

S4 Introduction to Linguistics

Prof. A. Fassi Fihri

1. What is language? (done in class)
 - 1.1. Characteristics of language
 - 1.2. Functions of language
 - 1.3. Spoken/written language
2. What is Linguistics? (done in class)
 - 2.1. The scope of Linguistics /Levels of analysis
 - 2.2. Branches of Linguistics
3. Phonetics (done in class)
 - 3.1. Articulatory phonetics (done in class)
 - 3.2. The international Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) (done in class)
 - 3.3. Organs of speech (done in class)
 - 3.4. Description of speech sounds
 - Consonants: Place/ manner of articulation
 - Vowels/ Diphthongs/ Triphthongs

Handouts: Phonetics I & II

4. Phonology
 - 4.1. Phonemes/allophones: Characteristics
 - 4.2. Phonological rules and processes
5. Morphology
 - 5.1. Morphemes/ Allomorphs: Characteristics
 - 5.2. Derivational and inflectional morphology
 - 5.3. Morphological rules
 - 5.4. Word formation processes
 - Derivation: unmarked derivation/ partial conversion/ affixation/suffixation
 - Compounding

- Backformation
- Blending
- Abbreviations
- Acronyms
- Proper names
- Change of meaning
- Borrowing

- Handouts: **Morphology I, II, III & IV**

Mohamed Ben Abdellah University

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English Department

Introduction. to
Language Studies - S3-
Mr. Fassi Fihri

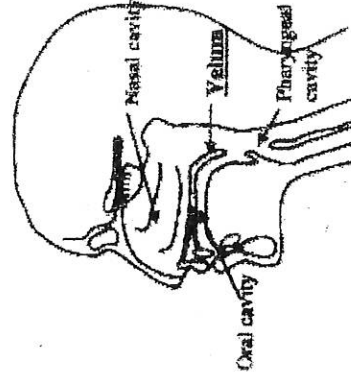
PHONETICS:

Organs of speech:

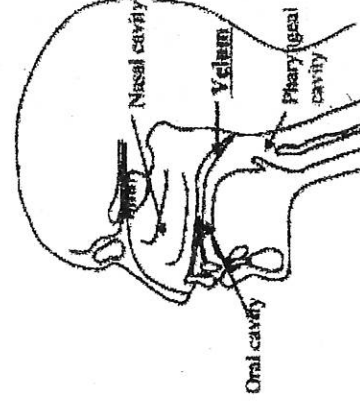


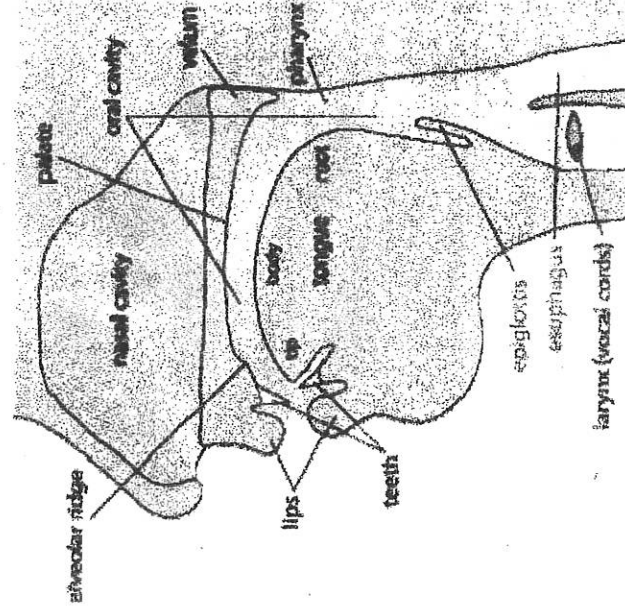
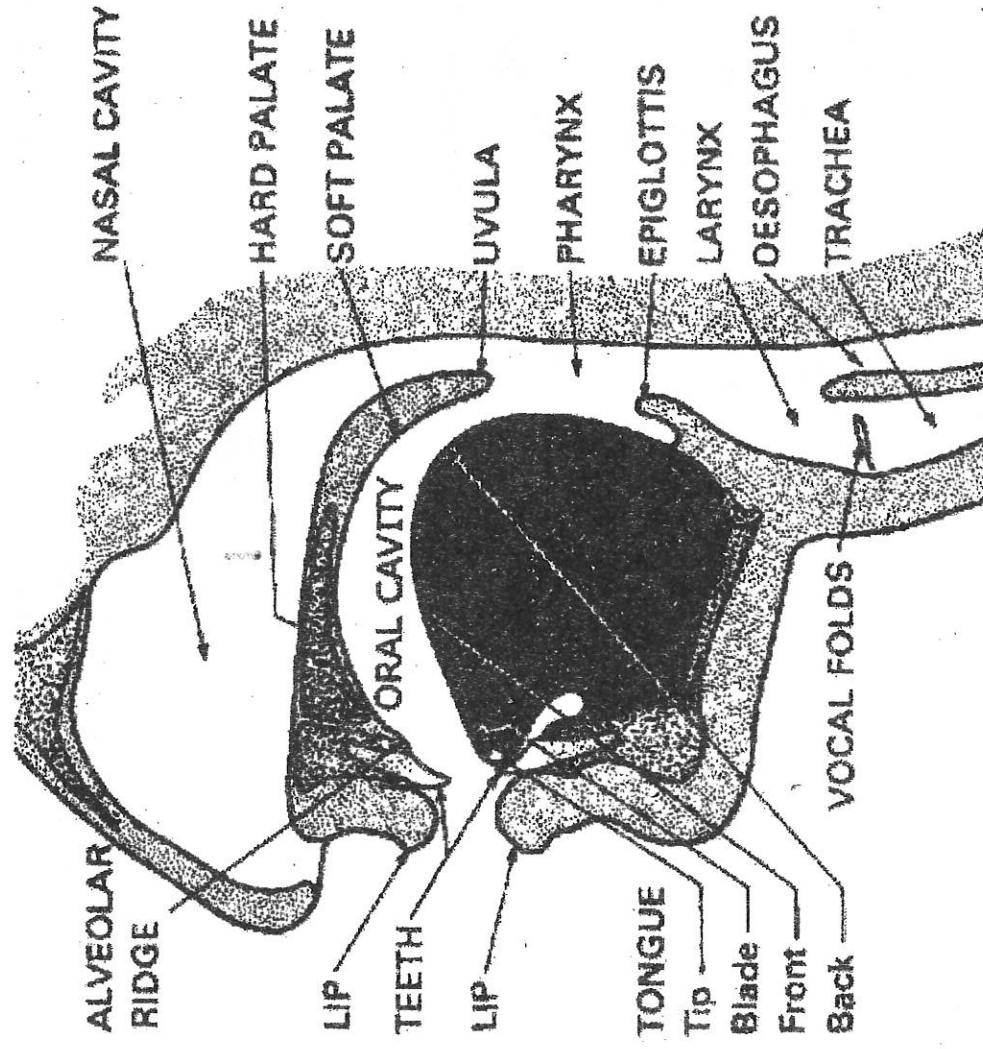
The position of the velum:

Natural Breathing



Velopharyngeal Closure





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PHONETICS: I

What is phonetics?

The branch of linguistics which studies the sounds that are produced by the human speech organs is called phonetics. It is concerned with the physical properties of speech sounds: their physiological production, acoustic properties, auditory perception, and neurophysiological status. We can distinguish three main branches of phonetics:

1. Articulatory phonetics: the study of the production of speech sounds by the articulators and vocal tract by the speaker. In other words, it is concerned with the articulation of speech: The position, shape, and movement of *articulators* or speech organs, such as the lips, teeth, tongue etc.
2. Auditory phonetics: the study of the reception and perception of speech sounds by the listener. It is concerned with speech perception: the perception, categorization, and recognition of speech sounds and the role of the auditory system and the brain.
3. Acoustic phonetics: the study of the physical transmission of speech sounds from the speaker to the listener. In other words, it is concerned with the acoustics of speech: The spectro-temporal properties of the sound waves produced by speech, such as their frequency, amplitude, and harmonic structure.

Phonetic transcription (IPA):

Phonetic transcription is a system for transcribing sounds that occur in a language. The most widely known system of phonetic transcription, the *International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)*, provides a standardized and an international set of symbols for oral phones. The standardized nature of the IPA enables its users to transcribe accurately and consistently the phones of different languages, dialects, and idioms. The IPA is a useful tool not only for the study of phonetics, but also for language teaching, professional acting, and speech pathology.

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 1993)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill	ʙ			r					ʀ		
Tap or Flap		ɾ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant. Shaded areas denote articulation judged impossible.

Narrow versus broad transcription:

Phonetic transcription may aim to transcribe the phonology of a language, or it may wish to go further and specify the precise phonetic realization. In all systems of transcription we may, therefore, distinguish between **broad transcription** and **narrow transcription**. Broad transcription (using slashes /.../) indicates only the more noticeable phonetic features of a sound, whereas narrow transcription (using square brackets [...]) encodes more information about the phonetic variations of the specific allophones in the language.

For example, one particular pronunciation of the English word *little* may be transcribed using the IPA as /l/, /eɪ/, the broad, phonemic transcription, placed between slashes, indicates merely that the word ends with the phoneme /l/, but the narrow, allophonic transcription, placed between square brackets, indicates that this final /l/ is dark (velarized).

The advantage of the narrow transcription is that it can help learners to get exactly the right sound, and allows linguists to make detailed analyses of language variation. The disadvantage is that a narrow transcription is rarely representative of all speakers of a language. Most Americans and Australians would pronounce the /l/ of *little* as a (tap) [ɾ]. Some people in southern England would say /l/ as [ʔ] (a glottal stop). A further disadvantage in less technical contexts is that narrow transcription involves a larger number of symbols that may be unfamiliar to non-specialists.

The Phonetic description of sounds:

Consonants:

Airstream and Articulation:

Speech sounds are made by modifying airflow/ airstream , which involves the passage of air from the lungs out through the oral and nasal cavities. There are many points at which that stream of air can be modified- place of articulation- and several ways in which it can be modified (i.e constricted) -manner of articulation. Hence we can describe and classify consonants according to:

1. The state of the vocal cords: Voiced or voiceless.

A consonant is voiced when there is a vibration of the vocal cords, and it is voiceless when there is no such a vibration.

2. The place of articulation:

The points at which the flow of air is modified are referred to as places of articulation, i.e. the organs of speech involved in the production of consonants, e.g. lips, lip and teeth, tongue and teeth etc.

3. The manner of articulation:

To describe the manner in which a sound is articulated, three different degrees of constriction can be identified: complete closure of the air, close approximation and open approximation, and thus three main categories of consonants: stops, fricatives and affricates. (See also lateral and rolled sounds) .

Place of articulation:

Bilabial (or labial): sounds produced when the airflow is modified by forming a constriction/closure between the lower lip and the upper lip, e.g. /p/, /b/.

Labio-dental: sounds in which there is a constriction between the lower lip and the upper teeth, e.g. /f/, /v/.

Dental: Dental sounds involve the upper teeth as the passive articulator; the active articulator may be either the tongue tip or (usually) the tongue blade, e.g. /θ/, /ð/, (also /t/ &/d/ in French)

Alveolar: Alveolar sounds involve the alveolar ridge as the passive articulator; The active articulator may be either the tongue blade or (usually) the tongue tip, e.g. [t], [d], [n], [s], [z], [l].

Palatal: The active articulator is the blade of the tongue and the passive articulator is the hard palate. The English glide (semi vowel) [j] and the German /ç/ are palatal sounds.

Palato-alveolar: these sounds are produced when the blade of the tongue approaches both the hard palate and the alveolar ridge. e.g. /tʃ/, /dʒ/. In producing /tʃ/ & /dʒ/ the tip of the tongue is against the back of the alveolar ridge and the front is rather high in a secondary palatal articulation.

Velar: The active articulator is the back of the tongue (the tongue body) and the passive articulator is the soft palate, e.g. [k], [g].

Glottal: Glottal sounds are produced in the larynx, at the level of the glottis (space between vocal cords). For the glottal stop /ʔ/, the vocal cords close momentarily and cut off all airflow through the vocal tract.

Pharyngeal: (Sounds produced at the level of the pharynx): Arabic sounds such as, /ħ/, /ʕ/ are Pharyngeal. In English, we can speak about pharyngealized sounds (to be studied later).

Note that /w/ & /j/ are classified with the consonants of the language and are considered as semi-vowels (also referred to as glides).

Homorganic Consonants:

Consonants that have the same place of articulation, such as the alveolar sounds /n/, /t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, are said to be *homorganic*. Similarly, the labials /p/, /b/, /m/ and velars /k/, /ŋ/ are homorganic consonants.

MORPHOLOGY

DERIVATION

Before dealing with affixation, as the main process of word formation in English, we can identify two other processes: *unmarked derivation* and *partial conversion*.

A. Unmarked derivation

When added to a word, a derivational morpheme typically changes its meaning and/or its syntactic function. (see affixation). However, sometimes there is a change in the syntactic function and the meaning of a word without a corresponding change in the morphological form (zero affixation). In other words there is a derivation of one word from another which is not marked formally. This is called *unmarked derivation* or *conversion*.

Examples: cook (verb) → cook (noun)
 Pocket (noun) → pocket (verb)
 Chemical (adjective) → chemical (noun)
 Drive (verb) → drive (noun)
 Lift (verb) → lift (noun)

It is sometimes difficult to decide which of the two words is derived from the other. However, native speakers often have intuitions about this, feeling that one word is somehow more basic than the other. e.g. blow (noun) is felt to derive from blow (verb).

sometimes the form of the word may suggest which is basic. e.g. sandpaper (verb) is felt to derive from sandpaper (noun), because this word is made up of two nouns, and looks more like a noun than a verb.

B. Partial Conversion (also called Secondary Recategorisation)

This happens when the syntactic function of a word is changed without an overt change in the form, but the change is only superficial, i.e. the word does not become a true member of the new word class.

e.g. The poor can behave as a noun in "the poor need help" but we cannot say *'a poor needs help'.

C. Affixation

1. Prefixes

Prefixes do not generally alter the grammatical class of the words (stems/bases) to which they are added. these can be classified according to their meanings:

1.1 Negative prefixes:

	<u>meaning</u>	<u>added to</u>	<u>examples</u>
Un-	'the opposite of' 'not'	adjectives participles	unfair unexpected
Non-	'not'	various classes	non-smoking
In-	(as for un-)	adjectives	insane
Dis-	(as for un-)	adjectives verbs abstract nouns	'disloyal dislike 'disfavour
A-	'lacking in'	adjectives nouns	amoral asymmetry

Note

In- is realized as *il-* before *ll*, e.g. *illogical*, *im-* before *bilabials*, e.g. *improper*, and *ir-* before *rl*, e.g. *irrelevant*.

1.2 Reversative or privative prefixes:

	<u>meaning</u>	<u>added to</u>	<u>examples</u>
Un-/de-	'to reverse action'	verbs	untie/ undo defrost
Dis-	(as for un-)	verbs participles nouns	disconnect discoloured discontent

1.3 Pejorative prefixes:

	meaning	added to	examples
Mis-	'wrongly' 'astray'	verbs nouns participles	misinform misconduct misleading
Mal-	'bad(ly)'	verbs abstract nouns participles adjectives	maltreat malfunction malformed malodorous
Pseudo-	'false, imitation'	nouns	pseudo-intellectual

Other prefixes with pejorative overtones are: over-, under- and hyper-.

1.4 Prefixes of degree or size:

	meaning	added to	examples
Super-	'above, more than, better'	nouns adjective	superman supernatural
out-	to do something faster, longer, etc than	verbs	outrun, outlive
Sur-	'over and above'	nouns	surtax
Sub-	'lower, less than'	noun/adjective	subhuman/substandard
Over-	'too much'	verbs participles adjectives	overheat overdressed/overdone overconfident
Under-	'too little'	verbs participles	undercook/underestimate underprivileged

Hyper-	'extremely'	adjectives	hypercritical
Ultra-	'extremely, beyond'	adjectives	ultra-violet, ultra-modern
Mini-	'little'	nouns	minibar, minidress,

1.5 Prefixes of attitude:

	meaning	added to	examples
Co-	'with, joint'	verbs nouns	cooperate co-pilot
Counter-	'in opposition to'	verbs nouns	counteract counter-revolution
Anti-	'against'	nouns adjectives adverbs	anti-missile anti-social anti-clockwise
Pro-	'on the side of'	nouns adjectives	pro-Common Market pro-communist

note

Anti- suggests simply an attitude of opposition, while counter- suggests action in opposition to or in response to a previous action.

1.6 Locative prefixes:

	meaning	added to	examples
Super-	'over'	nouns adjectives	superbug super- conscious
Sub-	'beneath, lesser in rank'	nouns adjectives verbs	subway subconscious sublet
Inter-	'between, among'	adjectives verbs nouns	international intermarry interaction
Trans-	'across, from one place to another'	adjectives verbs	transatlantic transplant

1.7 Prefixes of time and order:

	meaning	added to	examples
Fore-	'before'	mainly verbs nouns	foretell foreknowledge
Pre-	'before'	nouns adjectives	pre-war pre-martial
post-	'after'	nouns adjectives	post-war post-classical
Ex-	'former'	human nouns	ex-wife
Re-	'again, back'	verbs nouns	rebuild, re-evaluate resettlement

note As an exception to the fact that prefixes do not alter the grammatical class of the base, pre- and post normally involve conversion from noun to adjective.

1.8 Number prefixes:

	meaning	added to	examples
Uni-, Mono-	'one'	nouns, adjectives	mono-syllable, unilateral
Bi-, Di-	'two'	nouns, adverbs	bimonthly, dichotomy
Tri-	'three'	nouns, adjectives	trilogy, trilateral
Multi-, poly	'many'	adjectives	multisyllabic, multilingual

1.9 Other prefixes:

	meaning	examples
Auto-	'self'	autobiography, autonomy
Neo-	'new, revived'	neoclassicism, neo-Gothic
Pan-	'all, world-wide'	Pan-African
Proto-	'first, original'	prototype
Semi-	'half'	semi-vowel, semi-circle
Vice-	'deputy'	vice-president

MORPHOLOGY (affixation- continued) II

2. Suffixes

Unlike prefixes, suffixes frequently alter the word-class of the base; for example, the adjective *kind*, by the addition of the suffix *-ness*, is changed into an abstract noun *kindness*. In the following charts suffixes are grouped both according to the words they form and the class of base they are typically added to.

2.1 Noun → noun suffixes

added to → to form		meaning	examples
(A) Occupational			
-Ster	nouns → nouns	'person engaged in an occupation/activity'	gangster
-Eer			engineer
-Er	nouns → nouns	'varied meanings, e.g. inhabitant of'	teenager Londoner
(B) Diminutive/Feminine			
-Let	count nouns → count nouns	'small, unimportant'	booklet piglet
-Ette	nouns → nouns	'small, compact'	kitchenette
-Ess	animate nouns → animate nouns	'female'	waitress, actress
-Y / -le	nouns → nouns	'diminutive'	daddy, auntie
(C) Status/Domain			
-Hood	nouns → abstract nouns	'status'	childhood
-Ship	(as for -hood)	'status, condition'	dictatorship
-Dom	(as for -hood)	'domain, condition'	kingdom
-(E)Ry	nouns → nouns	'behaviour place of activity collectivity'	slavery refinery machinery

(D) Other

-Ing	count noun → uncount noun	'substance of which N is composed'	panelling
-Ful	noun → noun	'the amount which N contains'	mouthful

2.2 Noun/adjective → noun/adjective suffixes

	added to → to form	meaning	examples
-Ite	nouns → personal N.	'member of community, section/type'	Israelite, socialite
-(I)An	nouns → personal N, non-gradable adjectives	'Pertaining to...'	Indonesian, republican
-Ese	(as for -ian)	'nationality'	Chinese
-Ist	noun/adj → personal N/adj	'member of a party, occupation'	violinist, socialist
-Ism	nouns/adj → abstract N	'attitude, political movement'	idealism, communism

Note:

Many nouns in -ism correspond to a noun in -ist, which denotes an adherent of the principle, etc involved, e.g. communist/communism.

2.3 Verb → noun suffixes

	added to → to form	meaning	examples
-Er, -Or	verbs (mainly dynamic) → nouns (mainly personal)	'agentive & instrumental'	driver, actor receiver
-Ant	verbs → nouns	(as for -er)	inhabitant, disinfectant
-Ee	verbs → personal nouns	'passive'	employee
-Aion	verbs → (a) abstract nouns (b) collective nouns	(a) 'state, action' (b) 'institution'	exploration organization
-Ment	verbs → nouns	'state, action'	amazement
-Al	verbs → nouns	'action'	refusal, dismissal
-Ing	verbs → abstract/concrete nouns	'state' 'activity'	feeling building
-Age	verbs → nouns	'activity'	drainage

2.4 Adjective → noun suffixes

added to	→ to form	meaning	examples
-Ness	adjective → nouns	'state, quality'	happiness
-lty	(as for -ness)	'state, quality'	sanity

2.5 Verb suffixes

added to	→ to form	meaning	examples
-lfy	nouns, adj → verbs	'causative'	simplify
-lze(-lse)	(as for -lfy)	'causative'	popularize
-En	adj → verbs		
	(a) transitive	'causative'	deafen
	(b) intransitive	'become'	sadden

2.6 Noun → adjective suffixes

added to	→ to form	meaning	examples
-Ful	nouns → gradable adj.	'having..., giving'	useful, helpful
-Less	nouns → adj.	'lacking..., without'	homeless
-Ly	nouns → gradable adj.	'having the qualities of'	cowardly
-Like	(as for -Ly)	'having the qualities of'	childlike
-Y	nouns → gradable adj.	'like..., covered with'	creamy, hairy
-lsh	nouns (proper & count.) →	'belonging to,	Turkish, foolish
	adjs. (gradable/non-gradable)	having the character of	
-lan	nouns → adjective	'in the tradition of...'	Darwinian

2.7 Some adjective suffixes common in borrowed words.

Suffix	used to form	examples
-Al (also -ial, -ical)	mainly non-gradable adjs.	criminal, editorial, musical
-lc	adjectives (gradable & non-gradable)	heroic

-ive	adjectives (gradable & non-gradable)	attractive, sensitive
(also -ative, -itive)		affirmative
-ous	primarily gradable adjs.	virtuous, courteous,
(also -eous, -ious)		vivacious

Note:

(a) In some adjectives, -ic alternates with -ical, with a difference of meaning:

Compare: an economic miracle - the car is economical to run
(‘in the economy’) (‘money saving’)

a historic building - historical research
(a building with a history) (pertaining to history)

(b) There are several less common affixes (referred to as neo-classical affixes), such as: -ary, -ate, and -ory, e.g. revolutionary, affectionate, obligatory.

2.8 Other adjective suffixes

added to	→ to form	meaning	examples
-Able, -ible	verbs → adjectives	‘able/worthy to be V-ed’	readable, forcible deducible
-ish	gradable adjs. → gradable adjs.	‘somewhat...’	youngish, tennis
-Ed	nouns/noun phrases → adjs.	‘having...’	pointed, stressed

2.9 Adverb suffixes

added to	→ to form	meaning	examples
-Ly	adjectives → adverbs of manner, viewpoint	‘in a... manner’	happily, strangely, wrongly
-Ward	adverbs, nouns → adverbs of manner/direction	‘manner/direction’	backward
-Wise	nouns →	‘in the manner of...’	
(a)	adverbs of manner		crabwise
(b)	viewpoint adverbs	‘as far as ... is concerned’	weather-wise
(c)	direction	‘in the same direction as...’	clockwise

MORPHOLOGY III

PROCESSES OF WORD FORMATION

New words are constantly entering a language. we may wonder where words like "reddish", "co-author" or "balcony" come from or how they are formed. There are many ways in which words are formed in a language, and these are referred to as the processes of word formation.

A. Derivation

The addition of derivational morphemes to already existing words is called derivation. This is the chief process of English word formation, which mainly involves affixation: the addition of prefixes and suffixes (see the hand-out on derivation).

B. Compounding

This process involves the formation of new words by putting together already existing words. Compounds in English can be combinations of various kinds, involving words from different grammatical categories. Here are some examples:

Noun + Noun: Toothpaste, waterproof, Heartbeat, hat-trick...
Adjective + Adjective: Bittersweet, red-hot, shortsighted...
Noun + Adjective: Headstrong, Status-conscious, brand-new...
Adjective + Noun: Blackbird, fathead, loudmouth...
Verb + Verb: sleepwalk, force-feed, typeset...
Verb + Noun: pickpocket, payphone, Type-writer...
Noun + Verb: spoon-feed, water-ski,
Noun + Preposition: Hand-out,
Adjective + Preposition: blackout, moreover
Verb + Preposition: cutup, takeover, pick-up...
Preposition + preposition: without, within...
Preposition + Verb: withdraw...
Preposition + Noun: outbreak, in-law...

Some useful notes about compounds:

1. The relationship between the parts of a compound can be described in two ways: It can be (a) *syntactic* or (b) *asyntactic*:
 - (a) There is a syntactic relationship between the members of a compound (e.g. verb before preposition, adjective before noun etc.).
e.g. Takeover, greenhouse, overdo, food store, countdown, pickpocket...
 - (b) There is no syntactic relationship between the components of a compound
e.g. Secretary-general, Outcry, Headstrong, Intake...
2. The relationship of the whole compound to its members can be described as (a) *endocentric*, or (b) *exocentric*:
 - (a) It is endocentric when the compound has the same function as one of the members, e.g. doorknob, undertake, bodyguard...
 - (b) It is exocentric when the compound has a different function from its members, e.g. layout, blackout, hand-me-down, left-over...
3. There are sometimes problems in distinguishing compounds from derivations.
 - (a) some elements of compounds do not occur alone, so it is difficult to decide whether they are roots or affixes:
e.g. Telescope, telephone, telegraph... (tele never occurs alone).
 - (b) Some of these elements, which we may call 'bound roots', occur in only few compounds:
e.g. cranberry, raspberry, huckleberry, lukewarm, mushroom...
The underlined morphemes are not meaningful in isolation but only when combined with some free morphemes.
 - (c) Some compounds look like derivations:
e.g. Blackberry and blueberry are made of two free morphemes, spoonful is a compound of spoon and full, but dreadful is a derivation of an adjective from a noun by means of the suffix -ful.
4. The meaning of a compound is not always deducible from the meanings of its parts; in other words, it is not necessarily the sum of the meanings of its parts. The parts of a compound may be related in various ways. Here are some examples:

Bedroom = room containing a bed
Bedtime = time to go to bed
Bedclothes = clothes to put on a bed (sheets and blankets)

'Houseboat' is a house which is also a boat, but 'housedog' is not a house which is also a dog.

'Magnifying glass' is a glass which magnifies, but 'looking glass' is not a glass which looks.

C. Backformation

this process could be said to be the reverse of derivation. Instead of producing a new word by adding a bound morpheme to a root, we can create a new word by subtracting from an existing word a part which is (mistakenly) assumed to be a derivational morpheme.

Examples: Beggar	beg
Burglar	burgle
Editor	edit
Enthusiasm	enthuse
Resurrection	resurrect

D. Blending

A blend is a word formed from parts of two or more other words.

Examples:	Brunch	means	breakfast + lunch
	Spork	means	spoon + fork
	Smog	means	smoke + fog
	Motel	means	motor + hotel
	Pictionary	means	picture + dictionary

E. Abbreviations

This is a process which involves the shortening of a word.

Examples: Gas (Gasoline) - Gym (Gymnastics) - phone (Telephone) - bus (Autobus) - bike (bicycle)

F. Acronyms

An acronym is an abbreviation formed from the initial components in a phrase or a word. These components may be individual letters (as in FBI, BBC, WHA) (also called initialisms) or parts of words (as in *Benelux*).

Examples: Radar: (Radio detecting and ranging)
Laser: (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation)
Scuba: (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus)
Interpol: (International Criminal Police Organization)
NATO: (North Atlantic Treaty Organization)
AIDS: (acquired immune deficiency syndrome)

G. Proper names

some words have the same name as the products or their inventors (they are sometimes called Eponyms)

Examples: Kleenex, Xerox, Hoover, Biro, Pasteurize, boycott, Picasso.

H. Change of meaning

The meaning of a word may change overtime in one of the following ways:

1. It may broaden.

e.g. Dog (once meant a particular breed of dogs)
Bird (once meant a young bird)
Holiday (once meant a holy day)
Picture (once meant a painted representation)

2. It may become narrow.

e.g. Meat (once meant food)
Starve (once meant die)
Girl (once meant young person)

3. It may be extended through metaphorical usage.

e.g. Half-baked means silly.
To lie low means to hide
To kick the bucket means to die
To bite off more than one can chew means to go beyond one's capacities.
4. It may undergo a shift.

e.g. Silly (once meant happy)
Knight (once meant youth)
Fond (once meant foolish)

I. Borrowing

Languages contain both native words (i.e. words whose history can be traced back to the earliest, known stages of language) and non-native or *loan* words, which are native words of other languages. these are words which have been borrowed and included in the language at some point in its historical development. English has borrowed extensively from Norman French, Latin and Greek, and less extensively from many other languages, such as Spanish, Italian, Arabic etc.

Examples: nation, government, judge, saint, miracle, religion, royal, money, court, crime, poverty, society, science, advantage, violence, description, prospect, comedy, phobia, atom, physics, thermometer, dramatic, algebra, alcohol, zero, ghoul, Genie, cipher, barbecue, cockroach, ranch, Guitar, piano, balcony, Virtuoso, opera.

Exercises

For each of the above processes, find more examples from English and also from other languages that you know, mainly French and Arabic.

MORPHOLOGY (Exercises) **W**

I. Divide the following words into separate morphemes. Say whether they are free or bound. Then specify if the bound morphemes are inflectional or derivational.

Supermarket, reliability, anti-
constitutional, part-time,
..... awesome, outsider,
..... ovenbird, offspring,
..... accidentally, afloat,
championship,
gingerbread, incapacity, poly-culture,
harmonious, stationary, radical,
..... ultra-modern, bewitched,
..... hands free, irresponsible,
..... autobiographical, premeditated,
..... unconsciousness, overestimated,
..... interdisciplinary, biweekly,
..... enslave, irrevocably,
..... alarmingly, homesickness,
..... abortion, forget-me-not,
..... hand-me-downs, fraudulently,
..... relooking, unwillingly,

II. Use the following bound morphemes (prefixes and suffixes) to make new words from the stems given. Provide more examples of your own.

Prefixes: un-, re-, anti-, under-, mal-, inter-, super-, pro-, in-, un-, co-, out-, ex-,
sub-, semi-, pre-, uni-, bi-, dis-, non-.

List of words: continental, lateral, smoker, hero, believable, editor, husband, furbish, function, American, tolerable, comfort, come, automatic, locate, estimate, responsible, clinical, labial.

Suffixes: -er/or, -ess, -y, -ly, -ic, -ive, -hood, -ship, -dom, -(e)ry, -ful, -ing, -(i)an, -ish, -ese, -ist, -able, -ible, -ism, -ant, -ation, -ment, -al, -age, -ness, -ity, -ize, -ful, -like, wise, age, less, ous, -ite.

List of words: coward, ship, clock, drive, live, bore, compare, blue, brother, catholic, explore, deliver, mile, success, Japan, credible, create, amaze, hero, end, critic, rely, reluctant, animate, Turkey, refuse, violin, inhabit, child, happy, sane, Darwin, attract, determine...

III. Provide compounds following these combinations:

	<u>- Adjective</u>	<u>- Noun</u>	<u>- Verb</u>	<u>-Preposition</u>
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Noun-

Adjective-

verb-

preposition-

IV. Provide some examples of blends, abbreviations, and acronyms from French and Arabic.

V. Find some borrowed words in Arabic and transcribe them.