INTRODUCTION

As speakers of any language, you would know the words of the language and also what these words mean.

But the way words are created and structured is something that we do not consciously think about.

As a student of linguistics, you should know:

- about how words are structured and how they have been created
- how these words are put together to form longer strings in a language.

These 2 aspects, words and strings of words, are closely related; together these 2 sub-disciplines of linguistics together form what we call the grammar of a language.
Definitions of Morphology and Syntax

- Grammar is traditionally subdivided into 2 different but inter-related sub-disciplines of study:
  - morphology
  - syntax
Morphology is the study of how words are formed out of smaller units, traditionally called morphemes or minimal linguistic signs.

It is the study of the internal structure of words, the rules that govern the internal structure, as well as the ways of creating new words – i.e.

what are the component parts of a word and what are the principles that tell us the ways in which the parts are put together to form the word.
Syntax is concerned with the ways in which words can be combined to form phrases and sentences, and so addresses questions such as:

Why is the string

*book in cupboard*, and

*has money no* are considered ungrammatical or ill-formed.

In the study of syntax, we are interested in the kinds of principles that determine the ways in which we can and cannot combine words to form acceptable phrases and sentences.
For the study of morphology, we will focus on:

- categories of words
- the morpheme and allomorphs
- prefixes and suffixes - derivational affixes and inflectional affixes
- common morphological phenomena related to the creation of English words
- internal structure of words
- morpho-syntactic properties found in the English language (the properties that link both the morphology and the syntax of the language)
In the study of syntax, we will focus on the notions of

- heads and modifiers
- constituent structure
- phrases
- sentence types
- finite clauses
- non-finite clauses
Words

- When we know a word in a language, we know
  - the sound and the meaning of the word
  - the form, i.e. the spelling, of the word
  - if the word is a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, or a conjunction.

- In other words, we know what is called the grammatical category or the syntactic class of a word.
Grammatical Categories

- Traditionally, eight grammatical categories are identified:
  - noun (e.g. *pen, Klang*)
  - verb (e.g. *kick, hate*)
  - adjective (e.g. *thin, green*)
  - adverb (e.g. *slowly, sweetly*)
  - determiner (e.g. *a, this*)
  - preposition (e.g. *on, into*)
  - pronoun (e.g. *she, them*)
  - conjunction (e.g. *and, or*)
Simplex Words and Complex Words

- Words can be classified into two groups:
  - **Simplex words** (e.g. *man, car, sea, love, fear*)
  - **Complex words** (e.g. *books, kicked, reading, eaten, sandbox*)

- **Simplex** words - cannot be broken up further into its components except for their sound segments.

- **Complex** words - are made up of smaller units:
  - *book+s*
  - *kick+ed*
  - *read+ing*
  - *sand+box*
Content Words and Function Words

- Words are also classified according to the classes of
  - content words and
  - function words
Content Words

- Content words refer to ‘concepts such as objects, actions, attributes and ideas’.
- These words have lexical meanings and are also called lexical categories.
- They are open class words because we can add new items to these categories.
- In English, these are the grammatical categories or syntactic classes of noun, verb, adjective and adverb.
The following are grammatical categories comprising content words:

- **Noun** - *Erin, tea, box, love, closeness*
- **Verb** - *speak, love, evaporate*
- **Adjective** - *good, short, red, polite*
- **Adverb** - *slowly, fast*

The words in these *lexical categories* have meaning and they provide the main meaning to a phrase or sentence.

And some items can belong to more than one category, for e.g. the word *love (N, V)*
Function Words

These are called closed class words as we cannot add new items to these categories. The closed classes or functional categories you have been introduced to so far are: determiner, preposition, pronoun, conjunction

The other two categories of function words in English are auxiliaries, modals.
The following are grammatical categories comprising function words:

- **determiners** - *a, the, this, that, those*
- **auxiliaries** - *be, has, do, is, have, does*
- **modals** - *may, must, will, can*
- **prepositions** - *with, from, by, on, to*
- **conjunctions** - *and, or, but*

These words have a functional role in the English language, i.e. they ensure that a sentence is grammatical (they are sometimes called **grammatical words**).
Among these categories, **modals** and **prepositions** are usually treated as grammatical words in English but they seem to be on the borderline.

This is due to the fact that some modals and prepositions also have meaning.

e.g. In *they may go to the library* the modal *may* indicates that permission is given by the speaker to the listener.

Prepositions such as *above* and *below* have obvious meaning.
The Lexeme

- Each word that we know in our language is represented abstractly in our mind.

- An abstract word is known as a **lexeme**, which can have a number of realization of word forms.
e.g. the lexeme WALK can be realized in the following word forms in actual speech depending on how it is functioning.

The function of each word form has to do with the syntax of the sentence in which it is used.

Some grammatical word forms of the lexeme WALK are:

- She may walk to school tomorrow.
- She walks to school daily.
- She walked to school last week.
- She is walking to school on Monday.

Each of these forms (walk, walks, walked, walking) is a grammatical word form of the lexeme since English grammar requires the lexeme WALK to have these different forms in different contexts.
The grammatical endings attached to these word forms are called **inflections**.

The form of the lexeme to which these endings are attached is known as the **stem**.

And the processes responsible for the formation of these different word forms involving the **stem** and **inflection** are the **morphological processes**.

As inflections are linked to both the morphological structure of words and the syntactic function of words, the categories for which words inflect are known as **morphosyntactic** categories, for e.g. the categories of **number**, **tense**, **case**, and **comparison**.
Grammatical Categories in English

Nouns

- Traditionally a noun (N) is a naming word, usually the name of a person, place, or thing, which refer to something in the world.
- Most English nouns inflect for the morphosyntactic category known as **number**, that is they have a plural form –*s* or –*es*.
- A noun can be **singular** (e.g. *lion*) or **plural** (e.g. *lions*) – here we note that the singular noun is not inflected but a plural noun is.

- However, there are also Ns in English that mark plurality differently (e.g. *mice, children, oxen*).
- Some Ns in English do not mark plurality overtly (e.g. *deer, sheep*).
- Here we have 2 grammatical forms for the lexeme **DEER**: 1 singular form *deer* and the other plural form *deers*. 
We can identify Ns by the words they normally appear with in a phrase and a sentence.

Ns usually appear with articles \((a(n), \text{the})\) or to things that can be counted:

- \textit{a cat} \quad \textit{the cat} \quad \textit{four cats}
- \textit{a party} \quad \textit{the party} \quad \textit{one party}
Generally, there are 4 groups of nouns.

**Count nouns** have plural forms and can take the articles (*a(n), the*), they refer to things that can be counted.

**Non-count nouns** take the article *the* but do not have the plural forms and cannot be counted.

Together these count nouns and non-count nouns are known as **common nouns**, e.g. *cat* and *tea*.

**Proper nouns** do not take the articles, do not have plural forms and cannot be counted, e.g. *Klang, Ali, Thailand*.

**Mass nouns** do not occur with the article *a(n)* and do not have plural forms; they are non-count nouns that refer to **uncountable substances**, e.g. *tea* and *oil*.
From the discussion so far, we know that some words are Ns because of the manner in which they appear relative to other words in grammatical strings of words.

In other words, we know that they are Ns because of their **distribution** in grammatical sequences of words.
Adjectives

- An adjective (A) is a word used to describe the attribute of an object, e.g. the *red* car, the *big* house

Adjectives may have 3 forms, e.g. the lexeme BIG has the grammatical word forms: *big, bigger, biggest*

- The *big* is the basic form and is the **positive degree** of **comparison**, while *bigger* is the **comparative** and *biggest* is the **superlative**.

- **Comparative form** - to compare 2 objects for the same attribute, e.g. *my house is bigger than yours*

- **Superlative form** - to compare 3 or more objects for the same attribute, e.g. *Rina’s house is the biggest among all the houses in this place.*
However, not all adjectives take the –er and –est endings.

Some use the words *more* and *most*, e.g. 
*beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful*

The morphosyntactic category which has the morphosyntactic properties of comparative and superlative is called **comparison**.
Verbs

Basically, there are 2 groups of verbs (Vs):

- **Auxiliary verbs** – and there are 2 sub-groups of auxiliary verbs
  1. auxiliaries - *have, be* and *do* as well their various forms
  2. modals – e.g. *can, could, shall, should, will, would, may, might, must*

- **Lexical verbs** generally refer to actions or states, for e.g.
  *drink, walk, talk* (actions)
  *know, love* (states)
- Each verb lexeme has 5 grammatical word forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexeme</th>
<th>V stem</th>
<th>V-s</th>
<th>V-ed</th>
<th>V-ing</th>
<th>V-en</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KICK</td>
<td>kick</td>
<td>kicks</td>
<td>kicked</td>
<td>kicking</td>
<td>kicked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRIVE</td>
<td>drive</td>
<td>drives</td>
<td>drove</td>
<td>driving</td>
<td>driven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CUT</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>cut</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Each of the grammatical word forms is a result of the addition of an inflection to the V - these are associated with the morphosyntactic categories of Vs.

The 1\textsuperscript{st} is the category of \textit{tense}.

2 tenses in English, \textit{past} and \textit{present} (also called \textit{non-past}) and all English verbs can take tense.

Thus for the verb lexeme \textit{WALK}, the present tense is \textit{walk}, and the past tense is \textit{walked}. 
The second morphosyntactic category is number and this is shown in the –s ending of the V, for example *kick-s.*

This ending is used only for a present tense V and when the subject in the sentence where the V is used is singular:

- *The girl kicks* the dog.
- *Rina kicks* the dog.
- *She kicks* the dog.

In the e.g.s here, the subject is in the **third person**, that is **not** the speaker (first person) or the person being addressed (second person), i.e. the *girl, Rina, she.*
The inflection –s here indicates 3 morphosyntactic categories: **tense**, **number** and **person**.

But only **tense** is a morphosyntactic property of the verb itself while the categories of **number** and **person** are a result of the morphosyntactic properties of something else that the verb must **agree** with.

This shows the process of **agreement**.
The *V-ing* and *V-en* forms are called **participles**, the former being the **progressing participle** and the latter is the **perfect participle**.

The simple form of the V, e.g. the verb *kick*, is the **infinitive** and is often used with the word *to*, forming *to kick* in this case.

And Vs inflected in a regular way, e.g. the V *kick*, are called **regular Vs**.

Vs inflected differently or not inflected at all, e.g. the verbs *drive* and *cut*, are **irregular Vs**.

Some lexemes have changes to the stem to indicate some of these morphosyntactic categories.
Adverbs

- Adverbs (AdvS) tell us more about the action referred to by a V – the manner, place and time of the action:
  - She sang *sweetly*. how (manner)
  - The students hid *there*. where (place)
  - We will leave *soon*. when (time)

- Although AdvS do not take inflections, they can take comparison, e.g.
  - more sweetly
  - most sweetly
There are 2 sub-classes of Advs.

- **General Advs** form a large class and include words like *sweetly, noisily, immediately, and cleverly*.
- **Degree Advs** form a small group and examples of degree adverbs are *more, most and very*.

They can appear with an adjective or a general adverb, e.g.

That house is *most* beautiful.
She sang *very* sweetly.
Prepositions

- Prepositions (Ps) are words that indicate **location** (both in space and time) and **direction**.
- E.g.s of locational Ps (with regard to **space**) are *at, under, on, in* and *behind*.
- Prepositions that have to do with **time** are also known as **temporal** Ps, e.g. *during, till, for*.
- E.g.s of directional Ps are *under, to, onto* and *into*.
- Sometimes there are overlaps, e.g. the Ps *under, behind* and *in front of* can refer to both location and direction, depending on the context in which they appear.
- There are also Ps that are neither locational, directional nor temporal.
- Ps are used with Ns or noun phrases, e.g. *on the board, in the cupboard, and during the meeting* (*the board, the cupboard and the meeting* are noun phrases).
Morphemes and Allomorphs

- In the study of morphology, the uninflected words or the stems are called morphemes.
- A **morpheme** is an arbitrary union of a sound and a meaning (e.g. *chair, go, red*) or grammatical function (e.g. *a, the, or*) and cannot be further analysed.
- Morphemes are the basic building blocks of complex lexemes or grammatical word forms.
- Every word that we have come across so far has either 1 morpheme (**monomorphemic** or **simplex word**) or 2 or more morphemes (**polymorphemic** or **complex word**).
E.g.s of monomorphemic words are:
  table  kick  green  possible  help  true

E.g.s of polymorphemic words are:
- tables  (table + s)  2 morphemes
- kicks  (kick + s)  2 morphemes
- greener  (green + er)  2 morphemes
- impossible  (im + possible)  2 morphemes
- helplessly  help + less + ly)  3 morphemes
- untruthful  (un + true + th + ful)  4 morphemes
The basic words *table, kick, green, possible, help* and *true* are known as the stems; these can stand on their own but the other morphemes attached to them cannot.

There are also words that seem to be formed from more than 1 morpheme but when you analyse them, the stem cannot stand alone, for e.g. the word *cranberry*.

Here the element *cran* cannot stand alone in English, it must appear with the morpheme *berry*, and since it appears only in 1 instance in the language and since it has meaning, it is considered a morpheme.

Such morphemes are called **unique morphemes**.
Another group of words that might confuse learners are the words *sustain, pertain, contain* and *obtain*.

The element *tain* derives from the Latin word *tenere* which means ‘to hold’ and thus these words seem to be complex.

However, English speakers today would not know the meaning of *tain* as it does not appear as a single word in the language.

Thus such words are classified as *simplex*. 
A morpheme is a word that has a certain form and a certain meaning; the form of the word is called morph, that is the form of any morpheme.

A morpheme can have different phonological shapes and these are called allomorphs.

This phenomenon is known as allomorphic variation,

e.g. the indefinite article a is realized as a [ə], an [ən] or [ei] depending on its distribution.

When the article appears before a word beginning with a consonant sound it is realized as a (as in a car), when the word begins with a vowel sound, it is realized as an (as in an umbrella) and when the word is stressed, it is realized as [ei].
The distribution of the allomorphs of the indefinite article morph is called **phonological conditioning** as the process is determined by the sound structure.
Types of Morphemes

- Morphemes can be both **free** and **bound**, e.g. *movement* is made up of 2 morphemes: *move* + *ment*.

  Here, *move* is the free morpheme as it can occur on its own and –*ment* is the bound morpheme as it cannot appear in isolation.

- Bound morphemes are termed **affixes**; those that appear before a word are called **prefixes** and those that are attached after the word are termed **suffixes**.

- 2 types of affixes: **inflectional** and **derivational**
English Inflectional Affixes

The inflectional suffixes in English are:

- plural –s (*cars*)
- possessive (genitive) –s (*Mary’s car*)
- third person singular non-past –s (*she cooks*)
- progressive –ing (*he is singing*)
- past tense –ed (*she kicked him*)
- past participle –en or –ed (*he has written the letter/studied for the examination*)
- comparative –er (*the shorter boy*) and
- superlative –est (*the shortest girl*)
A type of inflectional contrast associated with Ns in English (and many other languages) involves case, a morphosyntactic category that encodes information about an element’s grammatical role, that is subject, direct object, and so on.

In English, only pronouns exhibit case contrast:
- **nominative** (*I, they, he, she*)
- **accusative** (*me, them, him, her*)
- **genitive** (*my, their, his, her*)

b. Accusative case: Caryn kicked *him*.
c. Genitive case: Sam chased *his* dog.
Derivation Affixes

These may convert a lexical category into another.

e.g. read $\rightarrow$ read + er
derivational suffix

\[ V \rightarrow N \]

un + do $\rightarrow$ undo
derivational prefix

\[ V \rightarrow V \]
Evaluation

- (i) Coursework 60%
  - Assignment 1 (15%)
  - Assignment 2 (15%)
  - Mid-sem test (30%)

- (ii) Final examination 40%

- Total 100%