the dictionary is the lexeme. | T / F |
| 14. | Semantics focuses on grammar which describes the way in which words are arranged and how words put together. | T / F |
| 15. | Word analysis is to analyse group together units within the sentence. | T / F |

Compare your answers to those in the answer keys. Then, count the right answers. In order to get the score, do your calculation using the formulation below. The score will reflect your comprehending the material explained in this unit.

$$\text{Comprehension rates} = \frac{\text{the total number of right answer}}{\text{the total number of problem}} \times 100\%$$

Grading: 90 - 100% = excellent
80 - 89% = good
70 - 79% = fair
< 70% = weak

UNIT 2

# Words and Word-Structure

Before we talk about morpheme in Unit 3, let's have a brief introduction about words and word-structure in this unit. Subconsciously we know that illiterate speakers realize that there are words in their language however the assumption that languages contain words is taken for granted by most people, even though every speaker of every language knows tens of thousands of words. *Webster's Third International Dictionary of the English Language* has over 450,000 entries. Most speakers don't know all these words.

Words are an important part of linguistic knowledge and constitute a component of our mental grammars. But one can learn thousands of words in a language and still do not know the language. Anyone who has tried to be understood in a foreign country by merely using a dictionary knows this is true. On the other hand, without words we would be unable to convey our thoughts through language. Thus, what is a word? What do you know when you know a word? Suppose you hear someone say ***morpheme*** and don't have the slightest idea what it means, and you don't know what the "smallest unit of linguistic meaning" is called. Then you don't know the word ***morpheme***. A particular string of sounds must be united with a meaning, and a meaning must be united with specific sounds in order for the sounds or the meaning to be a word in our mental dictionaries. Once you learn both the sounds and their related meaning, you know the word. It becomes an entry in your mental **lexicon** (the Greek word for *dictionary*), part of your linguistic knowledge. This shows that in a particular language, the form (sounds or pronunciation) and the meaning of a word are like two sides of a coin.

Similarly, in English, the sounds of the letters *bear* and *bare* represent four homonyms (also called homophones), different words with the same sounds, as shown in the sentences: Sometimes there are differences of opinion as to what units are to be treated as words. For instance, English speakers might not agree whether "all right" is one word or two and as a result disputes may arise as to whether "all right" is the correct way of writing all right. But, by and large, people can easily recognize a word of their language when they see or hear one. And normally their judgments as to what is or is not a word do coincide. English speakers agree, for example, that the form "cantik" in the sentence "Cat cantik sat on the mat" is not an English word – but all the other forms are.

She can't bear (tolerate) children.
She can't bear (give birth to) children.
Bruin bear is the mascot of UCLA.
He stood there – bare and beautiful.

Sometimes we think we know a word even though we don't know what it means. In an introductory linguistic class, most of the 400 students had heard the word *antidisestablishmentarianism* and believed it to be the longest word in the English language. Yet, many of these students were unsure of its meaning. According to how we have defined what it means to "know a word" – pairing a string of sounds with a particular meaning – such individuals do not really know this word.

Since each word is a sound-meaning unit, each word stored in our mental lexicon must be listed with its unique phonological representation, which determines its pronunciation, and with its meaning. For literate speakers, the spelling, or orthography, of most of the words we know is included. Each word in your mental lexicon includes other information as well, such as whether it is a noun, a pronoun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, a preposition, or a conjunction. That is, its grammatical category, or syntactic class, is specified. You may not consciously know that a form like *love* is listed as both a verb and a noun, but a speaker has such knowledge, as shown by the phrases *I love you* and *You are the love of my life*. If such information were not in the mental lexicon, we would not know how to form grammatical sentences, nor would we be able to distinguish grammatical from ungrammatical sentences. The classes of words, the syntactic categories – such as nouns, verb, adjectives, and so on – and the semantic properties of words, which represent their meanings, will be discussed later.

**1. The Lexeme**

However, closer examination of the 'word' reveals a somewhat more complex picture than I have explained above. What we mean by 'word' is not always clear. As we shall see in the next few paragraphs, difficulties in clarifying the nature of the word are largely due to the fact the term 'word' is used in a variety of senses which usually are not clearly distinguished. In taking the existence of words for granted, we tend to overlook the complexity of what it is we are taking for granted. What would you do if you were reading a book and you encountered the 'word' perplexity for the first time in this context?

"He looked at us in perplexity".

You would probably look up that unfamiliar word in a dictionary, not under "perplexity", but under "perplex". This is because you now that perplexity is not going to be listed in the dictionary. You also know, though nobody has told you, that the words "perplexed" and "perplexing" will also exist. Furthermore, you know that "perplexity", "perplexed" and "perplexing" are all in a sense different manifestations of the 'same' abstract vocabulary item. We shall refer to the 'word' in this sense of abstract vocabulary item.

Using the term lexeme, the forms "perplexity", "perplexed" and "perplexing" are different realizations (or representations or manifestations) of the lexeme PERPLEX (lexemes will be written in capital letters). They all share a core meaning although they are spelled and pronounced differently. Lexemes are the vocabulary items that are listed in the dictionary.

We should agree that:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| The physical word-forms | are realization of | the lexeme |
| See, sees, seeing, saw, seen | | SEE |
| Sleeps, sleeping, slept | | SLEEP |
| Catch, catches, catching, caught | | CATCH |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| The physical word-forms | are realizations of | the lexeme |
| Jump, jumps, jumped, jumping | | JUMP |
| Tall, taller, tallest | | TALL |
| Boy, boys | | BOY |
| Woman, women | | WOMAN |

## 2. Word-form

As we have just seen above, sometimes, when we use the term 'word' , it is not the abstract vocabulary item with a common core of meaning, the lexeme, that we want to refer to. Rather, we may use the term 'word' to refer to a particular physical realization of that lexeme in speech or writing, i.e. a particular word – form. Thus, we refer "to see, sees, seeing, saw and seen" as five different words. In this sense, three different occurrences of any one of these word-form "see" has three letters and the word-form "seeing" has six. And, if we were counting the number of words in a passage, we would gladly

count see, sees, seeing, saw and seen as five different word-forms but belonging to the same lexeme.

**Activity 1**
Which ones of the words in below belong to the lexeme?

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. see | 7. sleep | 13. boy | 19. jumped |
| 2. sleeps | 8. jump | 14. saw | 20. jumps |
| 3. boys | 9. taller | 15. tall | 21. sees |
| 4. seeing | 10. catch | 16. slept | 22. sleeping |
| 5. catches | 11. seen | 17. catching | 23. caught |
| 6. woman | 12. women | 18. tallest | 24. jumping |

### 3. The Grammatical Word

The 'word' can also be seen as a representation of a lexeme that is associated with certain morpho-syntactic properties (i.e. partly morphological and partly syntactic properties) such as noun, adjective, verb, tense, gender, number, etc. We shall use the term grammatical word to refer to the 'word' in this sense. We see above that the word "studied" comes from the word "study" or lexeme "STUDY". We form it into "studied" in the sentence below:

| "Wati studied for her exams last night" |
|---|

The sentence above shows morpho-syntactic process.

Attention should be paid to the word "help' in the two sentences below which should be regarded as representing *two* distinct grammatical words in the following:

1. Usually I help my mom at home.
2. Yesterday I helped my aunty in Bogor.

The same word-form "help", belonging to the verbal lexeme HELP, can represent *two* different grammatical words. In sentence (a), "HELP" represents the grammatical word "help"/verb, present, non 3rd person, i.e. the present tense, non-third person form of the verb "help". But in (b) it represents the grammatical word put/verb, past which realizes the past tense of "help".

Besides the two grammatical words realized by the word-form "help" which we have mentioned above, there is a third one which you can observe in Steve

needs “help” tomorrow. This grammatical word is “help” [noun, singular]. It belongs to a separate lexeme HELP, the noun. Obviously, HELP, the noun, is related in meaning to HELP, the verb. However, HELP, the noun, is a separate lexeme from HELP, the verb, because it belongs to a different word-class. The nature of grammatical word is important in the discussion of the relationship between words and sentences and the boundary be*tw*een morphology and syntax. These grammatical words are also known as Content Words.

**Activity 2**

Below are 20 words which are a representation of a lexeme. Those words are associated with certain morpho-syntactic properties such as noun, adjective, verb, tense, gender, number, etc. Fill in the column below to show the lexeme and grammatical words to refer to the italic words in the sentences provided. No 1 and 2 are given as an example.

| No. | Italized words in the sentences | Lexemes | Morpho-syntetic process |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | He kept the *fast* for week. | FAST | To form noun |
| 2. | Mohammedans *fast* in the month of Ramadan. | FAST | No process (verb) |
| 3. | He *is* the right man in the right place. | | |
| 4. | God defends the *right*! | | |
| 5. | Don’t boast too *muc*h. | | |
| 6. | It is *hard* to understand. | | |
| 7. | Men who work *hard* enjoy life fully. | | |
| 8. | He *spoke* in a loud voice. | | |
| 9. | Do not *speak* so loud | | |
| 10. | He is as *deaf* as a post | | |
| 11. | He has *got* the same result as before. | | |
| 12. | As he *was* ambitious, I slew him. | | |

| No. | Italized words in the sentences | Lexemes | Morpho-syntetic process |
|---|---|---|---|
| 13. | Men fear death as children to go in the dark. | | |
| 14. | There is no such *flatterer* as a man's self. | | |
| 15. | He *did* his best. | | |
| 16. | I like this *best*. | | |
| 17. | What was *that* noise? | | |
| 18. | He died that he *might* save his country. | | |
| 19. | What is the man that does not love *his* country? | | |
| 20. | Give *him* what you can. | | |
| 21. | What nonsense is *this*! | | |
| 22. | What *does* it profit? | | |

**4. Introduction to Content Words and Function Words**

After you learn about grammatical words, to understand English texts better, you have to learn more about words. They belong to content words and function words. Words like **the, a, it, they** and **but** are found in almost every text, whereas words like **apple, water** and **spoon**, even though they seem very common, will only be found in some texts. The other classes of words that do not have clear lexical meaning or obvious concepts associated with them, including conjunctions such as *and, or* and *but;* prepositions such as *in* and *of;* the articles *the, a/an,* and pronouns such as *it* and *he* are called function words. These kinds of words are called function words because they have a grammatical function. For example, the articles indicate whether a noun is definite or indefinite – *the* boy or *a* boy. The preposition *of* indicates possession as in "the book of yours," but this word indicates many other kinds of relations too. So a useful way of looking at the words of languages like English is to divide them into **function words** (like **the**) and **content words** (like **apple**). It means that besides **content words** we also have **function words**. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are the content words. These words denote concepts such as objects, actions, attributes, and ideas that we can think about.

**Content words** are sometimes called the **open class** words because we can regularly add new words to these classes. A new word like email, download, face book, byte entered English with the internet revolution. **Content words** are further classified into **Nouns**, **Verbs**, **Adjectives** and **Adverbs**. There are tens of thousands of them in a language and so they make up most of the words in a dictionary. Proper nouns (names of people and places) are not usually a problem for understanding, but are also **Content Words**.

The difference between content and function words is treated by the brain differently as illustrated by the following test that circulated recently over the internet:

Please count the number of F's in the following text:

FINISHED FILES ARE THE
RESULT OF YEARS OF SCIENTIFIC
STUDY COMBINED WITH THE
EXPERIENCE OF YEARS.

If you are like most people, your answer will be 3. That answer is wrong. The correct answer is 6. Count again. This time pay attention to the function word OF.

Indeed, there is a great deal of psychological and neurological evidence to support this claim. For example, the effect that we just illustrated with the OF test is much more pronounced in brain-damaged people. As discussed above, brain sometimes are unable to read function words like *in* or *which* but can read the lexical content words *inn* and *witch*. Other patients do just the opposite. Also evidence for this distinction from language acquisition shows that in the early stages of development children often omit function words from their speech, for example, "doggie barking." These two classes of words have different functions in language. Content words have semantic content (meaning). Function words play a grammatical role; they connect the content words to the larger grammatical context in ways that will be discussed later.

Here follows a list of the type of words included in either content words or function words.

| **Content Words** | **examples** |
|---|---|
| Nouns | *John, room, answer, Selby* |
| Adjectives | *happy, new, large, grey* |
| Full verbs | *search, grow, hold, have* |
| Adverbs | *really, completely, very, also, enough* |
| Numerals | *one, thousand, first* |
| Interjections | *eh, ugh, phew, well* |
| Yes/No answers | *yes, no* (as answers) |

| **Function Words** | **examples** |
|---|---|
| Prepositions | *of, at, in, without, between* |
| Pronouns | *he, they, anybody, it, one* |
| Determiners | *the, a, that, my, more, much, either, neither* |
| Conjunctions | *and, that, when, while, although, or* |
| Modal verbs | *can, must, will, should, ought, need, used* |
| Auxilliary verbs | *be (is, am, are), have, got, do* |
| Particles | *no, not, nor, as* |
| Interjections | sometimes called "filled pauses", are uninflected |
| Expletives | set up sentences, and other functions, *It is, There are*, etc. |

Sometimes it is not easy to differentiate content or function words as the same lexical word can function as either *content* or *function* word depending on its function in an utterance.

*Example 1*

"I ***have*** come to see you" "have" is a function word (auxiliary verb)
"I ***have*** three apples" "have" is a content word (full verb)

*Example 2*

"***One*** has one's principles" "one" is a function word (pronoun)
"I have ***one*** apple" "one" is a content word (numeral)

*Example 3*

"I have ***no*** more money" "no" is a function word (a negative particle)
"***No***. I am not coming" "no" is a content word (Yes/No answer)

**Activity 3**
We see that what is interesting about function words and content words is that each group makes up almost exactly 50% of any text. Try counting the words in the *Phantom of the Opera* texts below. Read the text below then decide which ones are content words and which are function ones.

> The Phantom of the Opera, a novel which Gaston Leroux published in 1900, draws us into an extraordinary adventure which keeps us in suspense from the first to the last line.

**Activity 4**
Read the text below, break down into words then decide which ones are content words and which are function ones.

> The sixty-four-year-old widow laughed and said, “I might have been. Even a sensible woman might have been. It’s most flattering to be attended by an attractive young man.
>
> Taken book *Mexico* by James A. Michener

**Activity 5**
Read the text below, break down into words then decide which ones are content words and which are function ones.

I decided to let this comment stand by itself, for with my record I was certainly no one to comment on marriage, but Mrs. Evans followed up by observing, "In ten years – think of it, only five hundred weeks – I will probably be dead and this cathedral will still be here and this plaza and the ghosts of the Spanish soldiers who stood on those ramparts to fire at the Indians.

Taken form book Mexico by James A. Michener

*Key to Activities*

**Activity 1**

1. SEE
6. WOMAN
7. SLEEP
8. JUMP
10. CATCH
13. BOY
14. TALL

**Activity 2**

| No. | Italized words in the sentences | Lexemes | Morpho-syntetic process |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | He kept the *fast* for week. | FAST | To form noun |
| 2. | Mohammedans *fast* in the month of Ramadan. | FAST | No process (verb) |
| 3. | He *is* the right man in the right place. | BE | 3rd person singular |
| 4. | God defends the *right*! | RIGHT | To form noun |
| 5. | Don't boast too *much*. | MUCH | No process (adverb) |
| 6. | It is *hard* to understand. | HARD | No process |

| No. | Italized words in the sentences | Lexemes | Morpho-syntetic process |
|---|---|---|---|
| 7. | Men who work *hard* enjoy life fully. | HARD | To form adverb |
| 8. | He *spoke* in a loud voice. | SPEAK | To form past tense |
| 9. | Do not *speak* so loud | SPEAK | No process |
| 10. | He is as *deaf* as a post | DEAF | No process |
| 11. | He has got the same result as before. | GET | To form past participle |
| 12. | As he *was* ambitious, I slew him. | BE | To form 3rd singular and past tense |
| 13. | Men fear death as children to go in the dark. | | |
| 14. | There is no such *flatterer* as a man's self. | FLATTER | To form noun |
| 15. | He *did* his best. | DO | To form past tense |
| 16. | I like this *best*. | GOOD | To form superlative of adverb |
| 17. | What was *that* noise? | THAT | To form adjective |
| 18. | He died that he *might* save his country. | MAY | To form past tense |
| 19. | What is the man that does not love *his* country? | HE | To form possessive pronoun |
| 20. | Give *him* what you can. | HE | To form objective pronoun |
| 21. | What nonsense is *this*! | THIS | No process |
| 22. | What *does* it profit? | DO | To form 3rd person singular |

**Activity 3**

| Function Word | Content Word |
|---|---|
| The<br>of | Phantom<br>Opera |

| Function Word | Content Word |
|---|---|
| the | novel |
| a | Gaston Leroux |
| which | published |
| in | 1900 |
| into | draws |
| an | us |
| us | extraordinary |
| in | adventure |
| from | keeps |
| the | suspense |
| first | last |
| to | time |
| the | |

**Activity 4**

| Function Word | Content Word |
|---|---|
| The | sixty-four |
| and | year- |
| said | old |
| I | widow |
| might | laughed |
| *have* | *been* |
| *even* | sensible |
| *a* | woman |
| might | been |
| have | most |
| it | flattering |
| is | attended |
| most | attractive |
| to be | young |
| by | man |
| an | |

**Activity 5**

| Function Word | Content Word |
|---|---|
| I | decided |
| by itself, | to |
| for | let |
| with | this |
| my | comment |
| I | stand |
| no | record |
| on | was |
| but | certainly |
| by | one |
| In | to |
| it | comment |
| only | marriage, |
| will | Mrs. Evans |
| be | followed up |
| and | observing, |
| this | ten years |
| will | think of |
| still | five |
| be | hundred |
| and | weeks |
| this | probably |
| and the | dead |
| of the | cathedral |
| who | still |
| on | here |
| those | plaza |
| to fire | ghosts |
| at the | Spanish |
| | soldiers |
| | stood |
| | ramparts |
| | to fire |
| | Indians |

## SUMMARY

The units opened with a discussion of the nature of the word. We distinguished between lexemes, word-forms and grammatical words. Lexemes are abstract dictionary words like the verb SING. A lexeme is realized by one or more word-forms. Word-forms are concrete words that occur in speech and writing e.g. *sing, sings, sang* and *sung*. We also saw that the word can be viewed as a lexeme associated with a set of morpho-syntactic properties, e.g. *sing* {*verb, present, 3rd person, singular*}. In this case we are looking at a grammatical word.

We shall use the term grammatical word to refer to 'words' can also be seen as a representation of a lexeme which is associated with certain morpho-syntactic properties (i.e. partly morphological and partly syntactic properties) such as noun, adjective, verb, tense, gender, number, etc. We see above that the word "wanted" comes from the word "want" or lexeme "WANT". Pay attention to the sentence below

"Ellis wanted to study for her exams last night".

The nature of grammatical word is important in the discussion of the relationship between words and sentences and the boundary be*tw*een morphology and syntax. These grammatical words are also known as Content Words. The other classes of words that do not have clear lexical meaning or obvious concepts associated with them, including conjunctions such as *and, or* and *but;* prepositions such as *in* and *of;* the articles *the, a/an,* and pronouns such as *it* and *he* are called function words. These kinds of words are called **function words** because they have a grammatical function. So a useful way of looking at the words of languages like English is to divide them into **function words** (like **the**) and **content words** (like **apple**). It means that besides **content words** we also have **function words**. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are the **content words** or **open class** words. These words denote concepts such as objects, actions, attributes, and ideas that we can think about. **Content words** are classified into **Nouns**, **Verbs**, **Adjectives** and **Adverbs**. There are tens of thousands of them in a language and so they make up most of the words in a dictionary. Proper nouns (names of people and places) are not usually a problem for understanding, but are also **Content Words**.

## FORMATIVE TEST 2

**Problem 1**

Below are 20 words which are a representation of a lexeme. Those words are associated with certain morpho-syntactic properties such as noun, adjective, verb, tense, gender, number, etc. Fill in the column below to show the lexeme and grammatical words to refer to the italic words in the sentences provided. No 1 and 2 are given as an example.

| No. | Italized words in the sentences | Lexemes | Morpho-syntetic process |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | A nod from a lord is breakfast for a fool. | NOD | To form noun |
| 2. | A good paymaster never wants workmen. | WANTS | 3rd person singular, present tense |
| 3. | Home they brought her warrior dead. | | |
| 4. | Sickness made the child irritable. | | |
| 5. | Gentle Evangeline was the pride of the village. | | |
| 6. | It is easy to find fault. | | |
| 7. | It is a miserable thing to live in suspense. | | |
| 8. | Wounds made by words are hard to heal. | | |
| 9. | Down went the Royal George. | | |
| 10. | Into the valley of death rode the six hundred. | | |
| 11. | Time makes the worst enemies friends. | | |
| 12. | Great is your reward in Heaven. | | |

**Problem 2**

Read the text below, break down into words then decide which ones are content words and which are function ones.

> Wood-burning stoves are helping many Americans beat the huge inflation of oil prices. Wood is still readily available in some parts of the United States. Many states set off their state forests where residents can cut designated trees at no charge. The technology of wood stoves has improved so that they are very safe.

Compare your answers to those in the answer keys. Then, count the right answers. In order to get the score, do your calculation using the formulation below. The score will reflect your comprehending the material explained in this unit.

$$\text{Comprehension rates} = \frac{\text{the total number of right answer}}{\text{the total number of problem}} \times 100\%$$

Grading: 90 - 100% = excellent
80 - 89% = good
70 - 79% = fair
< 70% = weak

UNIT 3

# Morphemes

## 1. Morphemes, Morphs, and Allomorphs

If we assume that the most basic unit of meaning is the word, what do we say about parts of words like *un-*, which has a fixed meaning? In all the words in the column A, *un-* means the same thing – "not."

Column A

| |
|---|
| Un – desirable |
| Un – likely |
| Un – inspired |
| Un – believable |
| Un – countable |

*Undesirable* means "not desirable," "*unlikely*" means "not likely," and so on. All the words in column A consists of at least two meaningful units: "*un + desirable, un + likely, un + inspired*", and so on.

Words have internal structure, which is rule-governed. "*Uneaten*", "*undamaged*", and "*ungrammatical*" are words in English. The study of the internal structure of words, and of the rules by which words as formed, is called **morphology**. Like most linguistic knowledge, this is generally unconscious knowledge.

A single word may be composed of one or more morphemes:

| | |
|---|---|
| one morpheme | Boy |
| | Desire |
| two morphemes | boy + ish |
| | desire + able |
| three morphemes | boy + ish + ness |
| | desire + able + ity |
| four morphemes | gentle + man + li + ness |
| | un + desire + able + ity |

| | |
|---|---|
| more than four | un + desire + man + li + ness |
| | anti + dis + establish + ment + ari + an + ism[2] |

A morpheme may be represented by a single sound, such as the morpheme *"a"* meaning "without" as in *"amoral"* or *"asexual"*, or by a single syllable, such as *child* and *ish* in *child + ish*. A morpheme may also consist of more than one syllable: by two syllables, as in *camel, lady,* and *water;* or by three syllables, as in *Hackensack* or *crocodile;* or by four or more syllables, as in *hallucinate.* The claim that words have structure might come as a surprise because normally speakers think of words as indivisible units of meaning. This is probably due to the fact that many words are morphologically simple. For example, the, fierce, desk, eat, boot, at, fee, mosquito, etc. cannot be divided up into smaller units that are themselves meaningful. It is impossible to say "-quito" is part of mosquito or -erce is part of "fierce". But very many English words are morphologically complex. They can be broken down into smaller units that are meaningful called morphemes which is the smallest units of meaning. This is true of words like desk-s and boot-s, for instance, where desk refers to one piece of furniture and boot refers to one item of foo*tw*ear, while in both cases the –s serves the grammatical function of indicating plurality.

In short, the term **morpheme** is used to refer to the smallest, indivisible units of semantic content or grammatical function which words are made up of. A morpheme – the minimal linguistic unit – is thus an arbitrary union of a sound and a meaning that cannot be further analyzed. This may be too simple a definition, but it will serve our purposes for now. Every word in every language is composed of one or more morphemes. By definition, a morpheme cannot be decomposed into smaller units which are either meaningful by themselves or mark a grammatical function like singular or plural number in the noun. The decomposition of words into morphemes illustrates one of the fundamental properties of human language – discreteness. In all languages, discrete linguistic units combine in rule-governed ways to form larger units. Sound units combine to form morphemes, morphemes combine to form words, and words combine to form larger units – phrases and sentences. However, how do we know when to recognize a single sound or a group of sounds as representing a morpheme? Whether a particular sound or string of sounds is to be regarded as a manifestation of a morpheme depends on the word in which it appears. So, while un- represents a negative morpheme and has a meaning that can roughly be glossed as 'not' in words such as un-just and un-tidy, it has no claim to

morpheme status when it occurs in “uncle” or in “under”, since in these latter words it does not have any identifiable grammatical or semantic value, because –cle and –der on their own do not mean anything. (Morphemes will be separated with a hyphen in the examples).

You can also say that morphemes can be compared to pieces of lego that can be used again as building blocks to form different words. Recurrent part of words that have the same meaning are isolated and recognized as manifestations of the same morpheme. Thus, the negative morpheme un-occurs in an indefinitely large number of words, besides those listed above. We find it in unwell, unsafe, unclean, unhappy, unfit, uneven, etc.

**2. Rule Productivity**

Some morphological rules are **productive,** meaning that they can be used freely to form new words from the list of free and bound morphemes. The suffix *–able* appears to be a morpheme that 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” as in *accept + able, blam (e) + able, pass + able, change + able, breath + able, adapt + able,* and so on. The meaning of *–able* has also been given as “fit for doing” or “fit for being done.” The productivity of this rule is illustrated by the fact that we find *–able* affixed to new verbs such as *downloadable* and *faxable.*

We have already noted that there is a morpheme in English meaning “not” that has the form *un-* and that the prefix *un-* can be added to derived adjectives that have formed by morphological rules:

un + believe + able
un + accept + able
un + speak + able
un + lock + able

We can also add *un-* to morphologically complex verbs that consist of a verb plus a particle plus *–able* such as:

pick + up + able
turn + around + able
chop + off + able
talk + about + able

*Un-* prefixation derives the following words:

un + pick + up + able,
un + chop + off + able,
un + talk + about + able,

Yet, *un-* is not fully productive. We find *happy* and *unhappy, cowardly* and *uncowardly*, but not *sad* and **unsad, brave* and **unbrave,* or *obvious* and *unobvious.* The starred forms that that follow may be merely accidental gaps in the lexicon. If someone refers to a person as being **unsad* we would know that the person referred to was "not sad," and an **unbrave* person would not be brave. But, as the linguist Sandra Thompson points out, it may be the case that the "un-Rule" is most productive for adjectives that are themselves derived from verbs, such as *unenlightened, unsimplified, uncharacterized, unauthorized, undistinguished,* and so on.

Morphological rules may be more or less productive. The rule that adds an *–er* to verbs in English to produce a noun meaning "one who performs an action (once or habitually)" appears to be a very productive morphological rule. Most English verbs accept this suffix: *examiner, exam-taker, analyzer, lover, hunter, predictor,* and so forth (*-or* and *–er* have the same pronunciation and are the same morpheme even though they are spelled differently). Now consider the following:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *sincerity* | from | *sincere* |
| *warmth* | from | *warm* |
| *moisten* | from | *moist* |

The suffix *–ity* is found in many other words in English, like *chastity, scarcity,* and *curiosity:* and *–th* occurs in *health, wealth, depth, width,* and *growth.* We find *–en* in *sadden, ripen, redden, weaken,* and *deepen*. Our knowledge of the related pairs, however, may permit us to use these examples in forming new words, by analogy with the existing lexical items. Other derivational morphemes in English are not very productive, such as the suffixes meaning "diminutive," as in the words *pig + let +* and *sap + ling.*

In the morphologically complex words that we have seen so far, we can easily predict the meaning based on the meaning of the morphemes that make up the word. *Unhappy* means "not happy" and *acceptable* means "fit to be accepted." However, one cannot always know the meaning of the words derived

from free and derivational morphemes by knowing the meaning themselves. The following *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" |
| Unnerve | "fluster" |

Morphologically complex words whose meanings are not predictable must be listed individually in our mental lexicons. However, the morphological rules must also be in the grammar, revealing the relation between words and providing the means for forming new words.

**Activity 1**

List two other words which contain each morpheme represented below.

a. -er as in play-er, call-er
   -ness as in kind-ness, good-ness
   -ette as in kitchen-ette, cigar-ette
b. ex- as in ex-wife, ex-minister
   pre- as in pre-war, pre-school
   mis- as-in mis-kick, mis-judge

a. Write down the meaning of each morpheme you identify, (If you are in doubt, consult a good etymological dictionary)
b. What is the syntactic category (noun, adjective, verb, etc.) of the form which this morpheme attaches to and what is the category of the resulting word?

### 3. More Complex Words

So far we have described words with just one or two morphemes. In fact, it is possible to combine several morphemes together to form more complex words. This can be seen in long words like:

Unfaithfulness: contain the morphemes un-faith-ful-ness
Reincarnation: contain the morphemes re-in-carn-at-ion.

## 4. The Identification of Morphemes

At one time, establishing mechanical procedures for the identification of morphemes was considered a realistic goal by structural linguist. Writing a grammar of a language entails constructing a theory of how that language work by making generalizations about its structure that go beyond the data observed. Although there are no effective mechanical procedures for discovering the grammatical structure of a language in general or the structure of its words, there exist reasonably reliable and widely accepted techniques that have been evolved by linguists working on morphology. These techniques are outlined below.

The main principle used in the analysis of words is the principle of contrast. We contrast forms that differ in:

a. Phonological shape due to the sound used
This, the phonological difference between /boi/ and /g3:l/ correlates with a semantic difference in the sentences:

| |
|---|
| 1) The girl plays. |
| 2) The boy plays. |

The difference in meaning is attributable to the difference in lexical meaning between “Boy” and “Girl”.

b. Meaning, broadly defined to cover both lexical meaning and grammatical function. For example the sentences:

| |
|---|
| 1) The girl plays. |
| 2) The boy played. |

The difference in grammatical function between play-s (present tense) and play-ed (past tense) is responsible for the difference in meaning.

Thus, the morpheme is the smallest difference in the shape of a word that correlates with the smallest difference in word or sentence meaning or in grammatical structure. The analysis of words into morphemes begins with the isolation of morphs.

## 5. Morphs

A morph is a physical form representing some morpheme in a language. It is a recurrent distinctive sound (phoneme) or sequence of sound (phonemes).

Study the sentences below and identify the morphs:

| | |
|---|---|
| a. I parked the car. | e. She parked the car. |
| b. We parked the car. | f. She parks the car. |
| c. I park the car. | g. We park the car. |
| d. He parks the car. | h. He parked the car. |

The morphs are:

| Morphs | Recurs in |
|---|---|
| /ai/'I' | [a] and [c] |
| /si:/'she' | [e] and [f] |
| /hi:/'he' | [d] and [h] |
| /də/'the' | in all the examples |
| /ka:/'car' | in all the examples |
| /pa:rk/'park' | park is found in all the examples, sometimes with an –ed suffix, sometimes with an –s suffix and sometimes on its own |
| /t/'-ed' | suffixed to park in [b, e, h] |
| /s/'-s' | suffixed to park in [d, f] |

## 6. Free and Bound Morphemes

There are two basic types of morphemes: unbound and **bound**.

a. Unbound or free-standing morphemes are individual elements that can stand alone within a sentence, such as:
(cat), (laugh), (look), and (box)
They are essentially what most of us call words. Free Morphemes are morphemes which can be used as a word on its own (without the need for further elements, i.e. affixes). Many roots are free morphemes, e.g., *ship-* in "shipment", while others are bound. The morpheme *ten-* in "tenant" may seem free, since there is an English word "ten". However, its lexical meaning is derived from the Latin word *tenere*, "to hold", and this or related meaning is not among the meanings of the English word "ten", hence *ten-* is a bound morpheme in the word "tenant". Thus a free morpheme is a

grammatical unit that can occur by itself. However, other morphemes such as affixes can be attached to it.

| Example: girl, system, desire, hope, act, phone, happy. |
|---|

b. Bound morphemes are meaning-bearing units of language, such as prefixes and suffixes, that are attached to unbound morphemes. They cannot stand alone. "Their attachment modifies the unbound morphemes in such things as number or syntactic category. For example:

| Adding the bound morpheme (s) to the unbound morpheme (cat) changes the noun's number the addition of the (ed) to (augh) changes tense.<br><br>Similarly, the addition of (er) to (run) changes the verb to a noun." |
|---|

Linguistics recognizes two classes of **bound morphemes**.

a. The first class is called *inflectional morphemes* and their influence on a base word is predictable. Inflectional morphemes modify the grammatical class of words by signalling a change in number, person, gender, tense, and so on, but they do not shift the base form into another word class. When 'house' becomes 'houses,' it is still a noun even though you have added the plural morphemes.
b. The second class of morphemes is derivational morphemes. They modify a word according to its lexical and grammatical class. They result in more profound changes on base words. The word 'style' is a noun, but if I make it 'stylish,' then it is an adjective. In English, derivational morphemes include suffixes (e.g., 'ish,' 'ous,' 'er,' 'y,' 'ate,' and 'able') and prefixes (e.g., 'un,' 'im,' 're,' and 'ex')."

**7. Unique Morphs**

A **cranberry morpheme** or **unique morpheme** is one with extremely limited distribution so that it occurs in only one word. A popular example is *cran-* in cranberry" (hence the term "cranberry morpheme"), although this example is something of a technicality given that it is an alteration or contraction of the free morpheme "crane". Unique morphs are morphs that only

occur in one fixed expression in the language under discussion. More frequently there are unique morphs which look like obligatorily bound morphs. Examples are *–ter* in *laughter, -ert* in *inert, luke in lukewarm* and *cran* in *cranberry.*

The status of unique morphs is determined by parallelism with other morphs which are not unique. The *–ter* in *laughter* is seen to be a suffix because of parallels with things like *arrival, marri-age, inject-ion* which also have a verb in first position, where the meanings are relatable, and where there are clearly repeated suffixes in parallel constructions. *Cran* is considered to be some kind of root because of parallel constructions. *Cran* is considered to be some kind of root because of parallels with *blackberry, blueberry, cloudberry, snowberry, waxberry* and the like. We must demand parallels of a general type before we analyze a unique morph in order to avoid analysing a unique morph *h-* in *hear*.

The meaning associated with a unique morph is determined by subtracting the meanings associated with the known morphs in the construction form the meaning of the construction as a whole. So the meaning associated with *cran* is precisely what makes cranberries a subset of all berries.

**Activity 2**

Count the number of morphemes in each word. Underline the bound morphemes.

Example: *unpresentable* -- 3 morphemes; *un-* and *–able* are bound morphemes.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. alligator | 6. bargain | 11. corner | 16. smarten |
| 2. calmly | 7. regrouping | 12. prepay | 17. ladylike |
| 3. running | 8. undeniable | 13. tighten | 18. suddenly |
| 4. blindness | 9. assertion | 14. staying | 19. purposeful |
| 5. stapler | 10. certainly | 15. dislocation | 20. dislocate |

**Activity 3**

Break down the words below into units to identify the morphemes:

1. milder
2. bicycle
3. environmentally
4. unidirectional
5. contemplation
6. lovelier

7. laughable
8. condemnation
9. linguistics
10. unidentified

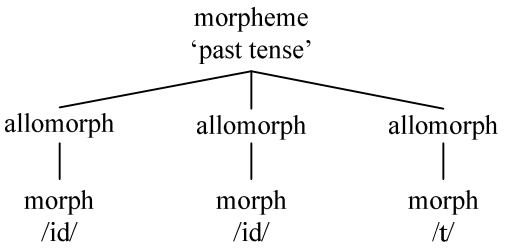
**8. Allomorphs**

In the light of this discussion, let us return to the earlier example of the allomorphs of the English regular past tense morpheme below:

a. /id/ if the verb ends in/d or /t/
   e.g./mend/ ~ /mendid/ /peint/ ~ /peinted/
   'mend' 'mended' 'paint' 'painted'
b. /d/ after a verb ending in any voiced sound except/d/
   e.g./kli:n/ ~ /kli:nd/ /wet/ ~ /weid/
   'clean' ~ 'cleaned' 'weigh' 'weighed'
c. /t/ after a verb ending in any voiceless consonant other than /t/
   e.g./pa:k/ ~ /pa:kt/ /mis/ ~ /mist/
   'park' 'parked' 'miss' 'missed'

Clearly, the distribution of allomorphs is phonologically conditioned: /-id/is chosen after the alveolar, stops/it/and/d/(with/i/being inserted to separate the alveolar stop of the suffix from the final alveolar stop of the verb to which it is attached); voiced segments other than/d/and voiceless/-t/is chosen after voiceless consonants other than/t/. So far, all the examples of morphs that we have seen have involved only vowels and consonants.

The relationship between morphemes, allomorph and morphs can be represented using a diagram in the following way:



We can say that
a. /id/, /d/ and /t/ are English morphs and
b. we can group all these three morphs together as allomorphs of the past tense morpheme.

**Activity 4**
**Draw the diagram showing t**he relationship between morphemes, allomorph and morphs in those words below. See the example above.
1. Show allomorphs from the pronunciation of plurals in
   Cats, dishes, dogs.
2. Show allomorphs from the pronunciation of past form of the words below:
   Loved, wished, stated.
3. Show allomorphs from the prefix which means "not" in
   Not tolerable, not possible, not literate.

*Key to Activities*

**Activity 1**
Your answer is to confirm that, in each example in, the elements recognized as belonging to a given morpheme contribute an identifiable meaning to the word of which they are a part.

1. a. The form –er is attached to verbs to derive nouns with the general meaning someone who does 'an action' (whatever action the verb involves). Example: helper, worker.
   b. When –ness is added to an adjective, it produces a noun meaning 'having the state or condition (e.g. of being kind in kidness).
   c. The addition of the diminutive morpheme –ette to a noun derives a new noun which has the meaning 'smaller in size' (e.g., a kitchenette is a small kitchen and a cigarette is smaller than a cigar).

2. The morphemes ex- and pre- derive nouns from nouns while mis- derives verbs from verbs.
   a. We can gloss the morpheme ex-as 'former' e.g ex-husband.
   b. pre- as 'before' as in prewar
   c. mis- as 'badly' such as in misfortune.

**Activity 2**

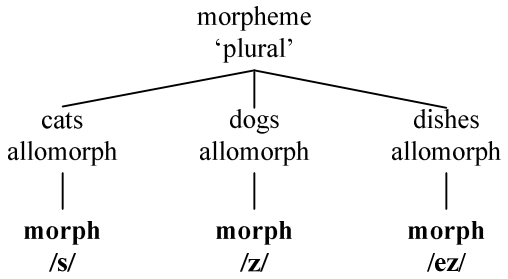
1. alligator: 1 morphemes
2. calmly: 2 morphemes
3. running: 2 morphemes
4. blindness: 2 morphemes
5. stapler: 2 morphemes
6. bargain: 1 morphemes
7. regrouping: 3 morphemes
8. undeniable: 3 morphemes
9. assertion: 2 morphemes
10. certainly: 2 morphemes
11. corner: 1 morphemes
12. prepay: 2 morphemes
13. tighten: 2 morphemes
14. staying: 2 morphemes
15. dislocation: 3 morphemes
16. smarten: 2 morphemes
17. ladylike: 2 morphemes
18. suddenly: 2 morphemes
19. purposeful: 2 morphemes
20. dislocate: 2 morphemes

**Activity 3**

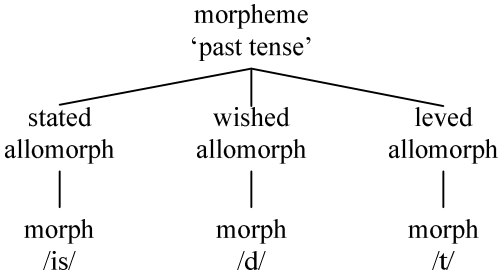
1. milder → mild + er (inflectional- comparative)
2. bicycle → bi (derivational) + cycle
3. environmentally → environ + ment (der.) + al (der.) + ly (der.)
4. unidirectional → uni (der.) + direct + ion (der.) + al (der.)
5. contemplation → contemplate + ion (der.)
6. lovelier → love + ly (der.) + er (inflectional)
7. laughable → laugh + able (der.)
8. condemnation → condemn + ation (der.)
9. linguistics → linguist + ic (der.) + s (inflectional)
10. unidentified → un (inflectional) + identify + ed (inflectional)

**Activity 4**

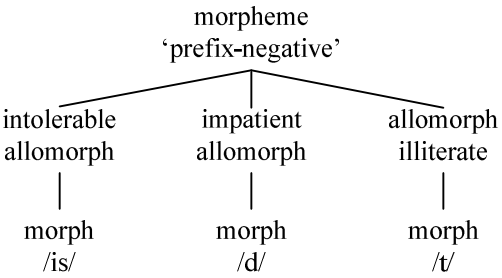
1.



2.




3.




## SUMMARY

A morpheme – the minimal linguistic unit – is an arbitrary union of a sound and a meaning that cannot be further analyzed. Every word in every language is composed of one or more morphemes. The decomposition of words into morphemes illustrates one of the fundamental properties of human language – discreteness. In all languages, discrete linguistic units combine in rule-governed ways to form larger units. Sound units combine to form morphemes, morphemes combine to form words, and words combine to form larger units – phrases and sentences. The analysis of words into morphemes begins with the contrasting of pairs of utterances which are partially different in sound and meaning.

Word-forms are segmented into morphs, which are recurrent physical word-forming chunks. Any morphs that represent the same meaning are grouped together as allomorphs of that morpheme. Meaning plays a role in this, but the main principle used is that of distribution. Morphs are listed as

allomorphs of the same morpheme if they are in complementary distribution, i.e. if they are realizations of the same morpheme in different contexts. (Sometimes a morpheme has a single allomorph).

Some morphological rules are **productive,** they can be used freely to form new words from the list of free and bound morphemes. The suffix –*able* appears to be a morpheme that 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" as in *accept + able.* There is also a morpheme in English meaning "not" that has the form *un-* and that the prefix *un-* can be added to derived adjectives that have formed by morphological rules.

There are two basic types of morphemes: **unbound** and **bound**.

1. Unbound or free-standing morphemes are individual elements that can stand alone within a sentence, such as: (cat), (laugh), (look), and (box)

   The morpheme *ten-* in "tenant" may seem free, since there is an English word "ten". However, its lexical meaning is derived from the Latin word *tenere*, "to hold", and this or related meaning is not among the meanings of the English word "ten", hence *ten-* is a bound morpheme in the word "tenant".
2. Bound morphemes are meaning-bearing units of language, such as prefixes and suffixes, that are attached to unbound morphemes. They cannot stand alone. "Their attachment modifies the unbound morphemes in such things as number or syntactic category. For example:

Adding the bound morpheme (s) to the unbound morpheme (cat) changes the noun's number the addition of the (ed) to (laugh) changes tense.

1. The central technique used in the identification of morphemes is based on the notion of distribution, i.e. the total set of contexts in which a particular linguistic form occurs. We classify a set of morphs as allomorphs of the same morpheme if they are in complementary distribution.
2. Morphs are said to be in complementary distribution if:
   a. they represent the same meaning or serve the same grammatical function
   b. they are never found in identical contexts, so, the three morphs /-id/, /-d/ and /-t/ which represent the English regular past tense morpheme are in complementary distribution
   c. they are allomorphs of the same morpheme.

Focusing on the pronunciation of the underlined part of each word, which represents the negative morpheme *in-*, this morpheme can roughly be glossed as 'not' in "immovable" [imuvəbl] and "indecent" [indi:sənt]. The labial consonant [m] occurs in [im] before a labial consonant, the alveolar consonant [n] in [in] occurs before alveolar consonant and the velar consonant [n] in [in] occurs before velar consonants. Im- and –in are called allomorph.

## FORMATIVE TEST 3

**Problem 1**
Study the following data and answer the questions that follow:

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Dis*like | *un*wind | *re*port | *dis*trust | *Un*cover | *re*cover |
| *Un*able | *re*write | *un*lock | land*less* | *Dis*united | *re*draw |
| *ex*-monk | *dis*allow | penni*less* | *un*happy | *Re*pel | *ex*-coach |

1. What is the meaning of the morphemes represented in writing by *ex-*,, *dis-*, *un-*, *re-*, and *–le*
2. Comment on cases of homophony where a single morph represents more than one morpheme.

**Problem 2**
Divide the following words by placing a + between their morphemes. (Some of the words may be mono morphemic and therefore indivisible.)

*Example:* replace re + place + s

1. retroactive
2. befriended
3. televise
4. endearment
5. unpalatable
6. holiday
7. grandmother
8. mistreatment

9. deactivation
10. airsickness

**Problem 3**

Find the bound morpheme in the words in the first coloumn

| No. | Words | Bound Morpheme |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Apple | |
| 2. | Shortened | |
| 3. | Impatient | |
| 4. | Helpers | |
| 5. | Unhappy | |
| 6. | Moral | |
| 7. | Soften | |
| 8. | Reviewer | |
| 9. | Cat | |
| 10. | Mislead | |

**Problem 4**

Match each expression under A with the one statement under B that characterizes it.

| **A** | | **B** | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | noisy crow | 1. | compound noun |
| 2. | scarecrow | 2. | root morpheme plus derivational prefix |
| 3. | the crow | 3. | phrase consisting of adjective plus noun |
| 4. | crow like | 4. | root morpheme plus inflectional affix |
| 5. | crows | 5. | root morpheme plus derivational suffix |
| | | 6. | grammatical morpheme followed by lexical morpheme |

Compare your answers to those in the answer keys. Then, count the right answers. In order to get the score, do your calculation using the formulation below. The score will reflect your comprehending the material explained in this unit.

$$\text{Comprehension rates} = \frac{\text{the total number of right answer}}{\text{the total number of problem}} \times 100\%$$

Grading: 90 - 100% = excellent
80 - 89% = good
70 - 79% = fair
< 70% = weak

# Key to Formative Tests

*Formative Test 1*

**Problem 1**

| No. | A | B |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Syntax describes the ways that words fit together to form sentences or utterances. | T |
| 2. | At present linguists find the term 'grammar' is equated with not only Morphology but also Syntax. | T |
| 3. | An analysis of a sentence based on the functions of the component to identify the major components and the immediate relationship of each component is Immediate Constituent Analysis. | F |
| 4. | Language is a tool used by people only for communication. | F |
| 5. | Constituent Analysis is an a analysis of morphological units in a phrase structure tree. | F |
| 6. | The past participle of the lexeme is called grammatical word. | T |
| 7. | Language partly means and a formal symbolic system. | T |
| 8. | Morphological structure is the structure which consists of the elements to form words. | T |
| 9. | A sentence is the largest unit to which syntactic rules apply. | T |
| 10. | The phonological unit which is a realization of the form is called the lexeme. | T |
| 11. | Morphs are segments of the phonological unit. | T |
| 12. | Word forms are not able to be analyzed into segments. | F |
| 13. | Words that we find in the dictionary is the lexeme. | T |
| 14. | Semantics focuses on grammar which describes the way in which words are arranged and how words put together. | F |
| 15. | Word analysis is to analyse group together units within the sentence. | F |

*Formative Test 2*

**Problem 1**

| No. | Italized words in the sentences | Lexemes | Morpho-syntetic process |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | A *nod* from a lord is breakfast for a fool. | NOD | To form noun |
| 2. | A good paymaster never *wants* workmen. | WANT | 3rd person singular, present tense |
| 3. | Home they *brought* her warrior dead. | BRING | Past tense |
| 4. | *Sickness* made the child irritable. | SICK | To form noun |
| 5. | Gentle Evangeline *was* the pride of the village. | BE | 3rd person singular, past tense |
| 6. | It *is* easy to find fault. | BE | 3rd singular, present tense |
| 7. | Wounds *made* by words are hard to heal. | MAKE | Past participle for passive |
| 8. | Down *went* the Royal George. | GO | Past tense |
| 9. | Time *makes* the worst enemies friends. | MAKE | 3rd person singular, presnt tense |
| 10. | Great is *your* reward in Heaven. | YOU | Possesive pronoun |
| 11. | In him India *lost* a true patriot. | LOSE | Past tense |
| 12. | The *proof* of the pudding is in the eating. | PROVE | To form noun |

**Problem 2**

| Function Word | Content Word |
|---|---|
| Wood-burning | are |
| stoves | helping |
| helping | Americans |
| many | beat |
| beat | huge |
| the | inflation |

| Function Word | Content Word |
|---|---|
| of | oil |
| Wood | prices |
| is | Wood |
| in | still |
| some | readily |
| the | available |
| of | in |
| Many | some |
| their | parts |
| state | United States |
| where | states |
| can | set off |
| at no charge | state |
| The technology | forests |
| wood | residents |
| stoves | cut |
| has | designated |
| at | trees |
| no | charge |
| the | technology |
| of | wood |
| has | stoves |
| so | improved |
| that | very |
| they | safe |
| are | |

*Formative Test 3*

**Problem 1**

1. *ex-*, former
   *dis-*, negative form
   *un-*, negative form
   *re-*, do it one more time
   *–less* no, without

2. *dis-, and un- rpresent the* negative form. We call them allomorph.

**Problem 2**

1. retro + active
2. be+friend+ed
3. tele+vise
4. endear + ment
5. un + palate +able
6. holi + day
7. grand + mother
8. mis +treat + ment
9. de +active +ation
10. air+ sick+ ness

**Problem 3**

| No. | Words | Bound Morpheme |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Apple | |
| 2. | Shortened | -en -ed |
| 3. | Impatient | -im |
| 4. | Helpers | -er –s |
| 5. | Unhappy | Un- |
| 6. | Moral | -a |
| 7. | Soften | -en |
| 8. | Reviewer | -er |
| 9. | Cat | |
| 10. | Mislead | mis- |

**Problem 4**

1. noisy crow → 3
2. scarecrow → 2
3. the crow → 6
4. crow like → 5
5. crows → 4

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