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ENG211

ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

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Course code: ENG 211
Course title: English Morphology
Course credit load: 3 Units

Series 1: Foundations of English Morphology

Series 2: Processes of Word and Sentence Formation

Series 3: English Derivatives and Structural Patterns

Series 4: Borrowing, Creolization, and Grammaticalization

Series 5: Analogy and Change in Morphological Features

Proposed Outline for Series 1

Part 1 Concept and Scope of Morphology

- **1.1.1 Definition of Morphology**
- **1.1.2 Importance of Morphology in English Language Study**
- **1.1.3 Relationship between Morphology and Other Linguistic Levels**

Part 2 Basic Units of Morphological Analysis

- **1.2.1 Morphemes: Free and Bound**
- **1.2.2 Roots, Stems, and Affixes**
- **1.2.3 Word Classes and Morphological Categories**

Part 3 Word Structure and Formation Principles

- **1.3.1 Simple and Complex Words**
- **1.3.2 Inflectional and Derivational Processes**
- **1.3.3 Structural Patterns in Word Formation**

Part 4 Morphological Typology and English Features

- **1.4.1 Analytic versus Synthetic Languages**
- **1.4.2 Features of English Morphology**
- **1.4.3 Comparative Notes on English Morphological Behaviour**

Part 5 Applications of Morphological Knowledge

- **1.5.1 Morphology in Sentence Construction**
- **1.5.2 Morphology in Language Interpretation**
- **1.5.3 Morphology in Everyday English Usage**

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Introduction

Language is built from words, and words themselves are shaped by structures that give them meaning and function. Without an understanding of how words are formed and organised, it becomes difficult to appreciate the richness of English or to use it effectively in communication. This Series introduces you to the foundations of English morphology, the study of word structure, and prepares you to explore how words are created, modified, and applied in different contexts. By beginning here, you will gain the essential background needed to engage with the rest of the course.

The aim of this Series is to provide you with a clear grasp of the basic concepts and principles of morphology, enabling you to analyse word structures, identify morphological units, and apply this knowledge to both academic and everyday English usage.

We shall commence this Series by examining the concept and scope of morphology, highlighting its definition, importance, and relationship with other areas of linguistics. Next, we will move on to the basic units of morphological analysis, such as morphemes, roots, stems, and affixes. Following that, our attention will turn to word structure and formation principles, where we will consider simple and complex words, as well as inflectional and derivational processes. Subsequently, we will explore morphological typology and the distinctive features of English morphology. Finally, we will wrap up by discussing the practical applications of morphological knowledge in sentence construction, language interpretation, and everyday English usage.

Series Learning Outcomes

Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

- **SLO 2.1** define the concept of morphology and explain its scope within the study of English,
- **SLO 2.2** describe the basic units of morphological analysis including morphemes, roots, stems, and affixes,
- **SLO 2.3** analyse word structures by distinguishing between simple and complex words,
- **SLO 2.4** differentiate between inflectional and derivational processes in English word formation,
- **SLO 2.5** evaluate the features of English morphology in relation to morphological typology, and
- **SLO 2.6** apply morphological knowledge to sentence construction, language interpretation, and everyday English usage.

1.1 Concept and Scope of Morphology

1.1.1 Definition of morphology

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Morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies the internal structure of words and the rules by which words are formed. It focuses on how smaller units of meaning, called **morphemes**, combine to create words. A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit in a language, and it cannot be further divided without losing its meaning. For example, in the word *unhappiness*, the morphemes are *un-* (a prefix meaning "not"), *happy* (the root), and *-ness* (a suffix meaning "state of").

Fill in the blank: The smallest meaningful unit of a language is called a _____.

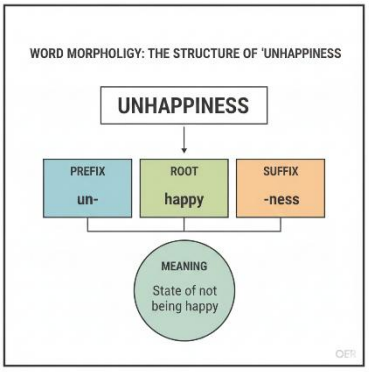

Figure 1.1 Word structure analysis of *unhappiness*

1.1.2 Importance of morphology in English language study

Morphology is important because it helps us to understand how words are built, how they change form, and how they function in communication. By studying morphology, learners can identify word patterns, predict meanings, and use words more effectively. It also provides insight into the history and development of English, showing how words evolve through processes such as borrowing and analogy.

Fill in the blank: Studying morphology helps learners to identify _____ and predict meanings in English words.

Benefit	Description	Example
Vocabulary Development	Enables learners to decode the meaning of unfamiliar words by identifying known roots and affixes.	Recognizing *"bio-"* (life) and *"-ology"* (study) to understand *"biology."*
Grammatical Competence	Helps in identifying word classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives) through	Distinguishing between the noun *"beauty"* and the adjective *"beautiful"* via the suffix *"-ful."*

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Benefit	Description	Example
	derivational and inflectional endings.	
Accurate Sentence Construction	Supports correct syntax by ensuring proper agreement, tense, and pluralization.	Using the inflectional morpheme *"-ed"* to correctly signal the past tense in a sentence.
Insight into Language Change	Reveals the historical evolution of words and how new terms are coined in the modern era.	Observing how the root *"friend"* evolves into new digital forms like *"unfriend"* or *"defriend."*

Box 1.1 Key reasons for studying morphology

1.1.3 Relationship between morphology and other linguistic levels

Morphology does not exist in isolation. It interacts with other levels of language such as **phonology** (the study of sounds), **syntax** (the study of sentence structure), and **semantics** (the study of meaning). For instance, morphological changes can affect pronunciation, as in the plural form *cats* where the morpheme *-s* adds a sound. Similarly, morphology influences syntax by determining how words fit into sentences, and it contributes to semantics by shaping meaning.

Fill in the blank: Morphology interacts with phonology, syntax, and _____ to shape language use.

Linguistic Level	Example of Interaction with Morphology	Description of Process
Phonology	The plural **-s** changes pronunciation in ***cats*** vs. ***dogs***.	**Allomorphy:** The phonetic environment of the root determines the sound of the morpheme (e.g., /s/ after voiceless sounds, /z/ after voiced).
Syntax	Word forms determine sentence roles (e.g., **verb tense**).	**Morphosyntax:** Inflectional morphemes signal grammatical relationships, such as subject-verb agreement or time (e.g., *walk* vs. *walked*).
Semantics	Affixes alter meaning (e.g., **un-** in ***unhappy***).	**Lexical Semantics:** Derivational morphemes shift the core concept or "truth value" of a word, often creating its antonym or a related concept.

Table 1.1 Interaction of morphology with other linguistic levels

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Pilot questions 1.1

1. Which linguistic branch studies the internal structure of words?
2. What is the smallest meaningful unit in a language called?
3. Why is morphology important for vocabulary development?
4. Give one example of how morphology interacts with phonology.
5. Which affix in the word *unhappiness* changes the meaning to "not happy"?

1.2 Basic Units of Morphological Analysis

1.2.1 Morphemes: free and bound

A **morpheme** is the smallest unit of meaning in a language. Morphemes can be classified as **free morphemes**, which can stand alone as words (for example, *book*, *run*, *happy*), and **bound morphemes**, which cannot stand alone but must attach to other morphemes to convey meaning (for example, prefixes like *un-* or suffixes like *-ness*). Free morphemes carry independent meaning, while bound morphemes modify or refine that meaning.

Fill in the blank: A morpheme that cannot stand alone and must attach to another morpheme is called a _____.

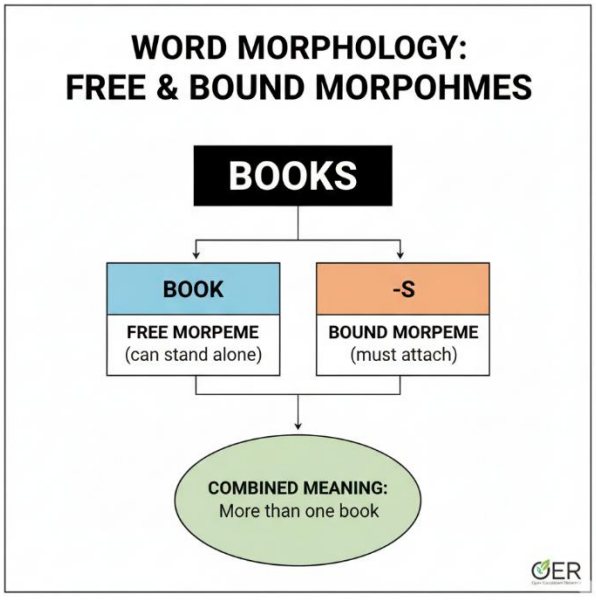

Figure 1.2 Free and bound morphemes in word formation

1.2.2 Roots, stems, and affixes

A **root** is the core part of a word that carries its primary meaning. For example, *teach* is the root in *teacher* and *teaching*. A **stem** is the form of a word to which affixes can be added, often

including the root and some modifications. For instance, *teach* is the root, but *teacher* can serve as a stem when forming *teachers*. **Affixes** are bound morphemes attached to roots or stems, and they include prefixes (added before the root, e.g., *re-* in *rewrite*) and suffixes (added after the root, e.g., *-er* in *teacher*).

Fill in the blank: The part of a word that carries its primary meaning is called the _____.

Full Word	Root	Stem	Affix(es)	Type of Affix
Teacher	Teach	Teacher	-er	Suffix (Derivational)
Rewriting	Write	Rewrite	re-, -ing	Prefix & Suffix
Happiness	Happy	Happiness	-ness	Suffix (Derivational)
Unfriendly	Friend	Unfriendly	un-, -ly	Prefix & Suffix

Table 1.2 Examples of roots, stems, and affixes

1.2.3 Word classes and morphological categories

Word classes are categories of words based on their grammatical function, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Morphology helps to identify how words change form within these classes. For example, nouns can take plural forms (*cat* → *cats*), verbs can change tense (*walk* → *walked*), and adjectives can show comparison (*big* → *bigger*). These changes are known as **morphological categories**, which include number, tense, aspect, case, and degree.

Fill in the blank: When an adjective changes from *big* to *bigger*, this is an example of the morphological category of _____.

Category	Function	Examples	Marker
Number	Indicates the quantity of a noun.	*cat* (singular) → *cats* (plural)	**-s**, **-es**
Tense	Places an action in time.	*walk* (present) → *walked* (past)	**-ed**
Aspect	Indicates the "flow" or completion of an action.	*study* → *is studying* (progressive) / *has studied* (perfect)	**-ing**, **-en/-ed**
Case	Shows the grammatical role of a noun/pronoun.	*he* (subject) → *him* (object) → *his* (possessive)	**-'s** (for nouns)

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Category	Function	Examples	Marker
Degree	Compares the intensity of adjectives/adverbs.	*fast* → *faster* (comparative) → *fastest* (superlative)	**-er**, **-est**

Box 1.2 Common morphological categories in English

Pilot questions 1.2

1. What is the smallest unit of meaning in a language called?
2. Distinguish between free morphemes and bound morphemes with one example each.
3. What is the difference between a root and a stem?
4. Identify the affixes in the word *rewriting*.
5. Which morphological category is illustrated when *cat* changes to *cats*?

1.3 Word Structure and Formation Principles

1.3.1 Simple and complex words

A **simple word** is a word that consists of a single morpheme, such as *dog*, *run*, or *blue*. These words cannot be broken down further without losing their meaning. In contrast, a **complex word** is formed when two or more morphemes combine, such as *dogs* (root *dog* plus plural suffix *-s*) or *unhappy* (prefix *un-* plus root *happy*). Complex words allow the language to expand its vocabulary and express more nuanced meanings.

Fill in the blank: A word like *run* that cannot be broken down further is an example of a _____ word.

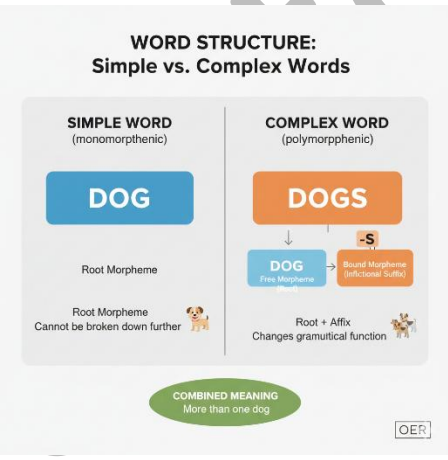

Figure 1.3 Comparison of simple and complex words

1.3.2 Inflectional and derivational processes

Inflection refers to the modification of a word to express grammatical categories such as tense, number, case, or degree, without changing the core meaning or word class. For example, *walk* becomes *walked* to indicate past tense, and *cat* becomes *cats* to indicate plural. **Derivation**, on the other hand, involves creating new words by adding affixes, often changing the meaning or the word class. For instance, *happy* becomes *happiness* (adjective to noun), and *teach* becomes *teacher* (verb to noun).

Fill in the blank: When *happy* changes to *happiness*, this is an example of _____.

Base Word	Inflectional Change	Derivational Change
Walk	**Walked** (Adds past tense marker)	**Walker** (Creates a noun meaning "one who walks")
Cat	**Cats** (Adds plural marker)	**Catlike** (Creates an adjective describing a quality)
Happy	**Happier** (Adds comparative degree)	**Happiness** (Creates an abstract noun)
Organize	**Organizes** (Adds 3rd person singular present)	**Organization** (Creates a noun representing a state/entity)

Table 1.3 Examples of inflectional and derivational processes

1.3.3 Structural patterns in word formation

English word formation follows certain **structural patterns**, which guide how morphemes combine. These include prefixation (adding a prefix before the root, e.g., *re-* in *rewrite*), suffixation (adding a suffix after the root, e.g., *-ness* in *kindness*), compounding (joining two free morphemes, e.g., *blackboard*), and reduplication (rare in English, but seen in playful forms like *bye-bye*). Recognising these patterns helps learners to decode unfamiliar words and expand their vocabulary.

Fill in the blank: The word *blackboard* is formed through the structural pattern known as _____.

Pattern	Mechanism	Examples
Prefixation	Adding an affix to the **beginning** of a root to change its meaning.	*rewrite*, *unhappy*, *disagree*, *preheat*
Suffixation	Adding an affix to the **end** of a root to change its meaning or word class.	*kindness*, *slowly*, *breakable*, *baker*

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Pattern	Mechanism	Examples
Compounding	Combining **two or more free morphemes** to create a single new word.	*blackboard*, *notebook*, *toothpaste*, *sunrise*
Reduplication	Repeating a word or a sound, often for emphasis or informal tone.	*bye-bye*, *so-so*, *mumbo-jumbo*, *hip-hop*

Box 1.3 Common structural patterns in English word formation

Pilot questions 1.3

1. What is the difference between a simple word and a complex word?
2. Which process modifies a word to show tense without changing its word class?
3. Give one example of derivation where a verb changes into a noun.
4. What structural pattern is used in the word *blackboard*?
5. Which morphological process is illustrated when *cat* changes to *cats*?

1.4 Morphological Typology and English Features

1.4.1 Analytic versus synthetic languages

Languages can be classified according to how they use morphology. **Analytic languages** rely heavily on word order and auxiliary words rather than inflectional endings to convey meaning. For example, English often uses separate words like *will* or *have* to indicate tense and aspect. **Synthetic languages**, on the other hand, use inflectional morphemes extensively, attaching endings to words to express grammatical relationships. Latin and Russian are examples of synthetic languages, where word endings carry significant grammatical information.

Fill in the blank: Languages that rely on word order and auxiliary words rather than inflectional endings are called _____ languages.

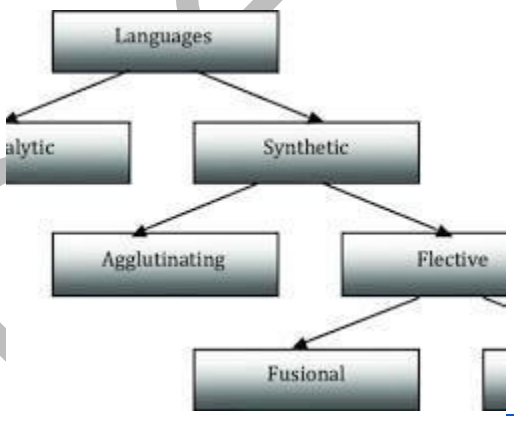

Figure 1.4 Comparison of analytic and synthetic languages

1.4.2 Features of English morphology

English morphology is characterised by a blend of analytic and synthetic features. While English is largely analytic, relying on word order and auxiliary verbs, it retains some synthetic elements such as plural endings (*-s*), tense markers (*-ed*), and comparative forms (*-er*, *-est*). This hybrid nature makes English flexible, allowing it to borrow words easily and adapt them to its morphological system.

Fill in the blank: The suffix *-ed* in *walked* is an example of a _____ feature in English morphology.

Feature	Description	Example
Analytic Structure	Relies on **word order (SVO)** and prepositions rather than case endings to show relationships.	In *"The cat chased the mouse,"* position tells us who did the chasing.
Limited Inflections	Only a few "surviving" endings are used to mark grammar (plural, past tense, possessive).	We only have **8** remaining inflectional morphemes (e.g., *-s, -ed, -ing*).
Auxiliary Reliance	Uses "helper" verbs to express complex timing (tense) and status (aspect).	Instead of a single word ending, we use ***"will have been** working."*
Borrowing Flexibility	Easily adopts roots from other languages and applies English morphology to them.	The French root *"route"* becomes the English verb *"rerouting."*

Box 1.4 Key features of English morphology

1.4.3 Comparative notes on English morphological behaviour

Compared to highly synthetic languages, English shows less reliance on inflection and more dependence on syntax. For instance, while Latin uses endings to indicate case, English uses word order (e.g., *The boy loves the girl* versus *The girl loves the boy*). This makes English easier to learn in terms of morphology but requires careful attention to sentence structure. English also demonstrates adaptability by incorporating borrowed words and adjusting them to fit its morphological patterns, such as adding plural *-s* to borrowed nouns.

Fill in the blank: Unlike Latin, English relies more on _____ to indicate grammatical relationships.

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Feature	English (Analytic)	Latin (Synthetic)	Linguistic Difference
Case Marking	**Word Order:** *"The boy loves the girl."* (Position defines role).	**Inflection:** *"Puella amat puerum."* (The ending *-um* defines the object).	In Latin, word order is flexible because the endings track the "who" and "what."
Plural Formation	**Suffixation:** *Cat → Cats* (Highly regular *-s*).	**Vowel Change/Suffix:** *Amicus → Amici* (Changes based on noun class).	Latin has multiple "declensions," meaning plural rules change depending on the noun.
Tense Marking	**Auxiliaries/Suffix:** *I walked* or *I will walk.*	**Stem Change/Suffix:** *Amavit* (He loved).	Latin often packs person, number, and tense into a single suffix.
Adjective Agreement	**Zero Change:** *"The **tall** boy"* / *"The **tall** girls."*	**Full Agreement:** *"Puer **altus**"* / *"Puellae **altae**."*	Latin adjectives must change their shape to match the gender and number of the noun.

Table 1.4 Comparative notes on English and Latin morphology

Pilot questions 1.4

1. What type of language relies on auxiliary words and word order rather than inflectional endings?
2. Give one example of a synthetic feature in English morphology.
3. How does English indicate case relationships compared to Latin?
4. Which suffix in English is used to form comparative adjectives?
5. Why is English considered flexible in borrowing words?

1.5 Applications of Morphological Knowledge

1.5.1 Morphology in sentence construction

Morphology plays a vital role in **sentence construction**, as the form of words determines how they function grammatically. For example, verbs must agree with subjects in number and tense, while nouns must show plurality or possession where required. By recognising morphological markers such as *-s*, *-ed*, or *-ing*, learners can construct sentences that are grammatically accurate and meaningful.

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Fill in the blank: In the sentence *She walks to school*, the suffix *-s* on *walks* shows _____ agreement.

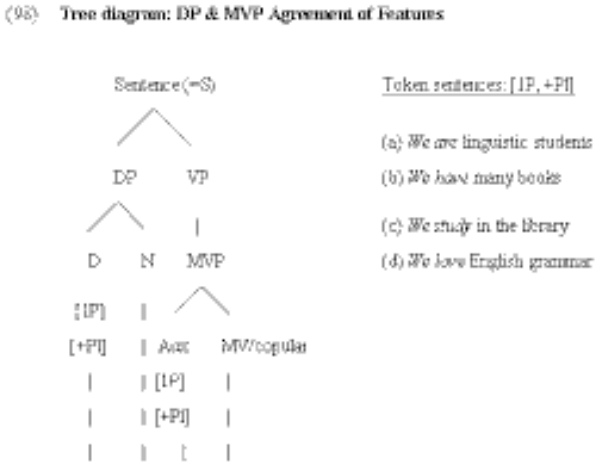

Figure 1.5 Subject-verb agreement through morphology

1.5.2 Morphology in language interpretation

Morphological knowledge aids in **language interpretation**, especially when encountering unfamiliar words. By breaking down words into morphemes, learners can infer meanings. For instance, the word *unbelievable* can be interpreted by recognising *un-* (not), *believe* (root), and *-able* (capable of). This skill is particularly useful in academic reading, translation, and comprehension tasks, where learners often face complex vocabulary.

Fill in the blank: The prefix *un-* in *unbelievable* changes the meaning of the word to _____.

Step	Action	Cognitive Process
1. Identify the Root	Locate the "core" of the word that carries the primary meaning.	Strip away all extra letters to find the base (e.g., in ***indestructible***, the root is ***struct*** - to build).
2. Recognize Affixes	Isolate the prefixes (at the start) and suffixes (at the end).	Identify ***in-*** (not), ***de-*** (reverse/down), and ***-ible*** (able to).
3. Analyze Modification	Determine how each affix changes the root's meaning or category.	***De-struct*** (to un-build) + ***-ible*** (able to be un-built) + ***in-*** (not able to be un-built).
4. Infer Overall Meaning	Combine the parts to form a cohesive definition based on the structure.	***Indestructible*** = Something that cannot be taken apart or destroyed.

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Box 1.5 Steps in interpreting unfamiliar words using morphology

1.5.3 Morphology in everyday English usage

Morphology is not limited to academic study; it is equally important in **everyday English usage**. From forming plurals in daily conversation (*two books*) to using tense markers in storytelling (*I walked home yesterday*), morphology shapes communication. It also influences word choice in professional contexts, such as distinguishing between formal and informal registers (*assist* versus *help*). By applying morphological knowledge, learners can improve clarity, precision, and effectiveness in both spoken and written English.

Fill in the blank: The word *books* in everyday usage shows the morphological category of _____.

Social Context	Word Form	Morphological Feature	Linguistic Purpose
Daily Conversation	**Books**	**Inflectional Suffix** (*-s*)	**Quantity:** Quickly signaling more than one item without needing extra words.
Storytelling/Narrative	**Walked**	**Tense Marker** (*-ed*)	**Chronology:** Anchoring a sequence of events in the past for the listener.
Professional Usage	**Assistance**	**Derivational Suffix** (*-ance*)	**Register:** Turning the verb *assist* into a formal noun to suit a workplace setting.
Social Media/Texting	**Unfriend**	**Prefixation** (*un-*)	**Innovation:** Applying existing rules to new technology to create functional verbs.

Table 1.5 Examples of morphology in everyday English usage

Pilot questions 1.5

1. Which morphological marker shows subject-verb agreement in the sentence *She walks to school*?
2. How can morphological knowledge help in interpreting unfamiliar words?
3. Break down the word *unbelievable* into its morphemes.
4. Give one example of morphology in everyday English usage.
5. Which morphological category is illustrated in the word *books*?

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Series Summary

This Series has introduced you to the foundations of English morphology, emphasising its importance in understanding how words are structured and how meaning is conveyed through their forms. Beginning with the concept and scope of morphology, we explored its definition, relevance, and relationship with other linguistic levels. We then examined the basic units of analysis, including morphemes, roots, stems, and affixes, before moving on to word structures and formation principles such as inflection and derivation. Following that, we considered morphological typology, highlighting the analytic and synthetic features of English, and finally we discussed practical applications of morphological knowledge in sentence construction, language interpretation, and everyday usage.

By completing this Series, you should now be able to define morphology and explain its scope (SLO 2.1), describe its basic units (SLO 2.2), analyse word structures (SLO 2.3), differentiate between inflectional and derivational processes (SLO 2.4), evaluate the features of English morphology in relation to typology (SLO 2.5), and apply morphological knowledge in both academic and everyday contexts (SLO 2.6). These outcomes provide a strong foundation for the subsequent Series, where you will build on this knowledge to explore more advanced processes and patterns of word and sentence formation.

Glossary of Terms

- **Affix**: A bound morpheme attached to a root or stem to modify meaning. Affixes include prefixes (added before the root) and suffixes (added after the root).
- **Analytic language**: A type of language that relies on word order and auxiliary words rather than inflectional endings to convey meaning. English is largely analytic.
- **Bound morpheme**: A morpheme that cannot stand alone as a word and must attach to another morpheme, such as *-s* in *cats* or *un-* in *unhappy*.
- **Complex word**: A word formed by combining two or more morphemes, for example *dogs* (*dog* + *-s*) or *unhappy* (*un-* + *happy*).
- **Derivation**: A morphological process that creates new words by adding affixes, often changing the meaning or word class, such as *teach* → *teacher*.
- **Free morpheme**: A morpheme that can stand alone as a word, such as *book*, *run*, or *happy*.
- **Inflection**: A morphological process that modifies a word to express grammatical categories such as tense, number, or degree, without changing its word class, for example *walk* → *walked*.
- **Morpheme**: The smallest meaningful unit in a language. It cannot be broken down further without losing its meaning.
- **Morphological categories**: Grammatical features expressed through morphology, including number (singular/plural), tense (past/present/future), aspect, case, and degree.
- **Morphology**: The branch of linguistics that studies the internal structure of words and the rules of word formation.
- **Root**: The core part of a word that carries its primary meaning, such as *teach* in *teacher*.
- **Simple word**: A word consisting of a single morpheme, such as *dog* or *run*.

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- **Stem**: The form of a word to which affixes can be added, often including the root and some modifications, such as *teacher* in *teachers*.
- **Structural patterns**: Regular ways in which morphemes combine to form words, including prefixation, suffixation, compounding, and reduplication.
- **Synthetic language**: A type of language that uses inflectional endings extensively to express grammatical relationships, such as Latin or Russian.
- **Word class**: A grammatical category of words based on their function, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Concept Check Questions [Series 1]

Objective questions

1. Which linguistic branch studies the internal structure of words? (Linked to SLO 2.1)
2. A morpheme that cannot stand alone is called a _____. (Linked to SLO 2.2)
3. The word *cats* illustrates which morphological category? (Linked to SLO 2.3)
4. Which process modifies a word to show tense without changing its word class? (Linked to SLO 2.4)
5. English is largely classified as which type of language: analytic or synthetic? (Linked to SLO 2.5)

Short-answer questions

6. Define the term *root* and give one example. (Linked to SLO 2.2)
7. Differentiate between inflection and derivation using one example each. (Linked to SLO 2.4)
8. Explain how morphology interacts with syntax in sentence construction. (Linked to SLO 2.1)
9. Identify one structural pattern of word formation and provide an example. (Linked to SLO 2.3)
10. State one reason why morphological knowledge is important in everyday English usage. (Linked to SLO 2.6)

Long-answer questions

11. Analyse the features of English morphology in relation to analytic and synthetic typology. (Linked to SLO 2.5)
12. Evaluate the role of morphology in interpreting unfamiliar words, using examples to support your explanation. (Linked to SLO 2.6)
13. Discuss the relationship between morphology and other linguistic levels, providing examples of interaction with phonology, syntax, and semantics. (Linked to SLO 2.1)

Answers to Concept Check Questions [Series 1]

Objective questions

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1. Morphology.
2. Bound morpheme.
3. Number (plural).
4. Inflection.
5. Analytic.

Short-answer questions

6. A root is the core part of a word that carries its primary meaning. Example: *teach* in *teacher*.
7. Inflection modifies a word without changing its class, e.g., *walk* → *walked*. Derivation creates a new word or changes class, e.g., *happy* → *happiness*.
8. Morphology interacts with syntax by determining how words fit into sentences, e.g., verb tense affects sentence structure.
9. Compounding, e.g., *blackboard*.
10. It helps in forming plurals, tense markers, and choosing appropriate word forms for clarity.

Long-answer questions

11. *Basic response*: English is predominantly analytic, relying on word order and auxiliary verbs, but it retains synthetic features such as plural endings (*-s*) and tense markers (*-ed*). *Value-added response*: Beyond this, English demonstrates adaptability by borrowing words from other languages and integrating them into its morphological system, showing a hybrid nature that balances analytic and synthetic tendencies.
12. *Basic response*: Morphology helps interpret unfamiliar words by breaking them into morphemes, e.g., *unbelievable* = *un-* (not) + *believe* + *-able* (capable of). *Value-added response*: Advanced learners can apply this skill across disciplines, using morphology to decode technical vocabulary in science, law, or medicine, thereby enhancing comprehension in specialised contexts.
13. *Basic response*: Morphology interacts with phonology (plural *-s* changes pronunciation), syntax (verb tense affects sentence roles), and semantics (affixes alter meaning). *Value-added response*: Outstanding learners may note that these interactions reveal how morphology serves as a bridge between sound, structure, and meaning, making it central to linguistic analysis and language acquisition.

Answers to Pilot Questions [Series 1]

Answers to Pilot Questions 1.1

1. Morphology.
2. Morpheme.
3. Word patterns.
4. Phonology.
5. Prefix *un-*.

Answers to Pilot Questions 1.2

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1. Morpheme.
2. Free morpheme: *book*; Bound morpheme: *-s*.
3. A root is the core meaning unit, while a stem is the form to which affixes are added.
4. Prefix *re-* and suffix *-ing*.
5. Number (plural).

Answers to Pilot Questions 1.3

1. A simple word has one morpheme, while a complex word has two or more morphemes.
2. Inflection.
3. *Teach → teacher*.
4. Compounding.
5. Inflection (plural formation).

Answers to Pilot Questions 1.4

1. Analytic language.
2. Plural suffix *-s*.
3. Word order.
4. Suffix *-er*.
5. Because English can adapt borrowed words to its morphological system.

Answers to Pilot Questions 1.5

1. Subject-verb agreement.
2. By breaking words into morphemes to infer meaning.
3. *Un-* + *believe* + *-able*.
4. Plural formation in *books*.
5. Number (plural).

References and Attributions [Series 1]

This section compiles all references and illustration attributions used or suggested in **Series 1: Foundations of English Morphology**. The referencing style applied here follows APA guidelines for clarity and consistency.

General References

- Aronoff, M., & Fudeman, K. (2011). *What is Morphology?* (2nd ed.). Wiley-Blackwell.
- Katamba, F. (1993). *Morphology*. Macmillan.
- Spencer, A. (1991). *Morphological Theory*. Blackwell.
- Open Educational Resources (OER) consulted for examples and teaching aids: "OER Commons – Linguistics and Morphology Resources." Retrieved from https://www.oercommons.org

Illustration Attributions

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- *Figure 1.1 Word structure analysis of unhappiness*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a simple diagram showing the word ‘unhappiness’ split into prefix, root, and suffix.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram word morphology morphemes prefix root suffix.”
- *Box 1.1 Key reasons for studying morphology*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing four reasons why studying morphology is important.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER teaching resource importance of morphology English linguistics.”
- *Table 1.1 Interaction of morphology with other linguistic levels*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing how morphology interacts with phonology, syntax, and semantics with examples.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER table morphology phonology syntax semantics examples.”
- *Figure 1.2 Free and bound morphemes in word formation*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing the word ‘books’ split into free morpheme ‘book’ and bound morpheme ‘-s’.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram free morpheme bound morpheme examples.”
- *Table 1.2 Examples of roots, stems, and affixes*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of words broken into root, stem, and affixes.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER table roots stems affixes morphology examples.”
- *Box 1.2 Common morphological categories in English*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing common morphological categories in English with examples.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER resource morphological categories English linguistics examples.”
- *Figure 1.3 Comparison of simple and complex words*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram comparing simple words like ‘dog’ with complex words like ‘dogs’.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram simple vs complex words morphology.”

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- *Table 1.3 Examples of inflectional and derivational processes*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of inflectional and derivational changes in English words.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER table inflection vs derivation morphology examples.”
- *Box 1.3 Common structural patterns in English word formation*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing common structural patterns in English word formation with examples.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER resource structural patterns word formation English examples.”
- *Figure 1.4 Comparison of analytic and synthetic languages*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram comparing analytic languages like English with synthetic languages like Latin, showing examples.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram analytic vs synthetic languages morphology.”
- *Box 1.4 Key features of English morphology*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing key features of English morphology with examples.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER resource features of English morphology analytic synthetic.”
- *Table 1.4 Comparative notes on English and Latin morphology*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a table comparing English and Latin morphological features with examples.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER table English vs Latin morphology comparison examples.”
- *Figure 1.5 Subject-verb agreement through morphology*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing subject-verb agreement in English sentences using morphology.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram subject verb agreement morphology English.”
- *Box 1.5 Steps in interpreting unfamiliar words using morphology*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing steps for interpreting unfamiliar words using morphology.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER resource interpreting words using morphology English linguistics.”

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- *Table 1.5 Examples of morphology in everyday English usage*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of morphology in everyday English usage with contexts.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER table morphology everyday English usage examples.”

Course code: ENG 211
Course title: English Morphology
Course credit load: 3 Units

Series 1: Foundations of English Morphology

Series 2: Processes of Word and Sentence Formation

Series 3: English Derivatives and Structural Patterns

Series 4: Borrowing, Creolization, and Grammaticalization

Series 5: Analogy and Change in Morphological Features

Proposed Outline for Series 2

Part 1 Word formation processes

- **2.1.1 Compounding**
- **2.1.2 Reduplication**
- **2.1.3 Blending and clipping**

Part 2 Affixation and morphological productivity

- **2.2.1 Prefixation**
- **2.2.2 Suffixation**
- **2.2.3 Productivity of affixes in English**

Part 3 Inflectional processes in sentence formation

- **2.3.1 Number and case marking**
- **2.3.2 Tense and aspect marking**
- **2.3.3 Agreement in sentences**

Part 4 Derivational processes and word class change

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- **2.4.1 Conversion (zero derivation)**
- **2.4.2 Nominalisation, verbalisation, adjectivalisation**
- **2.4.3 Semantic shifts in derivation**

Part 5 Sentence-level morphological structures

- **2.5.1 Role of morphology in syntax**
- **2.5.2 Morphological cues in sentence interpretation**
- **2.5.3 Morphology and cohesion in discourse**

Introduction

In the last Series, we explored the foundations of English morphology, focusing on the basic units of word structure and their role in communication. Building on that knowledge, this Series takes you further into the processes by which words and sentences are formed. These processes are central to how English expands its vocabulary, expresses grammatical relationships, and creates meaning in both spoken and written contexts. Understanding them will strengthen your ability to analyse language and use it effectively.

The aim of this Series is to equip you with the skills to identify, explain, and apply the major processes of word and sentence formation in English. By the end, you should be able to recognise how words are created, modified, and integrated into sentences, and how these processes contribute to clarity and cohesion in communication.

We shall commence this Series by examining word formation processes such as compounding, reduplication, blending, and clipping. Next, we will move on to affixation and morphological productivity, considering how prefixes and suffixes expand the vocabulary of English. Following that, we will explore inflectional processes in sentence formation, focusing on number, case, tense, aspect, and agreement. Subsequently, we will study derivational processes and how they lead to word class changes and semantic shifts. Finally, we will wrap up by discussing sentence-level morphological structures, highlighting the role of morphology in syntax, interpretation, and discourse cohesion.

Series Learning Outcomes

Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

- **SLO 2.1** describe the major word formation processes in English, including compounding, reduplication, blending, and clipping,
- **SLO 2.2** explain how affixation operates through prefixation and suffixation, and evaluate the productivity of affixes in English,

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- **SLO 2.3** analyse inflectional processes in sentence formation, focusing on number, case, tense, aspect, and agreement,
- **SLO 2.4** demonstrate how derivational processes lead to word class changes and semantic shifts,
- **SLO 2.5** apply knowledge of sentence-level morphological structures to interpret syntax, cohesion, and discourse meaning.

2.1 Word Formation Processes

2.1.1 Compounding

Compounding is the process of forming a new word by joining two or more free morphemes. These morphemes can belong to the same or different word classes. For example, blackboard combines black (adjective) and board (noun), while babysit combines baby (noun) and sit (verb). Compounds often carry meanings that are not simply the sum of their parts, which makes them unique in communication.

Fill in the blank: The word blackboard is formed by joining two _____ morphemes.

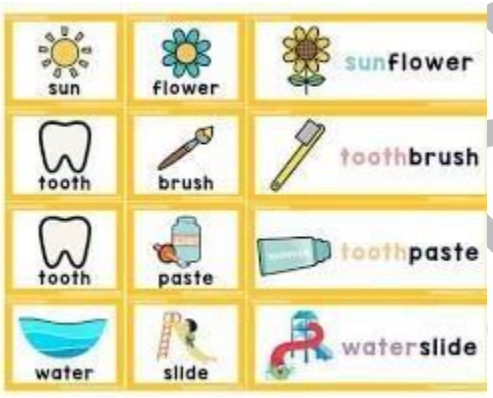

Figure 2.1 Examples of compound words in English

2.1.2 Reduplication

Reduplication is a word formation process where a morpheme or part of a morpheme is repeated to create a new word or to modify meaning. In English, reduplication is relatively rare but appears in playful or informal expressions such as bye-bye, tick-tock, or hip-hop. In other languages, reduplication is more systematic, used to indicate plurality, intensity, or continuous action.

Fill in the blank: The word bye-bye is an example of _____ in English word formation.

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Function	Description	Examples
Repetition & Continuity	Signals that an action is ongoing, repeated, or increased in intensity.	**Malay:** *Lari-lari* (to keep running/to jog). **English:** *Talk-talk* ("He didn't just mention it, he *talk-talked* about it").
Plurality & Distribution	Used to indicate more than one item or that items are spread out.	**Indonesian:** *Buku* (book) → *Buku-buku* (books). **Japanese:** *Hito* (person) → *Hitobito* (people).
Playfulness & Diminutives	Creates informal, affectionate, or child-directed speech.	**English:** *Choo-choo*, *teeny-weeny*, *night-night*. **Tagalog:** *Halo-halo* (mix-mix; a famous dessert).
Contrastive Focus	Distinguishes the "real" or "prototype" version of something from a lesser version.	**English (Casual):** "I like him, but I don't *like-like* him."

Box 2.1 Functions of reduplication in languages

2.1.3 Blending and clipping

Blending is the process of combining parts of two words to form a new one. For example, brunch comes from breakfast and lunch, while smog comes from smoke and fog. Blends often emerge in modern usage, especially in technology and popular culture. **Clipping** involves shortening a longer

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word without changing its meaning. For instance, exam is clipped from examination, and phone from telephone. Clipping makes communication faster and more convenient, especially in informal contexts.

Fill in the blank: The word brunch is formed by combining parts of breakfast and _____.

Process	Example Word	Source Word(s)	Mechanism
Blending	**Brunch**	Breakfast + Lunch	Combining the beginning of one word with the end of another.
Blending	**Smog**	Smoke + Fog	Merging two words to create a new concept that shares traits of both.
Clipping	**Exam**	Examination	Dropping the end of a word (**Back-clipping**) to make it shorter.
Clipping	**Phone**	Telephone	Dropping the beginning of a word (**Fore-clipping**) for ease of use.
Blending	**Motel**	Motor + Hotel	Creating a "portmanteau" to describe a specific hybrid service.
Clipping	**Flu**	Influenza	Removing both the beginning and the end (**Middle-clipping**).

Table 2.1 Examples of blending and clipping in English

Pilot questions 2.1

1. What is the process of forming a new word by joining two free morphemes?
2. Give one example of reduplication in English.
3. Which process is illustrated by the word brunch?
4. What is the difference between blending and clipping?
5. Provide one example of a clipped word in English.

2.2 Affixation and Morphological Productivity

2.2.1 Prefixation

Prefixation is the process of adding a **prefix** (a bound morpheme placed before the root or stem) to form a new word. Prefixes often modify meaning without changing the word class. For example, rewrite (re- + write) means “to write again,” and unhappy (un- + happy) means “not happy.” Prefixes are highly productive in English, allowing speakers to create new words quickly and intuitively.

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Fill in the blank: The prefix re- in rewrite changes the meaning of the word to _____.

Figure 2.2 Examples of prefixation in English

2.2.2 Suffixation

Suffixation is the process of adding a **suffix** (a bound morpheme placed after the root or stem) to form a new word. Suffixes can either modify meaning or change the word class. For instance, teacher (teach + -er) changes a verb into a noun, while happiness (happy + -ness) changes an adjective into a noun. Suffixes are essential in expanding vocabulary and creating new grammatical forms.

Fill in the blank: The suffix -ness in happiness changes the word class from adjective to _____.

Base Word	Suffix	New Word	Word Class Change	Function
Teach	**-er**	**Teacher**	**Verb → Noun**	Identifies the "doer" of the action.
Happy	**-ness**	**Happiness**	**Adjective → Noun**	Creates an abstract state or quality.
Quick	**-ly**	**Quickly**	**Adjective → Adverb**	Describes the manner of an action.
Modern	**-ize**	**Modernize**	**Adjective → Verb**	Indicates the process of making something so.
Comfort	**-able**	**Comfortable**	**Noun/Verb → Adjective**	Describes a capability or state.

Table 2.2 Examples of suffixation in English

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2.2.3 Productivity of affixes in English

Morphological productivity refers to the extent to which an affix can be used to form new words. Some affixes are highly productive, meaning they are frequently used to create new words, while others are less productive. For example, the suffix -ness is highly productive, forming words like kindness, sadness, and darkness. In contrast, the suffix -th (as in warmth) is less productive, with only a few words in modern English. Productivity is important because it shows how flexible and adaptable a language is in creating new vocabulary.

Fill in the blank: The suffix -ness is considered highly _____ in English word formation.

Productivity Level	Affix	Examples	Description
Highly Productive	**-ness**	*Smallness, tweetness, viralness*	Can be added to almost any adjective to create a noun.
	-er	*Runner, blogger, tiktoker*	The "go-to" suffix for creating an agent (someone who does the action).
	un-	*Unhappy, unfriend, un-googleable*	Extremely flexible prefix for indicating negation or reversal.
Less Productive	**-th**	*Warmth, growth, stealth*	Mostly found in "old" words; we don't use it to make new words (we don't say *"coldth"*).
	-en	*Oxen, children*	An old plural marker replaced by *-s*. It survives in only a handful of words.
	-hood	*Brotherhood, childhood*	Rarely used to create new categories today (we don't say *"friendhood"*).

Box 2.2 Examples of productive and less productive affixes in English

Pilot questions 2.2

1. What is the process of adding a bound morpheme before the root called?
2. Give one example of a word formed through suffixation.
3. Which suffix changes happy into happiness?
4. What does morphological productivity refer to?
5. Name one highly productive affix in English.

2.3 Inflectional Processes in Sentence Formation

2.3.1 Number and case marking

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Inflection is the process of modifying a word to express grammatical categories without changing its core meaning or word class. In English, one of the most common inflectional processes is **number marking**, where nouns change form to indicate singular or plural. For example, cat becomes cats with the addition of the suffix -s. Another important process is **case marking**, which shows the grammatical role of a noun or pronoun in a sentence. English uses limited case marking, such as the possessive -'s in the boy's book or pronoun forms like he (subject) and him (object).

Fill in the blank: The suffix -s in cats is an example of _____ marking in English.

Base Word	Inflected Form	Category	Morphological Process
Cat	**Cats**	**Number (Plural)**	Suffixation (Adding the plural morpheme *-s*).
Boy	**Boy's**	**Case (Possessive)**	Enclitic (Adding *-'s* to show ownership).
He	**Him**	**Case (Object)**	Suppletion (Total word change from subject to object).
Child	**Children**	**Number (Plural)**	Irregular suffixation (A surviving Old English plural).
They	**Their**	**Case (Possessive)**	Pronominal inflection (Changes to show possession).

Table 2.3 Examples of number and case marking in English

2.3.2 Tense and aspect marking

English verbs are inflected to show **tense** (time reference) and **aspect** (the nature of the action). For example, walk becomes walked to indicate past tense, while is walking shows present progressive aspect. Tense markers such as -ed and aspect markers such as -ing are crucial for expressing when an action occurs and whether it is ongoing, completed, or habitual.

Fill in the blank: The suffix -ed in walked is an example of _____ marking in English verbs.

Aspect	Description	Present Tense	Past Tense	Future Tense
Simple	Indicates a general fact or completed habit.	*Walk(s)*	*Walked*	*Will walk*

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Aspect	Description	Present Tense	Past Tense	Future Tense
Progressive	Indicates an ongoing or continuous action.	*Is walking*	*Was walking*	*Will be walking*
Perfect	Indicates an action completed before a point.	*Has walked*	*Had walked*	*Will have walked*
Perf. Prog.	Indicates duration leading up to a point.	*Has been walking*	*Had been walking*	*Will have been walking*

Figure 2.3 Examples of tense and aspect marking in English verbs

2.3.3 Agreement in sentences

Agreement refers to the grammatical relationship between words in a sentence, where one word changes form to match another. In English, the most common type is **subject-verb agreement**, where the verb form changes depending on the subject. For example, She walks (singular subject with -s) versus They walk (plural subject without -s). Agreement ensures clarity and grammatical correctness in sentence construction.

Fill in the blank: In the sentence She walks to school, the suffix -s on walks shows subject-_____ agreement.

Type of Agreement	Rule	Examples
Subject-Verb	The verb must match the number and person of the subject.	*She **walks*** (Singular) *They **walk*** (Plural)
Pronoun-Antecedent	A pronoun must match the noun it replaces in gender and number.	*The **boy** lost **his** book.*

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Type of Agreement	Rule	Examples
		*The **students** forgot **their** pens.*
Determiner-Noun	Demonstrative adjectives must match the number of the noun.	***This** book* (Singular) ***These** books* (Plural)

Box 2.3 Common types of agreement in English

Pilot questions 2.3

1. What is the process of modifying a word to express grammatical categories without changing its word class?
2. Which suffix marks plural number in English nouns?
3. Give one example of case marking in English.
4. What does the suffix -ed indicate in verbs?
5. Provide one example of subject-verb agreement in English.

2.4 Derivational Processes and Word Class Change

2.4.1 Conversion (zero derivation)

Conversion, also known as **zero derivation**, is a derivational process where a word changes its grammatical class without the addition of an affix. For example, the noun email can be used as a verb (to email), and the verb run can be used as a noun (a run). This process is common in English because of its flexible word classes and reliance on context to determine meaning.

Fill in the blank: When the noun email is used as a verb (to email), this is an example of _____.

Base Category	New Category	Example	Sentence Context
Noun	**Verb**	**Email**	"I received an **email**." $\rightarrow$ "I will **email** you."

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Base Category	New Category	Example	Sentence Context
Verb	**Noun**	**Run**	"I like to **run**." $\rightarrow$ "I went for a **run**."
Adjective	**Noun**	**Better**	"He is a **better** player." $\rightarrow$ "He is your **better**."
Adjective	**Verb**	**Empty**	"The box is **empty**." $\rightarrow$ "Please **empty** the box."

Figure 2.4 Examples of conversion in English

2.4.2 Nominalisation, verbalisation, adjectivalisation

Nominalisation is the process of forming nouns from other word classes, often through suffixation. For example, decide (verb) becomes decision (noun). **Verbalisation** refers to forming verbs from other classes, such as symbol (noun) becoming symbolise (verb). **Adjectivalisation** involves forming adjectives from other classes, such as danger (noun) becoming dangerous (adjective). These processes expand vocabulary and allow for more precise expression.

Fill in the blank: The word decision formed from decide is an example of _____.

Base Word	Process	Suffix	New Word	Class Change
Decide	**Nominalisation**	*-ion*	**Decision**	Verb $\rightarrow$ Noun
Symbol	**Verbalisation**	*-ise / -ize*	**Symbolise**	Noun $\rightarrow$ Verb
Danger	**Adjectivalisation**	*-ous*	**Dangerous**	Noun $\rightarrow$ Adjective
Beauty	**Verbalisation**	*-ify*	**Beautify**	Noun $\rightarrow$ Verb
Friend	**Adjectivalisation**	*-ly*	**Friendly**	Noun $\rightarrow$ Adjective
Refuse	**Nominalisation**	*-al*	**Refusal**	Verb $\rightarrow$ Noun

Table 2.4 Examples of nominalisation, verbalisation, and adjectivalisation

2.4.3 Semantic shifts in derivation

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Semantic shift occurs when a derived word changes meaning beyond its original root. For example, editor (from edit) does not simply mean "one who edits" but often refers to a person with broader responsibilities in publishing. Similarly, driver (from drive) refers not only to someone who drives but also to a software component in computing. Semantic shifts show how derivation can expand meanings and adapt words to new contexts.

Fill in the blank: The word driver in computing is an example of a semantic _____ in derivation.

Word	Original Morphological Meaning	Modern Shifted Meaning	Type of Shift
Editor	**"One who edits"** (Agent suffix *-or*). A person who corrects text.	**"Manager of publication."** A high-level executive who makes content decisions.	**Specialization:** The role moved from a technical task to a position of authority.
Driver	**"One who drives"** (Agent suffix *-er*). Originally referred to someone steering animals or a car.	**"Software component."** A program that controls a specific hardware device.	**Metaphorical Extension:** The "control" aspect of driving was applied to computer logic.
Mouse	**"A small animal."**	**"Computer device."** A handheld hardware tool used to move a cursor.	**Metaphorical Extension:** Named based on the physical resemblance (shape and "tail" cord).
Broadcast	**"To cast seeds broadly"** (Verb + Adverb). An agricultural term.	**"To transmit signals."** Sending radio or television waves to a wide audience.	**Generalization:** A specific physical action became a broad communicative concept.

Box 2.4 Examples of semantic shifts in derivation

Pilot questions 2.4

1. What is the process where a word changes class without adding an affix?
2. Give one example of nominalisation in English.
3. Which process changes symbol into symbolise?
4. What is adjectivalisation?
5. Provide one example of a semantic shift in derivation.

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2.5 Sentence-Level Morphological Structures

2.5.1 Role of morphology in syntax

Syntax refers to the arrangement of words in sentences, and morphology plays a crucial role in shaping this arrangement. For example, verb inflections such as -s in she walks or -ed in he walked determine how verbs agree with subjects and how tense is expressed. Without these morphological markers, sentences would lose clarity and grammatical correctness.

Fill in the blank: The suffix -ed in walked helps to indicate _____ in a sentence.

Morphological Change	Example	Syntactic Impact
Person Agreement	*She **walks***	The suffix ***-s*** signals a singular, third-person subject.
Number Agreement	*They **walk***	The **zero-morpheme** (lack of *-s*) signals a plural subject.
Tense Anchoring	*He **walked***	The suffix ***-ed*** shifts the entire sentence timeline to the past.
Case Signaling	***He** saw **him***	The change from *He* to *him* tells the syntax who is the "doer" and who is the "receiver."

Figure 2.5 Morphological markers shaping syntax

2.5.2 Morphological cues in sentence interpretation

Morphological cues are signals within words that help readers or listeners interpret sentence meaning. For instance, plural markers (-s) indicate more than one item, while tense markers (-ed, -ing) show when an action occurred. These cues guide comprehension by linking word forms to their grammatical roles. In reading and listening, recognising morphological cues helps learners decode meaning more efficiently.

Fill in the blank: The suffix -s in books serves as a morphological cue for _____.

Cue Type	Morphological Marker	Interpretive Function	Example
Plural Markers	Suffix ***-s*** or ***-es***	**Quantity:** Distinguishes between a single entity and a group.	*"The **cat** is here"* vs. *"The **cats** are here."*

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Cue Type	Morphological Marker	Interpretive Function	Example
Tense Markers	Suffix ***-ed*** or auxiliary verbs	**Temporality:** Locates the action on a timeline (past vs. present).	*"They **walked**"* (Finished) vs. *"They **are walking**"* (Ongoing).
Possessive Markers	Enclitic ***-'s***	**Relational:** Identifies ownership or a specific association.	*"The **boy's** book"* (One boy) vs. *"The **boys'** book"* (Multiple boys).
Agentive Markers	Suffix ***-er*** or ***-or***	**Role Identification:** Identifies who is performing an action.	*"The **teach-er**"* (The person who instructs).

Box 2.5 Examples of morphological cues in sentence interpretation

2.5.3 Morphology and cohesion in discourse

Cohesion refers to how sentences and ideas are linked together in discourse. Morphology contributes to cohesion by providing consistent word forms that connect ideas. For example, pronoun inflections (he, him, his) maintain reference to the same subject across sentences, while tense consistency ensures smooth narrative flow. Morphological markers thus help texts and conversations remain coherent and easy to follow.

Fill in the blank: Pronoun forms such as he, him, and his contribute to discourse _____.

Morphological Feature	Example	Cohesive Function	Effect on Discourse
Pronoun Inflection	**He / Him / His**	**Anaphoric Reference**	Keeps the subject clear across sentences without repeating the name.
Tense Consistency	**Walked / Was walking**	**Temporal Continuity**	Prevents "narrative jarring" by keeping the story in a single time frame.
Possessive Markers	**Teacher's / Student's**	**Relational Tracking**	Clarifies ownership and associations between entities in the text.

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Morphological Feature	Example	Cohesive Function	Effect on Discourse
Derivational Links	**Produce / Product**	**Lexical Cohesion**	Connects ideas by using different word classes of the same root.

Table 2.5 Examples of morphology supporting cohesion in discourse

Pilot questions 2.5

1. How does morphology influence syntax in sentence construction?
2. What does the suffix -ed indicate in the word walked?
3. Give one example of a morphological cue in sentence interpretation.
4. How do pronoun inflections contribute to cohesion in discourse?
5. Provide one example of tense consistency supporting cohesion in a narrative.

Series Summary

This Series has focused on the processes by which words and sentences are formed in English, building on the foundations of morphology introduced earlier. Its purpose has been to show how language expands, adapts, and conveys meaning through systematic processes. We began with word formation processes such as compounding, reduplication, blending, and clipping, then moved on to affixation and the productivity of prefixes and suffixes. Following that, we examined inflectional processes in sentence formation, including number, case, tense, aspect, and agreement. We continued with derivational processes that lead to word class changes and semantic shifts, and finally explored sentence-level morphological structures, highlighting how morphology supports syntax, interpretation, and cohesion in discourse.

By completing this Series, you should now be able to describe word formation processes (SLO 2.1), explain affixation and evaluate affix productivity (SLO 2.2), analyse inflectional processes in sentence construction (SLO 2.3), demonstrate how derivation changes word classes and meanings (SLO 2.4), and apply morphological knowledge to interpret and connect sentences in discourse (SLO 2.5). These outcomes provide you with practical tools for analysing and using English more effectively, preparing you to engage with more advanced aspects of morphology in subsequent Series.

Glossary of Terms

- **Affix**: A bound morpheme added to a root or stem to change meaning or form. Affixes include prefixes (before the root) and suffixes (after the root).
- **Agreement**: A grammatical relationship where one word changes form to match another, such as subject-verb agreement (She walks vs They walk).

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- **Blending**: A word formation process where parts of two words are combined to create a new word, for example brunch from breakfast and lunch.
- **Case marking**: A morphological process that shows the grammatical role of a noun or pronoun in a sentence, such as possessive boy's or pronoun forms like he/him.
- **Clipping**: A word formation process where a longer word is shortened without changing its meaning, for example exam from examination.
- **Cohesion**: The way sentences and ideas are linked together in discourse, often supported by morphological markers like pronouns or tense consistency.
- **Conversion (zero derivation)**: A derivational process where a word changes its grammatical class without adding an affix, such as email (noun) becoming to email (verb).
- **Inflection**: A morphological process that modifies a word to express grammatical categories such as tense, number, or case, without changing its word class.
- **Morphological cues**: Signals within words, such as plural or tense markers, that help readers or listeners interpret sentence meaning.
- **Morphological productivity**: The extent to which an affix is used to form new words. For example, -ness is highly productive, while -th is less productive.
- **Nominalisation**: A derivational process that forms nouns from other word classes, such as decide → decision.
- **Prefixation**: The addition of a prefix before a root or stem to create a new word, such as un- in unhappy.
- **Reduplication**: A word formation process where a morpheme or part of a morpheme is repeated, as in bye-bye or tick-tock.
- **Semantic shift**: A change in meaning that occurs when a derived word develops a broader or different sense, such as driver referring to a software component.
- **Suffixation**: The addition of a suffix after a root or stem to create a new word, such as teach → teacher.
- **Syntax**: The arrangement of words in sentences, influenced by morphology through markers like tense and agreement.
- **Tense and aspect marking**: Inflectional processes that show when an action occurs (tense) and the nature of the action (aspect), for example walked (past tense) and is walking (progressive aspect).
- **Verbalisation**: A derivational process that forms verbs from other word classes, such as symbol → symbolise.

Concept Check Questions [Series 2]

Objective questions

1. Which word formation process creates new words by joining two free morphemes? (Linked to SLO 2.1)
2. The word brunch is formed through which process? (Linked to SLO 2.1)
3. Adding un- to happy is an example of which process? (Linked to SLO 2.2)
4. The suffix -ed in walked indicates which grammatical category? (Linked to SLO 2.3)
5. Changing decide into decision illustrates which derivational process? (Linked to SLO 2.4)

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Short-answer questions

6. Define clipping and give one example. (Linked to SLO 2.1)
7. Explain the difference between prefixation and suffixation with examples. (Linked to SLO 2.2)
8. Provide one example of subject-verb agreement in English. (Linked to SLO 2.3)
9. What is conversion (zero derivation)? Give one example. (Linked to SLO 2.4)
10. Identify one morphological cue that helps in sentence interpretation. (Linked to SLO 2.5)

Long-answer questions

11. Analyse the role of inflectional processes in sentence formation, focusing on number, case, tense, and agreement. (Linked to SLO 2.3)
12. Evaluate how derivational processes contribute to word class changes and semantic shifts, using examples. (Linked to SLO 2.4)
13. Discuss how morphology supports cohesion in discourse, with reference to pronoun inflections and tense consistency. (Linked to SLO 2.5)

Answers to Concept Check Questions [Series 2]

Objective questions

1. Compounding.
2. Blending.
3. Prefixation.
4. Tense (past).
5. Nominalisation.

Short-answer questions

6. Clipping is shortening a longer word without changing its meaning. Example: exam from examination.
7. Prefixation adds an affix before the root, e.g., un- in unhappy. Suffixation adds an affix after the root, e.g., -ness in happiness.
8. Example: She walks (singular subject with verb ending -s).
9. Conversion is changing word class without adding an affix. Example: email (noun) → to email (verb).
10. Plural marker -s in books.

Long-answer questions

11. Basic response: Inflectional processes mark number (cats), case (boy's), tense (walked), and agreement (She walks). Value-added response: Beyond this, inflection ensures grammatical accuracy and clarity, and in languages with richer inflectional systems, it plays a central role in sentence organisation and meaning.

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12. Basic response: Derivational processes change word classes, e.g., decide → decision (verb to noun), and can shift meanings. Value-added response: Outstanding learners may note that derivation also adapts words to new contexts, such as driver meaning both "one who drives" and "software component," showing how language evolves with society and technology.
13. Basic response: Morphology supports cohesion through pronoun inflections (he/him/his) and tense consistency (walked/was walking). Value-added response: Advanced learners may add that these features help maintain reference and narrative flow, ensuring that discourse is coherent and comprehensible across extended texts or conversations.

Answers to Pilot Questions [Series 2]

Answers to Pilot Questions 2.1

1. Compounding.
2. Bye-bye.
3. Blending.
4. Blending combines parts of two words, while clipping shortens a longer word.
5. Exam (from examination).

Answers to Pilot Questions 2.2

1. Prefixation.
2. Teacher (teach + -er).
3. -ness.
4. The extent to which an affix is used to form new words.
5. -ness.

Answers to Pilot Questions 2.3

1. Inflection.
2. -s.
3. Possessive boy's.
4. Past tense.
5. She walks.

Answers to Pilot Questions 2.4

1. Conversion (zero derivation).
2. Decision (from decide).
3. Verbalisation.
4. Forming adjectives from other word classes.
5. Driver (software component).

Answers to Pilot Questions 2.5

1. By shaping word forms that determine sentence structure.

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2. Past tense.
3. Plural marker -s.
4. They maintain reference to the same subject.
5. Walked / was walking.

References and Attributions [Series 2]

This section compiles all references and illustration attributions used or suggested in **Series 2: Processes of Word and Sentence Formation**. The referencing style applied here follows APA guidelines for clarity and consistency.

General References

- Aronoff, M., & Fudeman, K. (2011). *What is Morphology?* (2nd ed.). Wiley-Blackwell.
- Katamba, F. (1993). *Morphology*. Macmillan.
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- Open Educational Resources (OER) consulted for examples and teaching aids: "OER Commons – Linguistics and Morphology Resources." Retrieved from https://www.oercommons.org

Illustration Attributions

- *Figure 2.1 Examples of compound words in English*
    - AI-generated prompt: "Create a diagram showing compound words like blackboard, babysit, and toothpaste with their parts."
    - Suggested OER search string: "OER diagram compound words English morphology examples."
- *Box 2.1 Functions of reduplication in languages*
    - AI-generated prompt: "Generate a text box listing functions of reduplication in languages with examples."
    - Suggested OER search string: "OER resource reduplication functions word formation linguistics examples."
- *Table 2.1 Examples of blending and clipping in English*
    - AI-generated prompt: "Create a table showing examples of blending and clipping in English with source words."
    - Suggested OER search string: "OER table blending clipping word formation English examples."
- *Figure 2.2 Examples of prefixation in English*
    - AI-generated prompt: "Create a diagram showing prefixation examples like rewrite, unhappy, and preview with their parts."

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    - Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram prefixation word formation English examples.”
- *Table 2.2 Examples of suffixation in English*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of suffixation in English with word class changes.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER table suffixation word formation English examples.”
- *Box 2.2 Examples of productive and less productive affixes in English*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing productive and less productive affixes in English with examples.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER resource morphological productivity affixes English examples.”
- *Table 2.3 Examples of number and case marking in English*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of number and case marking in English.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER table number case marking English morphology examples.”
- *Figure 2.3 Examples of tense and aspect marking in English verbs*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing tense and aspect marking in English verbs with examples like walk, walked, is walking.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram tense aspect marking English verbs examples.”
- *Box 2.3 Common types of agreement in English*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing common types of agreement in English with examples.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER resource agreement in English grammar morphology examples.”
- *Figure 2.4 Examples of conversion in English*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing examples of conversion in English, such as email → to email and run → a run.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram conversion zero derivation English examples.”
- *Table 2.4 Examples of nominalisation, verbalisation, and adjectivalisation*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of nominalisation, verbalisation, and adjectivalisation in English.”

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    - Suggested OER search string: “OER table nominalisation verbalisation adjectivalisation English examples.”
- *Box 2.4 Examples of semantic shifts in derivation*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing examples of semantic shifts in derivation with explanations.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER resource semantic shift derivation English examples.”
- *Figure 2.5 Morphological markers shaping syntax*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing how verb inflections like -s and -ed affect sentence syntax.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram morphology syntax English examples.”
- *Box 2.5 Examples of morphological cues in sentence interpretation*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing examples of morphological cues in sentence interpretation with examples.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER resource morphological cues sentence interpretation English examples.”
- *Table 2.5 Examples of morphology supporting cohesion in discourse*
    - AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of morphology supporting cohesion in discourse with cohesive functions.”
    - Suggested OER search string: “OER table morphology cohesion discourse English examples.”

Course code: ENG 211
Course title: English Morphology
Course credit load: 3 Units

Series 1: Foundations of English Morphology

Series 2: Processes of Word and Sentence Formation

Series 3: English Derivatives and Structural Patterns

Series 4: Borrowing, Creolization, and Grammaticalization

Series 5: Analogy and Change in Morphological Features

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Proposed Outline for Series 3

Part 3.1 Introduction to English derivatives

3.1.1 Definition and scope of derivatives
3.1.2 Historical development of derivatives in English
3.1.3 Importance of derivatives in vocabulary expansion

Part 3.2 Types of derivatives in English

3.2.1 Prefixal derivatives
3.2.2 Suffixal derivatives
3.2.3 Conversion and compounding as derivative processes

Part 3.3 Structural patterns in word formation

3.3.1 Common structural patterns (prefixation, suffixation, compounding)
3.3.2 Productivity and constraints in structural patterns
3.3.3 Case studies of structural patterns in modern English

Part 3.4 Semantic and stylistic functions of derivatives

3.4.1 Semantic shifts in derivatives
3.4.2 Stylistic uses of derivatives in literature and everyday speech
3.4.3 Derivatives in specialised registers (science, law, technology)

Part 3.5 Derivatives and sentence-level structures

3.5.1 Role of derivatives in syntax
3.5.2 Cohesion and coherence through derivatives
3.5.3 Derivatives in discourse analysis

Introduction

In the last Series, we explored the processes of word and sentence formation, focusing on how English creates, modifies, and organises words to build meaning. Building on that foundation, this Series turns to **English derivatives and structural patterns**, which are central to understanding how words evolve and how their structures contribute to communication. Derivatives not only expand vocabulary but also shape stylistic choices and discourse, making them vital for both everyday usage and academic study.

The aim of this Series is to introduce you to the different types of English derivatives and to equip you with the skills to analyse their structural patterns, semantic functions, and role in sentence and discourse organisation. By the end, you should be able to recognise, explain, and apply derivative processes in varied contexts.

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We shall commence this Series by examining the definition and scope of English derivatives, including their historical development and importance. Next, we will explore the different types of derivatives, such as prefixal, suffixal, and those formed through conversion and compounding. Following that, we will study structural patterns in word formation, considering their productivity and constraints, with case studies from modern English. Subsequently, we will analyse the semantic and stylistic functions of derivatives, looking at how they shift meaning and enrich expression in literature and specialised registers. Finally, we will wrap up by discussing how derivatives interact with sentence-level structures, supporting syntax, cohesion, and discourse analysis.

Series Learning Outcomes

Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

SLO 3.1 define English derivatives and explain their scope and historical development,
SLO 3.2 identify and classify different types of derivatives, including prefixal, suffixal, conversion, and compounding forms,
SLO 3.3 analyse common structural patterns in word formation and evaluate their productivity and constraints,
SLO 3.4 explain the semantic and stylistic functions of derivatives in everyday usage, literature, and specialised registers,
SLO 3.5 demonstrate how derivatives contribute to sentence-level structures, cohesion, and discourse organisation.

3.1 Introduction to English Derivatives

3.1.1 Definition and scope of derivatives

Derivatives are words formed from existing words through processes such as prefixation, suffixation, conversion, or compounding. They expand the vocabulary of English by creating new forms that carry related but distinct meanings. For example, *happy* becomes *happiness* through suffixation, while *preview* is formed by adding the prefix *pre-* to *view*. The scope of derivatives covers everyday usage, academic registers, and specialised fields, making them essential for both communication and analysis.

Fill in the blank: The word *happiness* is a derivative formed by adding the suffix _____ to *happy*.

Base Word	Affix Type	Affix	Derived Word	Change Produced
Happy	**Suffix**	*-ness*	**Happiness**	**Category Change:** Adjective $\rightarrow$ Noun

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Base Word	Affix Type	Affix	Derived Word	Change Produced
View	**Prefix**	*pre-*	**Preview**	**Meaning Change:** To view $\rightarrow$ To view *beforehand*
Write	**Suffix**	*-er*	**Writer**	**Category Change:** Verb $\rightarrow$ Noun (Agent)
Lucky	**Prefix**	*un-*	**Unlucky**	**Meaning Change:** Positive $\rightarrow$ Negative

Figure 3.1 Examples of English derivatives

3.1.2 Historical development of derivatives in English

The history of English derivatives reflects the language's contact with Latin, French, and other languages. Many prefixes and suffixes entered English through borrowing, especially during the Middle English period. For instance, the suffix *-tion* (as in *nation*) came from Latin via French. Over time, English adapted these borrowed forms and developed its own productive patterns. This historical layering explains why English has multiple affixes with similar functions, such as *-ness* and *-ity* for forming abstract nouns.

Fill in the blank: The suffix *-tion* in words like *nation* was borrowed into English from _____.

Origin	Common Affixes	Examples	Characteristics
Germanic (Old English)	**un-, -hood, -ship, -ness**	*Unhappy, Childhood, Friendship, Goodness*	These are the "core" affixes. They tend to be highly productive and are used for everyday, concrete concepts.
French (Anglo-Norman)	**en-, -ment, -age, -able**	*Enclose, Government, Baggage, Agreeable*	Introduced after the Norman Conquest (1066). These often relate to law, art, military, and social organization.
Latin (Renaissance/Academic)	**-tion, -ity, -ive, post-**	*Production, Clarity, Active, Postpone*	Heavily adopted during the Renaissance for scientific, legal, and academic

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Origin	Common Affixes	Examples	Characteristics
			discourse. They often feel more "formal."
Greek (Scientific)	**-ism, -ize, psycho-, auto-**	*Criticism, Hypnotize, Psychology, Automatic*	Primarily used for technical, philosophical, and medical terminology.

Box 3.1 Historical sources of English derivatives

3.1.3 Importance of derivatives in vocabulary expansion

Derivatives are vital for vocabulary growth because they allow speakers to create new words without inventing entirely new roots. For example, from the root *act*, we derive *action*, *active*, *actor*, and *activate*. Each derivative adds nuance and extends the communicative power of the root. In academic and professional contexts, derivatives are especially important, as they provide precise terms for specialised concepts. Recognising derivatives also helps learners decode unfamiliar words by identifying familiar roots and affixes.

Fill in the blank: From the root *act*, the derivative *actor* refers to a person who _____.

Root Word	Affix	Derivative	Word Class	Meaning
Act	*-ion*	**Action**	Noun	The process of doing something or the way something works.
Act	*-ive*	**Active**	Adjective	Engaged in action; energetic or currently functioning.
Act	*-or*	**Actor**	Noun	An agent or person who performs a specific action or role.
Act	*-ivate*	**Activate**	Verb	To set a process in motion or make something operational.
Act	*re-*	**React**	Verb	To act in response to something else.
Act	*-ual*	**Actual**	Adjective	Existing in fact; typically used to contrast with what is possible.

Table 3.1 Examples of vocabulary expansion through derivatives

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Pilot questions 3.1

What is a derivative in English morphology?
Give one example of a word formed through suffixation.
Which language contributed the suffix *-tion* to English?
Provide one derivative formed from the root *act*.
Why are derivatives important for vocabulary expansion?

3.2 Types of Derivatives in English

3.2.1 Prefixal derivatives

Prefixal derivatives are words formed by adding a **prefix** (a bound morpheme placed before the root or stem) to create new meanings. Prefixes often modify the meaning of the base word without changing its grammatical class. For example, *rewrite* (*re-* + *write*) means "to write again," while *disagree* (*dis-* + *agree*) means "to not agree." Prefixal derivatives are highly productive in English and are frequently used in everyday communication.

Fill in the blank: The prefix *dis-* in *disagree* changes the meaning of the word to _____.

Prefix	Meaning	Base Word	Derivative	Semantic Shift
re-	Again / Back	**Write** (Verb)	**Rewrite** (Verb)	The action is performed a second time.
dis-	Not / Opposite	**Agree** (Verb)	**Disagree** (Verb)	The reversal or negation of the original action.
pre-	Before	**View** (Verb/Noun)	**Preview** (Verb/Noun)	The action happens in advance of a main event.
un-	Not / Opposite	**Happy** (Adj)	**Unhappy** (Adj)	Transforms a state into its negative counterpart.
mis-	Wrongly	**Lead** (Verb)	**Mislead** (Verb)	Indicates that the action was done incorrectly or deceptively.

Figure 3.2 Examples of prefixal derivatives in English

3.2.2 Suffixal derivatives

Suffixal derivatives are words formed by adding a **suffix** (a bound morpheme placed after the root or stem). Suffixes can either modify meaning or change the word class. For instance, *teacher*

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(*teach* + *-er*) changes a verb into a noun, while *happiness* (*happy* + *-ness*) changes an adjective into a noun. Suffixal derivatives are essential for expanding vocabulary and creating new grammatical forms.

Fill in the blank: The suffix *-er* in *teacher* changes the word class from verb to _____.

Base Word	Suffix	Derivative	Word Class Change	Function
Teach	**-er**	**Teacher**	**Verb → Noun**	Identifies the agent or "doer" of the action.
Happy	**-ness**	**Happiness**	**Adjective → Noun**	Converts a state of being into an abstract concept.
Quick	**-ly**	**Quickly**	**Adjective → Adverb**	Describes the manner in which an action is performed.
Modern	**-ize**	**Modernize**	**Adjective → Verb**	Indicates the process of making something "modern."
Comfort	**-able**	**Comfortable**	**Noun/Verb → Adjective**	Describes a state or capacity.

Table 3.2 Examples of suffixal derivatives in English

3.2.3 Conversion and compounding as derivative processes

Conversion (or zero derivation) is a process where a word changes its grammatical class without adding an affix. For example, *email* (noun) can be used as *to email* (verb). **Compounding** involves combining two or more free morphemes to form a new word, such as *blackboard* (*black* + *board*) or *babysit* (*baby* + *sit*). Both processes are considered derivative because they create new words or new uses of existing words.

Fill in the blank: The word *blackboard* is formed by combining two _____ morphemes.

Process	Description	Examples	Key Characteristic
Conversion	A word changes its grammatical category without any physical change to its spelling or sound.	**Email** (Noun) $\rightarrow$ **To email** (Verb)	Also known as "Zero Derivation." The change is signaled by syntax/context.

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Process	Description	Examples	Key Characteristic
		Run (Verb) $\rightarrow$ **A run** (Noun)	
Compounding	Two or more independent words are joined together to form a single new word with a distinct meaning.	**Black** + **Board** = **Blackboard** **Note** + **Book** = **Notebook**	The new word often has a meaning more specific than its individual parts.

Box 3.2 Conversion and compounding as derivative processes

Pilot questions 3.2

What is a prefixal derivative?
Give one example of a suffixal derivative.
Which suffix changes *happy* into *happiness*?
What is conversion in word formation?
Provide one example of compounding as a derivative process.

3.3 Structural Patterns in Word Formation

3.3.1 Common structural patterns

Structural patterns in word formation refer to the recurring ways in which words are built in English. These include **prefixation** (adding a prefix before the root), **suffixation** (adding a suffix after the root), and **compounding** (joining two free morphemes). Each pattern provides a systematic method for creating new words. For example, *unhappy* shows prefixation, *teacher* shows suffixation, and *blackboard* shows compounding. Recognising these patterns helps learners predict and interpret unfamiliar words.

Fill in the blank: The word *blackboard* is an example of the structural pattern known as _____.

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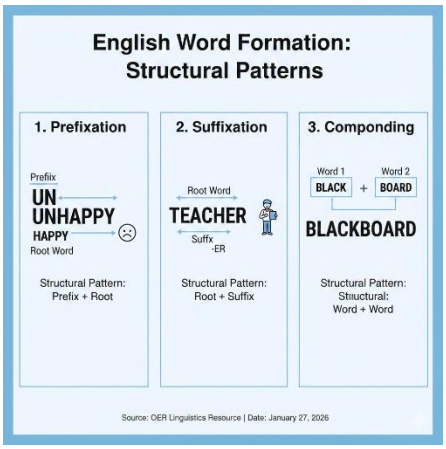

Figure 3.3 Common structural patterns in English word formation

3.3.2 Productivity and constraints in structural patterns

Productivity refers to how frequently a structural pattern is used to form new words. For example, suffixation with *-ness* is highly productive, while suffixation with *-th* is less so. **Constraints** are the limits on how patterns can be applied. For instance, not all adjectives can take *-ness* to form nouns (*fastness* works, but *beautifulness* is rarely used). Productivity and constraints together explain why some patterns generate many words while others remain limited.

Fill in the blank: The suffix *-ness* is considered highly _____ in English word formation.

Productivity Level	Affix	Examples	Pattern	Status
Highly Productive	**un-**	*Unfriend, un-googleable*	Prefix + Adjective/Verb	**Active:** Can be applied to almost any new verb or adjective.
	-ness	*Smallness, viralness*	Adjective + Suffix	**Active:** The default way to turn an adjective into an abstract noun.
	-er	*Blogger, zoomer*	Verb + Suffix	**Active:** The primary way to create an "agent" (doer) from a verb.
Less Productive	**-th**	*Warmth, depth, stealth*	Adjective + Suffix	**Fossilized:** We no longer use this to make new words (we don't say *"coldth"*).

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Productivity Level	Affix	Examples	Pattern	Status
	-hood	*Brotherhood, childhood*	Noun + Suffix	**Restricted:** Mostly limited to kinship or stages of life; rarely used for new concepts.
	-en	*Oxen, children*	Noun + Suffix	**Obsolete:** An old plural marker replaced by the highly productive *-s*.

Box 3.3 Productivity and constraints in structural patterns

3.3.3 Case studies of structural patterns in modern English

Case studies illustrate how structural patterns operate in real contexts. For example, in technology, the prefix *cyber-* has become highly productive, forming words like *cyberspace*, *cybercrime*, and *cybersecurity*. In literature, suffixation with *-ish* creates stylistic adjectives such as *childish* or *foolish*. Compounding is especially common in everyday English, producing words like *smartphone* and *laptop*. These examples show how structural patterns adapt to new domains and remain central to vocabulary growth.

Fill in the blank: The prefix *cyber-* in *cybersecurity* is an example of a modern _____ pattern.

Domain	Pattern	Example Words	Functional Goal
Technology	**Prefixation**	*Cybercrime, Hyperlink, Metadata*	To categorize and define new digital infrastructures.
Literature	**Suffixation**	*Childish, Ghostly, Dreamlike*	To add descriptive texture, tone, and stylistic nuance.
Everyday Use	**Compounding**	*Smartphone, Laptop, Deadline*	To create efficient, single-word names for new objects or concepts.
Science	**Neo-Classical**	*Microbiology, Ecosystem*	To create precise, internationally recognized terminology using Greek/Latin roots.
Social Media	**Conversion**	*To DM, To Like, A Follow*	To repurpose existing words for rapid functional shifts in digital interaction.

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Table 3.3 Case studies of structural patterns in modern English

Pilot questions 3.3

What are structural patterns in word formation?
Give one example of prefixation as a structural pattern.
Which suffix is highly productive in forming abstract nouns?
Provide one example of compounding in modern English.
Why are case studies useful in understanding structural patterns?

3.4 Semantic and Stylistic Functions of Derivatives

3.4.1 Semantic shifts in derivatives

Semantic shift occurs when a derivative develops a meaning that goes beyond its original root. For example, *editor* (from *edit*) does not simply mean "one who edits" but often refers to a person with broader responsibilities in publishing. Similarly, *driver* (from *drive*) can mean both "a person who drives" and "a software component" in computing. These shifts show how derivatives adapt to new contexts and expand the expressive range of English.

Fill in the blank: The word *driver* in computing is an example of a semantic _____ in derivation.

Word	Original Morphological Meaning	Modern Shifted Meaning	Type of Shift
Editor	**"One who edits"** (Root *edit* + agent suffix *-or*). Originally a person who physically corrected text.	**"Manager of a publication."** A professional who oversees content strategy and staff.	**Specialization:** The term shifted from a specific task to a professional rank.
Driver	**"One who drives"** (Root *drive* + agent suffix *-er*). Originally referred to someone steering animals or vehicles.	**"Software component."** A program that allows an operating system to communicate with hardware.	**Metaphorical Extension:** The concept of "controlling a vehicle" was applied to "controlling a device."
Mouse	**"A small animal."**	**"Computer device."** A handheld input tool used to move a cursor.	**Metaphorical Extension:** Named due to the physical resemblance (shape and the wire "tail").

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Word	Original Morphological Meaning	Modern Shifted Meaning	Type of Shift
Monitor	**"One who warns/advises"** (Latin *monere* + *-or*). A person who keeps watch.	**"Display screen."** The primary visual output device for a computer.	**Metonymy:** The function of "watching or checking" became the name for the screen itself.

Box 3.4 Examples of semantic shifts in derivatives

3.4.2 Stylistic uses of derivatives in literature and everyday speech

Derivatives are often used for stylistic effect, adding nuance or creativity to language. In literature, suffixes like *-ish* produce adjectives such as *childish* or *foolish*, which carry connotations beyond their literal meanings. In everyday speech, derivatives can be playful or expressive, as in *selfie* (from *self* + *-ie*) or *foodie*. These stylistic uses show how derivatives enrich communication by adding tone, attitude, or cultural flavour.

Fill in the blank: The suffix *-ish* in *childish* adds a stylistic nuance that suggests _____.

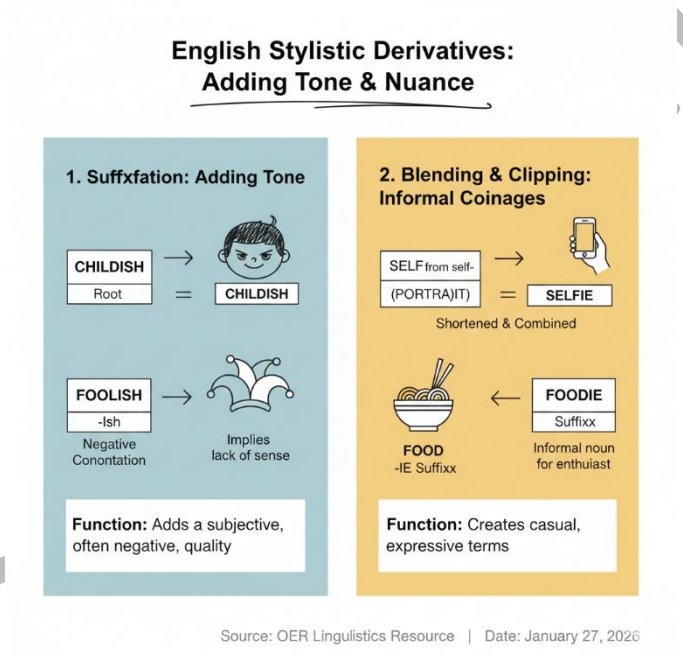

Figure 3.4 Stylistic uses of derivatives in English

3.4.3 Derivatives in specialised registers

In specialised fields such as science, law, and technology, derivatives provide precise terminology. For example, *biology* (*bio-* + *-logy*) refers to the study of life, while *legalise* (*legal* + *-ise*) means to make something lawful. These derivatives are often borrowed from Latin or Greek roots, which give them international recognition and consistency across disciplines. Understanding derivatives in specialised registers helps learners decode technical vocabulary and engage with academic texts more effectively.

Fill in the blank: The derivative *biology* combines the root *bio-* with the suffix _____ to mean "study of life."

Field	Derivative	Components	Word Class	Specialized Meaning
Science	**Biology**	**Bio-** (life) + **-logy** (study)	Noun	The systematic study of living organisms and their environments.
Law	**Legalise**	**Legal** (lawful) + **-ise** (to make)	Verb	To remove a legal prohibition and make an activity lawful.
Technology	**Cybercrime**	**Cyber-** (digital) + **crime**	Noun	Illegal activities conducted via the internet or computer systems.
Medicine	**Hypotension**	**Hypo-** (under) + **tension** (pressure)	Noun	A condition where blood pressure is abnormally low.
Finance	**Monetise**	**Monet-** (money) + **-ise**	Verb	The process of converting an asset or object into legal tender or profit.

Table 3.4 Examples of derivatives in specialised registers

Pilot questions 3.4

What is a semantic shift in derivatives?
Give one example of a stylistic derivative in everyday speech.
Which suffix creates adjectives like *childish* and *foolish*?
Provide one example of a derivative used in science.
Why are derivatives important in specialised registers?

3.5 Derivatives and Sentence-Level Structures

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3.5.1 Role of derivatives in syntax

Derivatives play an important role in **syntax**, which is the arrangement of words in sentences. By changing word classes, derivatives influence how words function grammatically. For example, the verb *decide* becomes the noun *decision*, which can then serve as the subject or object of a sentence. Similarly, *legalise* (verb) allows for constructions like *The government legalised the practice*. These shifts show how derivatives expand the options available for sentence construction.

Fill in the blank: The derivative *decision* can function as the _____ of a sentence.

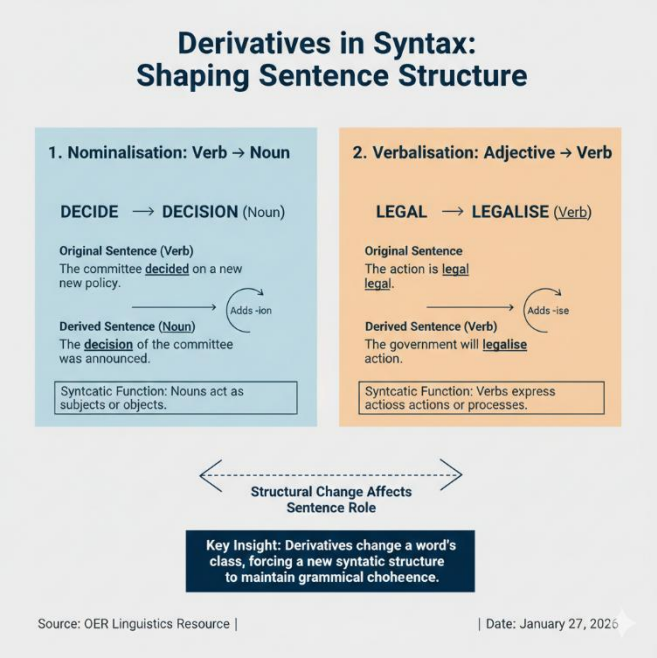

Figure 3.5 Role of derivatives in syntax

3.5.2 Cohesion and coherence through derivatives

Cohesion refers to how sentences are linked together, while **coherence** refers to how ideas flow logically. Derivatives contribute to both by providing consistent word forms that connect ideas. For example, *act*, *action*, and *active* can be used across sentences to maintain thematic unity. In academic writing, derivatives help sustain coherence by allowing precise repetition of related concepts without redundancy.

Fill in the blank: The words *act*, *action*, and *active* help maintain _____ in discourse.

Word	Morphological Form	Discourse Function	Example of Use in Text
Act	**Root (Verb)**	Establishes the initial action or event.	*"If we **act** now, we can save the environment."*

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Word	Morphological Form	Discourse Function	Example of Use in Text
Action	**Noun Derivative**	**Nominalisation:** Recaps the previous action as a single concept.	*"This **action** requires global cooperation."*
Active	**Adjective Derivative**	**Attribute:** Describes the quality or state of the subject.	*"An **active** approach is better than a passive one."*

Box 3.5 Derivatives supporting cohesion and coherence

3.5.3 Derivatives in discourse analysis

In **discourse analysis**, derivatives are examined to understand how language conveys meaning across extended texts. For instance, the repeated use of derivatives like *educate*, *education*, and *educator* in a policy document highlights the central theme of learning. Analysing derivatives helps identify patterns of emphasis, thematic development, and stylistic choices. This makes derivatives a useful tool for interpreting both spoken and written discourse.

Fill in the blank: The repeated use of *educate*, *education*, and *educator* in a text highlights the theme of _____.

Root Word	Derivatives	Discourse Function	Primary Domain
Educate	*Education, Educator, Educational*	**Thematic Reinforcement:** Establishes a "learning" frame, linking people, processes, and qualities.	Academic / Social Policy
Govern	*Government, Governance, Governable*	**Structural Highlighting:** Focuses the reader on the mechanisms of power and administrative systems.	Political / Legal
Inform	*Information, Informative, Informant*	**Communicative Focus:** Reinforces the exchange of knowledge as the central activity of the text.	Media / Research
Analyze	*Analysis, Analyst, Analytical*	**Procedural Tracking:** Signals that the discourse is moving through a logical or investigative process.	Professional / Scientific

Table 3.5 Examples of derivatives in discourse analysis

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Pilot questions 3.5

How do derivatives influence syntax in sentence construction?
Give one example of a derivative that functions as a noun.
What is the difference between cohesion and coherence?
Provide one example of derivatives supporting thematic unity in discourse.
Why are derivatives useful in discourse analysis?

Series Summary

This Series has focused on **structural patterns in word formation**, showing how English systematically builds new words and expands its vocabulary. The purpose has been to help you recognise the recurring processes that shape words and understand their relevance to communication. We began by examining common structural patterns such as prefixation, suffixation, and compounding, then moved on to consider how productivity and constraints affect the use of these patterns. Following that, we explored case studies from modern English, highlighting how structural patterns adapt to domains such as technology, literature, and everyday speech.

By completing this Series, you should now be able to define structural patterns in word formation, identify examples of prefixation, suffixation, and compounding, analyse the productivity of different affixes, and evaluate how these patterns operate in contemporary contexts. These outcomes align with the Series Learning Outcomes (SLOs), ensuring that you can apply morphological knowledge to interpret and explain how English continues to grow and adapt through its structural processes.

Glossary of Terms

Affix: A bound morpheme added to a root or stem to change meaning or form. Affixes include prefixes (before the root) and suffixes (after the root).
Compounding: A word formation process where two or more free morphemes are combined to create a new word, such as *blackboard* or *babysit*.
Conversion (zero derivation): A process where a word changes its grammatical class without adding an affix, for example *email* (noun) becoming *to email* (verb).
Cohesion: The way sentences are linked together in discourse, often supported by consistent word forms such as pronouns or tense markers.
Coherence: The logical flow of ideas in discourse, supported by the use of related derivatives and consistent vocabulary.
Derivative: A word formed from another word through processes such as prefixation, suffixation, conversion, or compounding.
Discourse analysis: The study of how language conveys meaning across extended texts, often examining patterns of word use including derivatives.

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Morphological productivity: The extent to which a structural pattern or affix is used to form new words, for example *-ness* is highly productive.
Prefixal derivative: A derivative formed by adding a prefix before the root, such as *rewrite* or *disagree*.
Semantic shift: A change in meaning that occurs when a derivative develops a broader or different sense, such as *driver* meaning both "one who drives" and "software component".
Structural pattern: A recurring way in which words are built in English, such as prefixation, suffixation, or compounding.
Suffixal derivative: A derivative formed by adding a suffix after the root, such as *teacher* or *happiness*.
Syntax: The arrangement of words in sentences, influenced by derivatives through changes in word class and grammatical function.
Word formation: The processes by which new words are created in a language, including affixation, compounding, conversion, and blending.

Concept Check Questions [Series 3]

Objective questions

Define a derivative in English morphology. (Linked to SLO 3.1)
Identify the process used to form the word *happiness* from *happy*. (Linked to SLO 3.2)
Which structural pattern is illustrated by the word *blackboard*? (Linked to SLO 3.3)
State one suffix that is highly productive in forming abstract nouns. (Linked to SLO 3.4)
Which derivative in computing shows a semantic shift from its original meaning? (Linked to SLO 3.5)

Short-answer questions

Explain the difference between prefixal and suffixal derivatives with one example each. (Linked to SLO 3.2)
Provide one example of conversion (zero derivation) in English. (Linked to SLO 3.2)
Analyse why the suffix *-ness* is considered more productive than *-th*. (Linked to SLO 3.3)
Give one example of a stylistic derivative used in everyday speech. (Linked to SLO 3.4)
Demonstrate how derivatives contribute to cohesion in discourse using the root *act*. (Linked to SLO 3.5)

Long-answer questions

Discuss the historical development of derivatives in English, focusing on Latin and French influences. (Linked to SLO 3.1)
Evaluate the role of structural patterns in modern English, using case studies from technology, literature, and everyday speech. (Linked to SLO 3.3)
Analyse how semantic shifts in derivatives enrich communication, with examples from computing and literature. (Linked to SLO 3.4)

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Explain how derivatives support syntax, cohesion, and discourse analysis at the sentence level. (Linked to SLO 3.5)

Answers to Concept Check Questions [Series 3]

Objective questions

A derivative is a word formed from another word through processes such as prefixation, suffixation, conversion, or compounding.
Suffixation (*happy* + *-ness* → *happiness*).
Compounding.
-ness.
Driver (from "one who drives" to "software component").

Short-answer questions

Prefixal derivatives add a prefix before the root, e.g., *unhappy*. Suffixal derivatives add a suffix after the root, e.g., *teacher*.
Email (noun) → *to email* (verb).
-ness is widely used to form abstract nouns (e.g., *happiness*), while *-th* is limited to older forms (e.g., *warmth*), making *-ness* more productive.
Selfie (from *self* + *-ie*).
Act, *action*, and *active* can be used across sentences to maintain thematic unity and cohesion.

Long-answer questions

Basic response: Latin and French contributed many affixes to English, such as *-tion* and *-ity*, which expanded vocabulary. *Value-added response*: Beyond this, learners may note that borrowing enriched English with international terminology, making it adaptable across academic and professional domains.
Basic response: Structural patterns like prefixation (*cybercrime*), suffixation (*childish*), and compounding (*smartphone*) are widely used in modern English. *Value-added response*: Outstanding learners may add that these patterns reflect cultural and technological change, showing how English evolves to meet new communicative needs.
Basic response: Semantic shifts occur when derivatives gain new meanings, e.g., *driver* in computing or *editor* in publishing. *Value-added response*: Advanced learners may explain that semantic shifts enrich language by allowing words to carry layered meanings, enhancing creativity and precision in communication.
Basic response: Derivatives influence syntax by changing word classes, support cohesion through related forms, and highlight themes in discourse analysis. *Value-added response*: Learners may add that derivatives also provide stylistic variety and enable writers to maintain coherence across extended texts, making discourse more effective and engaging.

Answers to Pilot Questions [Series 3]

Answers to Pilot Questions 3.1

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A derivative is a word formed from another word through processes such as prefixation, suffixation, conversion, or compounding.

Happiness (*happy* + *-ness*).

Latin (via French).

Actor.

They expand vocabulary and add nuance to communication.

Answers to Pilot Questions 3.2

A prefixal derivative is formed by adding a prefix before the root, e.g., *rewrite*.

Teacher (*teach* + *-er*).

-ness.

Conversion is changing word class without adding an affix, e.g., *email* (noun) → *to email* (verb).

Blackboard (*black* + *board*).

Answers to Pilot Questions 3.3

Structural patterns are recurring ways in which words are built, such as prefixation, suffixation, and compounding.

Unhappy.

-ness.

Smartphone.

They show how patterns adapt to different domains and contexts.

Answers to Pilot Questions 3.4

A semantic shift is when a derivative develops a new or broader meaning beyond its root.

Selfie.

-ish.

Biology.

They provide precise terminology in specialised fields.

Answers to Pilot Questions 3.5

By changing word classes, derivatives influence how words function grammatically in sentences.

Decision (noun from *decide*).

Cohesion links sentences, while coherence ensures logical flow of ideas.

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Act, *action*, *active*.

They highlight themes, patterns, and stylistic choices across extended texts.

References and Attributions [Series 3]

This section compiles all references and illustration attributions used or suggested in **Series 3: English Derivatives and Structural Patterns**. The referencing style applied here follows APA guidelines for clarity and consistency.

General References

- Aronoff, M., & Fudeman, K. (2011). *What is Morphology?* (2nd ed.). Wiley-Blackwell.
- Katamba, F. (1993). *Morphology*. Macmillan.
- Spencer, A. (1991). *Morphological Theory*. Blackwell.
- Open Educational Resources (OER) consulted for examples and teaching aids: "OER Commons – Linguistics and Morphology Resources." Retrieved from https://www.oercommons.org

Illustration Attributions

Figure 3.1 Examples of English derivatives

AI-generated prompt: "Create a diagram showing examples of English derivatives such as happy → happiness and view → preview."

Suggested OER search string: "OER diagram English derivatives examples morphology."

Box 3.1 Historical sources of English derivatives

AI-generated prompt: "Generate a text box listing historical sources of English derivatives with examples."

Suggested OER search string: "OER resource history of English derivatives Latin French Germanic affixes."

Table 3.1 Examples of vocabulary expansion through derivatives

AI-generated prompt: "Create a table showing how derivatives expand vocabulary using the root act."

Suggested OER search string: "OER table English derivatives vocabulary expansion examples."

Figure 3.2 Examples of prefixal derivatives in English

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AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing prefixal derivatives such as rewrite, disagree, and preview with their parts.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram prefixal derivatives English examples.”

Table 3.2 Examples of suffixal derivatives in English

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of suffixal derivatives in English with word class changes.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table suffixal derivatives English examples.”

Box 3.2 Conversion and compounding as derivative processes

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box explaining conversion and compounding as derivative processes with examples.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource conversion compounding derivatives English examples.”

Figure 3.3 Common structural patterns in English word formation

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing examples of structural patterns in English word formation such as unhappy, teacher, and blackboard.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram structural patterns word formation English examples.”

Box 3.3 Productivity and constraints in structural patterns

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing productive and less productive structural patterns in English with examples.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource productivity constraints structural patterns English morphology.”

Table 3.3 Case studies of structural patterns in modern English

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing case studies of structural patterns in modern English across domains.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table structural patterns modern English case studies examples.”

Box 3.4 Examples of semantic shifts in derivatives

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing examples of semantic shifts in derivatives with explanations.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource semantic shift derivatives English examples.”

Figure 3.4 Stylistic uses of derivatives in English

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AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing stylistic derivatives such as childish, foolish, selfie, and foodie.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram stylistic derivatives English examples.”

Table 3.4 Examples of derivatives in specialised registers

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of derivatives in specialised registers such as science, law, and technology.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table derivatives specialised registers English examples.”

Figure 3.5 Role of derivatives in syntax

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing how derivatives like decide → decision and legal → legalise function in syntax.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram derivatives syntax English examples.”

Box 3.5 Derivatives supporting cohesion and coherence

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box showing how derivatives like act, action, and active support cohesion and coherence.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource derivatives cohesion coherence discourse examples.”

Table 3.5 Examples of derivatives in discourse analysis

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of derivatives in discourse analysis with their functions.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table derivatives discourse analysis English examples.”

Course code: ENG 211
Course title: English Morphology
Course credit load: 3 Units

Series 1: Foundations of English Morphology

Series 2: Processes of Word and Sentence Formation

Series 3: English Derivatives and Structural Patterns

Series 4: Borrowing, Creolization, and Grammaticalization

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Series 5: Analogy and Change in Morphological Features

Proposed Outline for Series 4

Part .1 Borrowing in English

- **4.1.1 Definition and scope of borrowing**
- **4.1.2 Historical sources of borrowed words (Latin, French, Germanic, others)**
- **4.1.3 Types of borrowing (loanwords, calques, semantic loans)**
- **4.1.4 Impact of borrowing on English vocabulary**

Part .2 Creolization and language contact

- **4.2.1 Definition of creolization**
- **4.2.2 Stages of creole development (pidgin to creole)**
- **4.2.3 Structural features of creoles (phonology, morphology, syntax)**
- **4.2.4 English-based creoles and their significance**

Part .3 Grammaticalization processes

- **4.3.1 Definition and scope of grammaticalization**
- **4.3.2 Pathways of grammaticalization (lexical → grammatical → functional)**
- **4.3.3 Examples in English (will, going to, have to)**
- **4.3.4 Effects of grammaticalization on language change**

Part .4 Interactions among borrowing, creolization, and grammaticalization

- **4.4.1 How borrowing influences creole formation**
- **4.4.2 Grammaticalization in creole languages**
- **4.4.3 Case studies of interaction in English and world languages**

Part .5 Sociolinguistic and cultural implications

- **4.5.1 Borrowing as a reflection of cultural exchange**
- **4.5.2 Creolization and identity**
- **4.5.3 Grammaticalization and language evolution**
- **4.5.4 Contemporary relevance in global English**

Introduction

Languages are living systems that constantly change and adapt through contact, innovation, and cultural exchange. English, in particular, has grown into a global language by absorbing words from other tongues, developing new structures through creolisation, and reshaping existing forms

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through grammaticalisation. Understanding these processes is essential for appreciating how English has evolved and continues to function in diverse contexts.

The aim of this Series is to introduce you to the processes of borrowing, creolisation, and grammaticalisation, and to equip you with the skills to analyse how they shape vocabulary, structure, and meaning in English and related languages.

We shall commence this Series by exploring borrowing in English, looking at its definition, historical sources, and impact on vocabulary. Next, we will examine creolisation and language contact, focusing on how pidgins develop into creoles and the structural features of English-based creoles. Following that, we will study grammaticalisation processes, tracing how lexical items become grammatical markers with examples from English. Moving on, we will consider the interactions among borrowing, creolisation, and grammaticalisation, using case studies to illustrate their combined effects. Finally, we will wrap up by discussing the sociolinguistic and cultural implications of these processes, highlighting their relevance to identity, cultural exchange, and the evolution of global English.

Series Learning Outcomes

Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

- **SLO 4.1** define borrowing in English and explain its historical sources and impact on vocabulary,
- **SLO 4.2** identify and classify different types of borrowing such as loanwords, calques, and semantic loans,
- **SLO 4.3** describe the process of creolisation and outline the stages from pidgin to creole,
- **SLO 4.4** analyse the structural features of English-based creoles in terms of phonology, morphology, and syntax,
- **SLO 4.5** explain grammaticalisation and illustrate its pathways with examples from English,
- **SLO 4.6** evaluate how borrowing, creolisation, and grammaticalisation interact in language development using case studies, and
- **SLO 4.7** discuss the sociolinguistic and cultural implications of these processes in shaping global English.

4.1 Borrowing in English

4.1.1 Definition and scope of borrowing

Borrowing is the process by which one language takes words or expressions from another language. In English, borrowing has been a major source of vocabulary growth, especially through contact with Latin, French, and other languages. Borrowed words may retain their original form or be adapted to fit English pronunciation and spelling. For example, *café* from French and *piano* from Italian are now common in English usage. The scope of borrowing includes everyday vocabulary, technical terms, and cultural expressions.

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Fill in the blank: The word *café* in English is borrowed from _____.

Figure 4.1 Examples of borrowed words in English

4.1.2 Historical sources of borrowed words

English has borrowed extensively from different languages at various stages of its history. From **Latin**, it gained words like *nation* and *radius*. From **French**, especially after the Norman Conquest, it adopted words such as *court*, *judge*, and *beauty*. From **Germanic roots**, it inherited everyday terms like *house* and *bread*. Later, global contact brought words from languages such as Hindi (*bungalow*), Arabic (*algebra*), and Japanese (*karaoke*). These sources demonstrate the layered nature of English vocabulary.

Fill in the blank: The English word *algebra* was borrowed from _____.

Source Language	Example Words	Context of Borrowing
Germanic (Old English)	**House, Bread, Water**	The original "core" vocabulary used for basic survival and the home.
Old Norse	**Sky, Leg, They, Skill**	Introduced during Viking raids; these words often replaced Old English terms.
French	**Court, Judge, Beauty**	Following the Norman Conquest (1066), French became the language of law, art, and the elite.
Latin	**Nation, Radius, Focus**	Adopted during the Renaissance for scientific, legal, and academic advancement.
Arabic	**Algebra, Alcohol, Zero**	Borrowed during the Middle Ages, often through trade and the study of mathematics.
Hindi	**Bungalow, Shampoo, Thug**	Entered English during the British colonial presence in India.
Japanese	**Karaoke, Tsunami, Tycoon**	Modern borrowings related to culture, nature, and business.

Box 4.1 Historical sources of borrowed words in English

4.1.3 Types of borrowing

Borrowing can take several forms. **Loanwords** are direct borrowings, such as *pizza* from Italian. **Calques** are translations of foreign expressions, such as *skyscraper* (from French *gratte-ciel*). **Semantic loans** occur when an existing English word takes on a new meaning under the influence

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of another language. For example, the word *actual* in English gained the meaning "real" influenced by French usage. These types illustrate the different ways borrowing enriches English.

Fill in the blank: The English word *skyscraper* is a _____ of the French *gratte-ciel*.

Type of Borrowing	Definition	Example	Source Language	Mechanism
Loanword	A word adopted from another language with little or no modification.	**Pizza**	Italian	Direct adoption of sound and meaning.
Calque (Loan Translation)	A word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word translation.	**Skyscraper**	French (*Gratte-ciel*)	Translating the "parts" into native equivalents.
Semantic Loan	An existing native word takes on a new meaning borrowed from a foreign word.	**Actual**	French (*Actuel*)	The form is native, but the "idea" is imported.
Loanblend	A hybrid word where part is borrowed and part is native.	**Apple-strudel**	German (*Strudel*)	Combining a foreign root with a native modifier.

Table 4.1 Types of borrowing in English

4.1.4 Impact of borrowing on English vocabulary

Borrowing has greatly expanded the vocabulary of English, making it one of the richest languages in the world. It allows English speakers to express concepts from diverse cultures, sciences, and arts. Borrowed words often fill gaps where no native English term exists, such as *karaoke* or *sushi*. Borrowing also adds stylistic variety, giving speakers options between native and borrowed forms, such as *ask* (native) and *inquire* (French). This impact highlights borrowing as a key driver of linguistic diversity and adaptability.

Fill in the blank: The borrowed word *sushi* fills a vocabulary gap in English by naming a _____ dish.

Plate 4.1 Borrowed cultural words in English

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Pilot questions 4.1

What is borrowing in English morphology?
Give one example of a borrowed word from French.
Which language contributed the word *algebra* to English?
What type of borrowing is illustrated by *skyscraper*?
Why is borrowing important for English vocabulary expansion?

4.2 Creolization and Language Contact

4.2.1 Definition of creolization

Creolization is the process by which a simplified contact language, known as a **pidgin**, develops into a fully functional language called a **creole**. A pidgin usually arises when speakers of different languages need to communicate for trade or work, and it has limited vocabulary and simplified grammar. When a pidgin becomes the native language of a community, it expands in structure and vocabulary, becoming a creole. Creolization is therefore a key process in language development and cultural identity.

Fill in the blank: A pidgin becomes a creole when it is acquired as a _____ language by a community.

Figure 4.2 The process of creolization

4.2.2 Stages of creole development (pidgin to creole)

Creole development typically follows three stages. First, a **pidgin** emerges as a simplified means of communication. Second, the pidgin stabilises and is used more widely across generations. Third, when children grow up learning the pidgin as their first language, it becomes a **creole**. This process shows how languages evolve naturally in multilingual settings.

Fill in the blank: The stabilisation of a pidgin is the second stage in the development of a _____.

Stage	Process	Linguistic Characteristics	Social Context
Stage 1	**Pre-Pidgin (Emergence)**	Extremely simplified, unstable grammar; high reliance on gestures and context.	Initial contact between groups (e.g., trade or plantation labor) with no common language.
Stage 2	**Stabilized Pidgin**	Fixed word order emerges; reduced vocabulary; no native speakers.	Regular, ongoing contact. Used only for limited

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Stage	Process	Linguistic Characteristics	Social Context
			functional purposes (buying/selling).
Stage 3	**Expanded Pidgin**	Vocabulary grows to cover non-work topics; complex syntax begins to develop.	Becomes a primary means of communication within a multilingual community.
Stage 4	**Creolization (Acquisition)**	**Nativization:** Children learn the pidgin as their first language.	The language becomes a native tongue, gaining full grammatical complexity.

Box 4.2 Stages of creole development

4.2.3 Structural features of creoles (phonology, morphology, syntax)

Creoles often display distinctive structural features. In **phonology**, they may simplify consonant clusters (e.g., *desk* → *des*). In **morphology**, creoles tend to use fewer inflections, relying instead on word order or particles. In **syntax**, they often adopt subject-verb-object order and use markers for tense and aspect rather than inflected endings. These features make creoles accessible yet expressive, reflecting their origins in multilingual contact.

Fill in the blank: Creoles often simplify _____ clusters in their phonological structure.

Feature	Example	Explanation	Linguistic Category
Phonology	**Desk** $\rightarrow$ **Des**	**Consonant Cluster Reduction:** Complex sounds are simplified to a "Consonant-Vowel" (CV) pattern.	Sound System
Morphology	**Two dog** (instead of *Two dogs*)	**Loss of Inflection:** Plurals or cases are marked by numbers or particles rather than changing the word ending.	Word Structure
Syntax	**I bin see him**	**Tense-Mood-Aspect (TMA) Markers:** Pre-verbal particles (like *bin*) are used instead of suffixing the verb (like *-ed*).	Sentence Structure
Lexicon	**Pikinini** (Child)	**Multifunctionality:** A single word often functions as a noun, verb, and adjective depending on position.	Vocabulary

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Table 4.2 Structural features of creoles

4.2.4 English-based creoles and their significance

English-based creoles are spoken in regions such as the Caribbean, West Africa, and the Pacific. Examples include Jamaican Creole, Nigerian Pidgin (which has creolised in some communities), and Tok Pisin in Papua New Guinea. These creoles blend English vocabulary with local linguistic structures, creating unique languages that serve as symbols of identity and cultural resilience. They also demonstrate how English adapts to diverse sociolinguistic environments.

Fill in the blank: Jamaican Creole is an example of an _____-based creole.

Plate 4.2 English-based creoles in global contexts

Pilot questions 4.2

What is creolization in language development?
At what stage does a pidgin become a creole?
Give one structural feature of creoles in phonology.
Provide one example of an English-based creole.
Why are creoles significant in cultural identity?

4.3 Grammaticalization Processes

4.3.1 Definition and scope of grammaticalization

Grammaticalization is the process by which a lexical item (a word with full meaning, such as a noun or verb) gradually evolves into a grammatical marker (such as a tense or aspect marker). Over time, the original meaning becomes weakened, and the word takes on a more functional role in the language. For example, the verb *go* in the phrase *going to* has shifted from indicating physical movement to marking future tense. This process shows how languages adapt and simplify expression.

Fill in the blank: The phrase *going to* in English is an example of _____ in action.

Figure 4.3 Pathway of grammaticalization in English

4.3.2 Pathways of grammaticalization (lexical → grammatical → functional)

Grammaticalization typically follows a pathway: a **lexical item** with full meaning becomes a **grammatical form** with reduced meaning, and eventually a **functional marker**. For instance, *will* originally meant "want" or "wish," but it has become a marker of future tense. Similarly, *have to* shifted from expressing possession (*I have a book*) to obligation (*I have to study*). These pathways illustrate how everyday usage reshapes language structure.

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Fill in the blank: The word *will* originally meant _____ before becoming a future tense marker.

Original Lexical Item	Initial Meaning	Grammaticalizing Form	Modern Functional Marker
Go	Physical movement towards a destination.	**Going to**	**Future Tense:** Indicates an event that has not yet happened (e.g., *"It's going to rain"*).
Will	A mental desire, wish, or want (Old English *willan*).	**Will**	**Future Tense / Certainty:** Indicates a future state or prediction (e.g., *"I will be there"*).
Have	Physical possession or holding of an object.	**Have to**	**Obligation / Modality:** Indicates necessity or a requirement (e.g., *"I have to leave"*).

Box 4.3 Pathways of grammaticalization in English

4.3.3 Examples in English (will, going to, have to)

English provides clear examples of grammaticalization. *Will* has shifted from expressing desire to marking future tense. *Going to* has moved from physical movement to future intention. *Have to* has changed from possession to obligation. These examples show how grammaticalization reduces lexical meaning while increasing grammatical function, making communication more efficient.

Fill in the blank: The phrase *have to* in English now expresses _____ rather than possession.

Table 4.3 Examples of grammaticalization in English

4.3.4 Effects of grammaticalization on language change

Grammaticalization contributes to language change by simplifying structures and creating new grammatical markers. It reduces reliance on inflections and increases the use of auxiliary verbs and particles. This makes language more flexible and adaptable to new contexts. In English, grammaticalization has helped shift from Old English's complex inflections to Modern English's simpler structures. It also shows how speakers innovate to make communication more efficient.

Fill in the blank: Grammaticalization in English has reduced reliance on _____ compared to Old English.

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Plate 4.3 Effects of grammaticalization on English language change

Pilot questions 4.3

What is grammaticalization in language development?
What did the word *will* originally mean before becoming a future tense marker?
Give one example of grammaticalization in English.
How does grammaticalization affect language structure?
Why is grammaticalization important in understanding language change?

4.4 Interactions Among Borrowing, Creolization, and Grammaticalization

4.4.1 How borrowing influences creole formation

Borrowing plays a crucial role in the development of creoles. Since creoles often arise in multilingual contact zones, they draw heavily on the vocabulary of dominant languages, such as English, French, or Portuguese. For example, Jamaican Creole uses English-derived words but adapts them to local phonology and grammar. Borrowing therefore provides the lexical foundation upon which creoles build their unique structures.

Fill in the blank: Jamaican Creole uses vocabulary largely derived from _____.

Figure 4.4 Borrowing as a foundation for creole vocabulary

4.4.2 Grammaticalization in creole languages

Creole languages also undergo grammaticalization, just like other languages. For instance, in Tok Pisin (Papua New Guinea), the word *baim* (from English *buy*) has grammaticalised into a marker of future tense in some contexts. Similarly, Jamaican Creole uses *a* before verbs to mark progressive aspect, showing how lexical items evolve into grammatical markers. This demonstrates that creoles are dynamic systems, capable of developing complex grammar through grammaticalization.

Fill in the blank: In Jamaican Creole, the particle *a* before verbs marks the _____ aspect.

Creole Language	Lexical Source	Modern Function	Example Usage
Tok Pisin	**Baim** (from English "buy")	**Future Tense Marker**	*Baimbai mi go* (I will go).

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Creole Language	Lexical Source	Modern Function	Example Usage
Jamaican Creole	**A** (derived from "at" or "be")	**Progressive Aspect**	*Mi a eat* (I am eating).
Haitian Creole	**Ap** (from French "après" - after)	**Progressive Aspect**	*M ap manje* (I am eating).
Krio	**Don** (from English "done")	**Perfective Aspect**	*I don go* (He has gone).

Box 4.4 Examples of grammaticalization in creole languages

4.4.3 Case studies of interaction in English and world languages

Interactions among borrowing, creolization, and grammaticalization can be seen in case studies across the world. In Nigerian Pidgin, English vocabulary is borrowed, creolised, and grammaticalised into new structures. In Haitian Creole, French loanwords combine with African linguistic patterns, while grammaticalization creates tense and aspect markers. In English itself, borrowed words like *karaoke* enter the lexicon, while grammaticalization continues to reshape auxiliary verbs. These examples show how the three processes are interconnected in shaping language evolution.

Fill in the blank: Haitian Creole blends French loanwords with _____ linguistic patterns.

Language	Borrowing Source (Lexifier)	Creolisation Context	Grammaticalisation Example	Resulting Function
Nigerian Pidgin	English	Trade, urbanisation, and inter-ethnic daily use.	**Go** (from English "go")	**Future Tense:** Used as a pre-verbal marker (e.g., *I go chop*).
Haitian Creole	French	Colonial plantation contact and resistance.	**Ap** (from French "après")	**Progressive Aspect:** Indicates ongoing action (e.g., *M ap pale*).

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Language	Borrowing Source (Lexifier)	Creolisation Context	Grammaticalisation Example	Resulting Function
English	Global (Latin, French, etc.)	Historical cultural exchange (not a true creole, but highly mixed).	**Going to** (from movement verb)	**Future Intention:** Shifted from physical motion to time marker.

Table 4.4 Case studies of interaction among borrowing, creolization, and grammaticalization

Pilot questions 4.4

How does borrowing influence creole formation?
What particle in Jamaican Creole marks the progressive aspect?
Provide one example of grammaticalization in Tok Pisin.
Which languages contributed loanwords to Haitian Creole?
Why are case studies useful in understanding the interaction of borrowing, creolization, and grammaticalization?

4.5 Sociolinguistic and Cultural Implications

4.5.1 Borrowing as a reflection of cultural exchange

Borrowing reflects the cultural interactions that shape language. When English adopts words like *sushi* from Japanese or *bungalow* from Hindi, it shows how cultural practices and innovations travel across societies. Borrowed words often carry with them aspects of the culture they originate from, enriching English with new concepts and perspectives. This makes borrowing not just a linguistic process but also a record of cultural exchange.

Fill in the blank: The English word *bungalow* reflects cultural contact with _____.

Plate 4.5 Borrowing as cultural exchange in English vocabulary

4.5.2 Creolization and identity

Creolization is closely tied to identity, especially in communities where creoles are spoken. Creoles often symbolise resilience and cultural pride, as they blend elements of colonial languages with indigenous or African linguistic traditions. For example, Jamaican Creole is not only a means of communication but also a marker of national identity and cultural heritage. Creolization therefore demonstrates how language can embody social history and collective identity.

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Fill in the blank: Jamaican Creole serves as both a language and a marker of _____ identity.

Identity Marker	Linguistic Manifestation	Cultural Significance
Resilience	Blending "superstrate" (European) vocabulary with "substrate" (African/Indigenous) grammar.	A refusal to abandon ancestral cognitive structures while navigating a new world.
Cultural Pride	The shift from "patois" or "slang" to a literary and national medium.	Validates the intellectual and artistic capabilities of the community.
Community Bounds	Using the language as an "in-group" marker (covert prestige).	Functions as a "secret code" or a badge of belonging that excludes the former colonizer.

Box 4.5 Creolization and identity

4.5.3 Grammaticalization and language evolution

Grammaticalization illustrates how languages evolve over time. By turning lexical items into grammatical markers, languages simplify structures and adapt to new communicative needs. In English, the shift from Old English inflections to Modern English auxiliaries shows how grammaticalization drives change. This process highlights the dynamic nature of language and its ability to evolve alongside society.

Fill in the blank: Grammaticalization in English helped shift from Old English inflections to Modern English _____.

Figure 4.5 Grammaticalization and language evolution

4.5.4 Contemporary relevance in global English

In today's world, borrowing, creolization, and grammaticalization remain highly relevant. Borrowing continues as English absorbs words from global cultures, such as *emoji* from Japanese. Creoles thrive as vibrant languages in multilingual societies, asserting cultural identity. Grammaticalization shapes modern English usage, especially in informal speech and digital communication. Together, these processes show how English adapts to globalisation and remains a flexible tool for communication across cultures.

Fill in the blank: The word *emoji* in English is borrowed from _____.

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Process	Contemporary Example	Linguistic Impact	Relevance to Identity & Tech
Borrowing	**Emoji** (Japanese: *e* 'picture' + *moji* 'character')	Adds a non-verbal, visual layer to written digital communication.	Expands global vocabulary to express tone and emotion where text fails.
Creolization	**Tok Pisin** (Papua New Guinea)	A stable, fully-functional language used in government and media.	Maintains cultural identity and provides a unified voice in diverse regions.
Grammaticalization	**Gonna** (from *going to*)	Phonetic reduction of a future tense marker in casual speech.	Shapes modern informal English and reflects the "need for speed" in communication.

Table 4.5 Contemporary relevance of borrowing, creolization, and grammaticalization

Pilot questions 4.5

How does borrowing reflect cultural exchange?
What role does creolization play in identity?
How does grammaticalization contribute to language evolution?
Give one borrowed word that reflects globalisation in English.
Why are these processes relevant in contemporary global English?

Series Summary

This Series has examined how borrowing, creolisation, and grammaticalisation shape the development of English and other languages. Its purpose has been to highlight the ways in which languages evolve through contact, adaptation, and innovation, showing learners how these processes contribute to vocabulary growth, structural change, and cultural identity.

We began by exploring borrowing in English, considering its definition, historical sources, types, and impact on vocabulary. We then moved on to creolisation, tracing the stages from pidgin to creole and analysing the structural features of English-based creoles. Following that, we studied grammaticalisation, focusing on pathways such as *will*, *going to*, and *have to*, and their effects on language change. Afterwards, we examined how borrowing, creolisation, and grammaticalisation interact in case studies across English and world languages. Finally, we discussed their sociolinguistic and cultural implications, including identity, cultural exchange, and global relevance. By completing this Series, you should now be able to define, describe, analyse, and

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evaluate these processes in line with the Series Learning Outcomes, applying them to understand both the historical development and contemporary use of English.

Glossary of Terms

Borrowing: The process by which one language takes words or expressions from another language, often adapting them to local pronunciation and spelling.
Calque: A type of borrowing where a foreign expression is translated word-for-word into another language, such as *skyscraper* from French *gratte-ciel*.
Creole: A fully developed language that arises when a pidgin becomes the native language of a community, expanding in vocabulary and grammar.
Creolization: The process through which a pidgin evolves into a creole, usually when children acquire the pidgin as their first language.
Grammaticalization: A process where a lexical item (a word with full meaning) gradually evolves into a grammatical marker, such as *going to* becoming a future tense marker.
Loanword: A word taken directly from another language and used in English, such as *pizza* from Italian.
Pidgin: A simplified contact language with limited vocabulary and grammar, used for communication between speakers of different languages.
Semantic loan: A type of borrowing where an existing word in English takes on a new meaning under the influence of another language, such as *actual* gaining the sense of "real" from French.
Skyscraper: An example of a calque in English, translated from French *gratte-ciel*.
Tok Pisin: An English-based creole spoken in Papua New Guinea, which demonstrates borrowing, creolisation, and grammaticalisation in action.
Vocabulary expansion: The increase in a language's word stock through processes such as borrowing, creolisation, and grammaticalisation.

Concept Check Questions [Series 4]

Objective questions

Define borrowing in English morphology. (Linked to SLO 4.1)
Identify the type of borrowing illustrated by the word *skyscraper*. (Linked to SLO 4.2)
State the stage at which a pidgin becomes a creole. (Linked to SLO 4.3)
Which structural feature of creoles often simplifies consonant clusters? (Linked to SLO 4.4)
What did the word *will* originally mean before becoming a future tense marker? (Linked to SLO 4.5)

Short-answer questions

Explain the difference between loanwords and calques with one example each. (Linked to SLO 4.2)
Provide one example of an English-based creole and describe its significance. (Linked to SLO 4.4)

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Analyse how *going to* has grammaticalised in English. (Linked to SLO 4.5)
Give one example of borrowing that reflects cultural exchange in English. (Linked to SLO 4.7)
Demonstrate how creolisation contributes to identity using Jamaican Creole. (Linked to SLO 4.7)

Long-answer questions

Discuss the historical sources of borrowed words in English and their impact on vocabulary expansion. (Linked to SLO 4.1)
Evaluate the structural features of creoles in phonology, morphology, and syntax with examples. (Linked to SLO 4.4)
Analyse the pathways of grammaticalisation in English using *will*, *going to*, and *have to*. (Linked to SLO 4.5)
Explain how borrowing, creolisation, and grammaticalisation interact in shaping language development, with case studies. (Linked to SLO 4.6)
Assess the sociolinguistic and cultural implications of these processes in contemporary global English. (Linked to SLO 4.7)

Answers to Concept Check Questions [Series 4]

Objective questions

Borrowing is the process by which English takes words or expressions from other languages.
Skyscraper is a calque.
When children acquire a pidgin as their native language.
Phonology.
Wish or want.

Short-answer questions

Loanwords are direct borrowings, e.g., *pizza* from Italian. Calques are translations, e.g., *skyscraper* from French *gratte-ciel*.
Jamaican Creole; it symbolises cultural identity and resilience.
Going to shifted from physical movement to marking future intention.
Sushi from Japanese.
Jamaican Creole embodies national identity and cultural pride.

Long-answer questions

Basic response: English borrowed from Latin, French, Germanic, and global languages, enriching vocabulary. *Value-added response*: Learners may add that borrowing reflects cultural contact and provides specialised terms in science, law, and art.
Basic response: Creoles simplify consonant clusters, reduce inflections, and rely on subject-verb-object syntax. *Value-added response*: Outstanding learners may explain how these features reflect adaptation to multilingual contexts and efficiency in communication.

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Basic response: *Will* shifted from desire to future tense, *going to* from movement to intention, *have to* from possession to obligation. *Value-added response*: Learners may add that these pathways show how grammaticalisation reduces lexical meaning while enhancing grammatical function.
Basic response: Borrowing provides vocabulary, creolisation builds new languages, and grammaticalisation develops grammar. *Value-added response*: Case studies such as Nigerian Pidgin and Haitian Creole show how these processes interact dynamically in language evolution.
Basic response: Borrowing reflects cultural exchange, creolisation supports identity, and grammaticalisation drives language change. *Value-added response*: Learners may add that these processes remain relevant in globalisation, digital communication, and the spread of English worldwide.

Answers to Pilot Questions [Series 4]

Answers to Pilot Questions 4.1

Borrowing in English morphology is the process of taking words from other languages.
Court (from French).
Arabic.
Calque.
Borrowing expands vocabulary and enriches English with cultural and technical terms.

Answers to Pilot Questions 4.2

Creolization is the process by which a pidgin develops into a creole.
When children acquire a pidgin as their native language.
Simplification of consonant clusters.
Jamaican Creole.
Creoles symbolise resilience, cultural pride, and identity.

Answers to Pilot Questions 4.3

Grammaticalization is the process where lexical items evolve into grammatical markers.
Wish or want.
Going to marking future intention.
It simplifies structures and creates new grammatical markers.
It explains how languages adapt and change over time.

Answers to Pilot Questions 4.4

Borrowing provides the vocabulary foundation for creole formation.
A.
Baim (buy) → future tense marker.
French and African languages.
Case studies show how the three processes interact in shaping language evolution.

Answers to Pilot Questions 4.5

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Borrowing reflects cultural exchange by introducing words from other societies.
Creolization provides a marker of identity and cultural heritage.
Grammaticalization simplifies language and drives structural change.
Emoji (from Japanese).
They remain relevant in globalisation, identity, and modern English usage.

References and Attributions [Series 4]

This section compiles all references and illustration attributions used or suggested in **Series 4: Borrowing, Creolization, and Grammaticalization**. The referencing style applied here follows APA guidelines for clarity and consistency.

General References

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Open Educational Resources (OER) consulted for examples and teaching aids: "OER Commons – Linguistics and Language Contact Resources." Retrieved from https://www.oercommons.org

Illustration Attributions

Figure 4.1 Examples of borrowed words in English

AI-generated prompt: "Create a diagram showing borrowed words in English such as café, piano, and bungalow with their sources."

Suggested OER search string: "OER diagram borrowed words English examples."

Box 4.1 Historical sources of borrowed words in English

AI-generated prompt: "Generate a text box listing historical sources of borrowed words in English with examples."

Suggested OER search string: "OER resource history of borrowed words English Latin French Arabic Hindi Japanese."

Table 4.1 Types of borrowing in English

AI-generated prompt: "Create a table showing types of borrowing in English with examples and source languages."

Suggested OER search string: "OER table types of borrowing English loanwords calques semantic loans examples."

Plate 4.1 Borrowed cultural words in English

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AI-generated prompt: “Create an image showing borrowed cultural words in English such as sushi, karaoke, and café.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER image borrowed cultural words English examples.”

Figure 4.2 The process of creolization

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing the transition from pidgin to creole through creolization.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram creolization pidgin to creole process.”

Box 4.2 Stages of creole development

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box listing the stages of creole development from pidgin to creole.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource stages of creole development pidgin creole examples.”

Table 4.2 Structural features of creoles

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing structural features of creoles in phonology, morphology, and syntax.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table structural features creoles phonology morphology syntax examples.”

Plate 4.2 English-based creoles in global contexts

AI-generated prompt: “Create an image showing cultural contexts of English-based creoles such as Jamaican Creole, Nigerian Pidgin, and Tok Pisin.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER image English-based creoles Caribbean West Africa Pacific examples.”

Figure 4.3 Pathway of grammaticalization in English

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing the pathway of grammaticalization from lexical item to grammatical marker using going to.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram grammaticalization pathway English examples.”

Box 4.3 Pathways of grammaticalization in English

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box showing pathways of grammaticalization in English with examples like will, going to, have to.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource grammaticalization pathways English examples.”

Table 4.3 Examples of grammaticalization in English

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AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of grammaticalization in English with original meaning, grammaticalised form, and current function.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table grammaticalization English examples will going to have to.”

Plate 4.3 Effects of grammaticalization on English language change

AI-generated prompt: “Create an image showing the historical shift from Old English inflections to Modern English auxiliaries.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER image grammaticalization English language change Old English Modern English.”

Figure 4.4 Borrowing as a foundation for creole vocabulary

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing how borrowing from dominant languages feeds into creole vocabulary, e.g., English → Jamaican Creole.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram borrowing creole vocabulary English French Haitian Jamaican.”

Box 4.4 Examples of grammaticalization in creole languages

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box showing examples of grammaticalization in creole languages such as Tok Pisin, Jamaican Creole, and Haitian Creole.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource grammaticalization creole languages Tok Pisin Jamaican Haitian examples.”

Table 4.4 Case studies of interaction among borrowing, creolization, and grammaticalization

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing case studies of interaction among borrowing, creolization, and grammaticalization in Nigerian Pidgin, Haitian Creole, and English.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table borrowing creolization grammaticalization case studies Nigerian Haitian English.”

Plate 4.5 Borrowing as cultural exchange in English vocabulary

AI-generated prompt: “Create an image showing borrowed cultural items such as sushi, bungalow, and café to illustrate cultural exchange.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER image borrowed words English cultural exchange examples.”

Box 4.5 Creolization and identity

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box explaining the link between creolization and identity with examples like Jamaican Creole.”

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Suggested OER search string: “OER resource creolization identity language culture examples.”

Figure 4.5 Grammaticalization and language evolution

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing grammaticalization as a driver of language evolution from Old English to Modern English.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram grammaticalization language evolution English examples.”

Table 4.5 Contemporary relevance of borrowing, creolization, and grammaticalization

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing contemporary relevance of borrowing, creolization, and grammaticalization with examples.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table contemporary borrowing creolization grammaticalization English examples.”

Course code: ENG 211
Course title: English Morphology
Course credit load: 3 Units

Series 1: Foundations of English Morphology

Series 2: Processes of Word and Sentence Formation

Series 3: English Derivatives and Structural Patterns

Series 4: Borrowing, Creolization, and Grammaticalization

Proposed Outline for Series 5

Part .1 Analogy in Morphology

5.1.1 Definition and scope of analogy
5.1.2 Types of analogy (proportional, paradigmatic, semantic)
5.1.3 Examples of analogy in English word forms
5.1.4 Role of analogy in regularisation

Part .2 Morphological change and its mechanisms

5.2.1 Definition of morphological change
5.2.2 Internal mechanisms (sound change, reanalysis, analogy)
5.2.3 External mechanisms (borrowing, contact influence)

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5.2.4 Case studies of morphological change in English

Part .3 Analogy and regularisation of irregular forms

5.3.1 Regularisation of irregular verbs (e.g., *helped* vs. *holp*)
5.3.2 Noun plurals and analogy (e.g., *cows* vs. *kine*)
5.3.3 Analogy in derivational morphology
5.3.4 Implications for language learning and acquisition

Part .4 Morphological change in historical English

5.4.1 Old English to Middle English changes
5.4.2 Middle English to Modern English developments
5.4.3 Loss of inflections and rise of analytic structures
5.4.4 Examples of analogy in historical transitions

Part .5 Sociolinguistic implications of analogy and change

5.5.1 Analogy as a reflection of usage patterns
5.5.2 Morphological change and social identity
5.5.3 Standardisation and prestige forms
5.5.4 Contemporary relevance in global English

Introduction

Language is never static; it constantly adapts to the needs of its speakers. One of the most fascinating ways this happens is through **analogy**, where patterns are extended to create regularity, and through broader **morphological change**, which reshapes the structure of words over time. These processes explain why irregular forms become regular, why inflections disappear, and why English looks very different today compared to its earlier stages. Understanding analogy and morphological change is therefore central to appreciating how English has evolved and continues to function.

The aim of this Series is to introduce you to the role of analogy and change in shaping morphological features of English, and to equip you with the ability to analyse how these processes influence word forms, historical transitions, and sociolinguistic identity.

We shall commence this Series by examining analogy in morphology, defining its scope and exploring its types and role in regularisation. Next, we will study morphological change and its mechanisms, considering both internal and external influences. Following that, we will focus on analogy and the regularisation of irregular forms, looking at verbs, plurals, and derivational morphology. Moving on, we will trace morphological change in historical English, from Old English through Middle English to Modern English, highlighting the loss of inflections and rise of analytic structures. Finally, we will wrap up by discussing the sociolinguistic implications of

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analogy and change, including their impact on identity, standardisation, and contemporary global English.

Series Learning Outcomes

Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

SLO 5.1 define analogy in morphology and explain its types,
SLO 5.2 illustrate examples of analogy in English word forms,
SLO 5.3 describe the mechanisms of morphological change, both internal and external,
SLO 5.4 analyse case studies of morphological change in English,
SLO 5.5 demonstrate how analogy contributes to the regularisation of irregular forms,
SLO 5.6 trace morphological changes across historical stages of English from Old to Modern English, and
SLO 5.7 evaluate the sociolinguistic implications of analogy and morphological change in shaping identity and global English.

5.1 Analogy in Morphology

5.1.1 Definition and scope of analogy

Analogy in morphology refers to the process by which language users extend existing patterns to new forms, often making irregular words conform to regular ones. For example, the irregular past tense *holp* was replaced by the regularised form *helped* through analogy with other verbs ending in *-ed*. Analogy therefore acts as a force of simplification and regularisation in language, helping speakers to maintain consistency in word formation.

Fill in the blank: The irregular past tense *holp* was replaced by _____ through analogy.

Figure 5.1 Analogy as a force of regularisation

5.1.2 Types of analogy

There are several types of analogy in morphology. **Proportional analogy** occurs when a word form is created by following a pattern, such as *sing : sang :: ring : rang*. **Paradigmatic analogy** involves extending a pattern within a paradigm, for example, making verb endings consistent across tenses. **Semantic analogy** arises when meanings influence form, such as aligning words with similar meanings to have similar structures. These types show how analogy operates at different levels of language.

Fill in the blank: The relationship *sing : sang :: ring : rang* is an example of _____ analogy.

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Type of Analogy	Linguistic Example	Explanation
Proportional Analogy	**Sing : Sang :: Ring : Rang**	A four-part mathematical logic ($A : B :: C : D$). Because *sing* becomes *sang*, the brain predicts *ring* should become *rang* to match.
Paradigmatic Analogy	**Helpan/Holp $\rightarrow$ Help/Helped**	**Leveling:** Reducing irregularity within a single word's "family" (paradigm) to make all forms look more alike.
Semantic Analogy	**Female** (influenced by *Male*)	Words with similar meanings are pulled toward similar spellings or sounds, even if their origins are different.

Table 5.1 Types of analogy in morphology

5.1.3 Examples of analogy in English word forms

Analogy is evident in many English word forms. For instance, the plural *cows* replaced the older irregular *kine* by analogy with other regular plurals ending in *-s*. Similarly, verbs like *climb* once had the past tense *clomb*, but analogy led to the modern *climbed*. These examples show how analogy simplifies irregularities and aligns words with common patterns.

Fill in the blank: The older plural form *kine* was replaced by _____ through analogy.

Plate 5.1 Examples of analogy in English word forms

5.1.4 Role of analogy in regularisation

Analogy plays a key role in **regularisation**, which is the process of making irregular forms conform to regular patterns. This is particularly common in verbs and plurals, where irregular forms are gradually replaced by regular ones. Regularisation makes language easier to learn and use, especially for children acquiring their first language. It also contributes to the long-term simplification of English morphology.

Fill in the blank: Analogy contributes to _____ by making irregular forms conform to regular patterns.

Historical Irregular	Modern Regularized Form	The Analogical Pattern
Holp (Past tense of help)	**Helped**	Standard *-ed* suffix
Chose (Past participle)	**Chosen**	Pattern of *frozen*, *broken*

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Historical Irregular	Modern Regularized Form	The Analogical Pattern
Cowen (Plural of cow)	**Cows**	Standard *-s* plural

Box 5.1 Role of analogy in regularisation

Pilot questions 5.1

What is analogy in morphology?
Give one example of proportional analogy.
Which older plural form was replaced by *cows* through analogy?
How does analogy contribute to regularisation?
Why is analogy important in language acquisition?

5.2 Morphological Change and Its Mechanisms

5.2.1 Definition of morphological change

Morphological change refers to the alteration of word structures over time, affecting how words are formed and used in a language. These changes may involve the loss of inflections, the simplification of irregular forms, or the creation of new grammatical markers. In English, morphological change has been central to the transition from Old English, with its complex inflectional system, to Modern English, which relies more on word order and auxiliary verbs.

Fill in the blank: Morphological change in English often involves the _____ of inflections over time.

Figure 5.2 Morphological change across stages of English

5.2.2 Internal mechanisms (sound change, reanalysis, analogy)

Internal mechanisms of morphological change are processes that occur within the language itself. **Sound change** alters pronunciation, which may affect word forms (e.g., *hlaf* → *loaf*). **Reanalysis** occurs when speakers reinterpret the structure of a word, such as *hamburger* being reanalysed as *ham* + *burger*. **Analogy**, as discussed earlier, regularises irregular forms by extending patterns. These mechanisms show how language evolves naturally through usage.

Fill in the blank: The reinterpretation of *hamburger* as *ham* + *burger* is an example of _____.

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Mechanism	Example	Explanation
Sound Change	*Hlāf* $\rightarrow$ *Loaf*	Phonetic shifts (like the loss of the initial /h/) alter the physical shape of a morpheme, often leading to its simplification or merger with other sounds.
Reanalysis	*Hamburger* $\rightarrow$ *Ham + burger*	Speakers "misinterpret" the original structure of a word. Originally named after the city of Hamburg, speakers re-segmented it, leading to the productive suffix *-burger* (e.g., cheeseburger, veggieburger).
Analogy	*Holp* $\rightarrow$ *Helped*	An irregular form is remodeled to match a more common, productive pattern. The "strong" past tense *holp* was pulled into the "weak" verb pattern of adding *-ed*.
Back-formation	*Editor* $\rightarrow$ *Edit*	A specific type of reanalysis where a new word is created by removing a supposed affix. People assumed *editor* came from the verb *edit*, but the noun actually existed first.
Folk Etymology	*Girasole* $\rightarrow$ *Jerusalem* (artichoke)	Speakers transform an unfamiliar word into something more familiar-sounding, even if the new meaning is historically inaccurate.

Table 5.2 Internal mechanisms of morphological change

5.2.3 External mechanisms (borrowing, contact influence)

External mechanisms of morphological change occur through contact with other languages. **Borrowing** introduces new words and structures, such as *bungalow* from Hindi. **Contact influence** reshapes morphology when languages interact, as seen in creoles that blend vocabulary and grammar from multiple sources. These external mechanisms highlight the role of social and cultural exchange in shaping language.

Fill in the blank: The English word *bungalow* was borrowed from _____.

Plate 5.2 External mechanisms of morphological change

5.2.4 Case studies of morphological change in English

Case studies illustrate how morphological change has shaped English. For example, the loss of the Old English plural *oxen* in favour of *oxes* (though *oxen* still survives) shows the tension between

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irregular and regular forms. The simplification of verb endings, such as *-eth* in Middle English becoming *-s* in Modern English, demonstrates ongoing change. These examples reveal how both internal and external mechanisms interact to reshape morphology.

Fill in the blank: The Middle English verb ending *-eth* was replaced by _____ in Modern English.

Case Study	Shift / Process	Impact on Morphology
The Fate of *Oxen*	Old English *-en* plural $\rightarrow$ Modern *oxes* (emerging)	While *oxen* is a rare survivor of the Old English weak declension plural, analogy is driving a shift toward the standard *-s* suffix. You will increasingly hear *oxes* as the language regularizes.
Verb Endings	Middle English *-eth* $\rightarrow$ Modern English *-s*	In the 3rd person singular, *he goeth* became *he goes*. This was a systematic shift where the northern English dialectal *-s* eventually replaced the southern *-eth* across the entire language.
Loanword Integration	*Bungalow* (Hindi), *Karaoke* (Japanese)	These borrowed words often enter as "frozen" units. However, English morphology quickly "claims" them by applying its own rules: we say *bungalows* (plural) or *karaokeing* (verb participle).
Functional Shift	*Google* (Noun) $\rightarrow$ *To Google* (Verb)	A modern case study where a proper noun undergoes "zero-derivation" to become a verb, creating a new morphological role without changing the word's form.

Box 5.2 Case studies of morphological change in English

Pilot questions 5.2

What is morphological change?
Give one example of sound change in English.
What does the reinterpretation of *hamburger* illustrate?
Provide one example of borrowing as an external mechanism of morphological change.
Which Middle English verb ending was replaced by *-s* in Modern English?

5.3 Analogy and Regularisation of Irregular Forms

5.3.1 Regularisation of irregular verbs

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Regularisation is the process by which irregular forms are replaced with regular ones, often through analogy. In English, many irregular verbs have been regularised by adopting the common *-ed* ending for the past tense. For example, the older form *holp* was replaced by *helped*, and *clomb* gave way to *climbed*. This shows how analogy simplifies verb paradigms, making them easier for speakers to learn and use.

Fill in the blank: The irregular verb form *clomb* was replaced by _____ through analogy.

Figure 5.3 Regularisation of irregular verbs through analogy

5.3.2 Noun plurals and analogy

Analogy also affects noun plurals. In Old English, some plurals were irregular, such as *kine* for cows. Over time, analogy led to the replacement of *kine* with the regular plural *cows*. Similarly, *children* remains irregular, but other nouns have shifted to regular *-s* plurals. This demonstrates how analogy encourages consistency across word forms.

Fill in the blank: The irregular plural *kine* was replaced by _____ in Modern English.

Table 5.3 Examples of noun plural regularisation

5.3.3 Analogy in derivational morphology

Analogy also influences **derivational morphology**, which involves creating new words by adding prefixes or suffixes. For example, the suffix *-ness* has been extended by analogy to form words like *happiness* and *sadness*. Similarly, analogy has encouraged the use of *-er* for agent nouns, such as *worker* and *teacher*. These patterns show how analogy expands word formation possibilities while maintaining consistency.

Fill in the blank: The suffix *-ness* is often used to form nouns like _____ by analogy.

Plate 5.3 Analogy in derivational morphology

5.3.4 Implications for language learning and acquisition

Analogy and regularisation have important implications for language learning. Children often apply analogy when acquiring English, producing forms like *comed* instead of *came*. While these are errors, they show how learners rely on analogy to make sense of irregular patterns. Over time, analogy helps learners master regular forms and contributes to the simplification of language across generations.

Fill in the blank: Children sometimes produce forms like *comed* instead of _____ when applying analogy.

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Stage	Behavior	Cognitive Process
Stage 1: Imitation	Child says *broke*, *mice*.	Rote memorization of specific words.
Stage 2: Overregularization	Child says *breaked*, *mouses*.	Discovery of a **rule**; applying it via analogy.
Stage 3: Differentiation	Child says *broke*, *dogs*, *cats*.	Mastery of both the rule and the specific exceptions.

Box 5.3 Implications of analogy for language learning

Pilot questions 5.3

What is regularisation in morphology?
Give one example of an irregular verb that was regularised in English.
Which irregular plural was replaced by *cows*?
How does analogy influence derivational morphology?
Why is analogy important in language learning and acquisition?

5.4 Morphological Change in Historical English

5.4.1 Old English to Middle English changes

Old English was highly inflected, with complex endings marking case, number, gender, and tense. Over time, many of these inflections were lost, giving rise to **Middle English**, which relied more on word order and prepositions to convey meaning. For example, the Old English plural ending *-as* gradually shifted to the Middle English *-es*, which later became the standard plural marker in Modern English.

Fill in the blank: The Old English plural ending *-as* was replaced by _____ in Middle English.

Figure 5.4 Transition from Old English to Middle English

5.4.2 Middle English to Modern English developments

In **Middle English**, verb endings such as *-eth* were common, but these were replaced by *-s* in **Modern English**. This change simplified verb conjugation and made patterns more consistent. Borrowing from French also influenced Middle English, introducing new vocabulary and morphological structures. By the time of Modern English, the language had shifted towards a more analytic system, relying less on inflections and more on auxiliary verbs.

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Fill in the blank: The Middle English verb ending *-eth* was replaced by _____ in Modern English.

Table 5.4 Middle English to Modern English developments

5.4.3 Loss of inflections and rise of analytic structures

One of the most significant changes in English morphology was the **loss of inflections**. Old English relied heavily on endings to mark grammatical relationships, but Modern English uses **analytic structures**, such as auxiliary verbs and fixed word order. For example, tense is now marked by auxiliary verbs like *will* and *have*, rather than inflectional endings. This shift made English more flexible and easier to learn for non-native speakers.

Fill in the blank: Modern English relies on _____ structures such as auxiliary verbs instead of inflections.

Plate 5.4 Loss of inflections and rise of analytic structures

5.4.4 Examples of analogy in historical transitions

Analogy also played a role in historical transitions. For instance, irregular plurals like *kine* were replaced by *cows*, and irregular verbs like *clomb* became *climbed*. These changes show how analogy worked alongside other mechanisms to simplify English morphology. Analogy ensured that irregular forms were gradually aligned with regular patterns, supporting the overall trend towards simplification.

Fill in the blank: The irregular verb form *clomb* was replaced by _____ in Modern English.

Original Form	Modern Form	The Analogical Process
Kine	**Cows**	The Old English plural was *cy* (which became *kine*). Because the vast majority of English nouns formed plurals with *-s*, speakers eventually abandoned the irregular *-ne* ending in favor of the standard **plural suffix**.
Clomb	**Climbed**	*Climb* was originally a "strong" verb (changing its internal vowel, like *swim/swam*). By analogy with the dominant "weak" verb pattern, it adopted the **standard *-ed* past tense suffix**.
Holp	**Helped**	Similar to *clomb*, *holp* was the historical past tense of *help*. Over time, the overwhelming frequency of the **productive *-ed* pattern** caused speakers to regularize the verb.

Box 5.4 Examples of analogy in historical transitions

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Pilot questions 5.4

What was the main difference between Old English and Middle English morphology?
Which Middle English verb ending was replaced by *-s* in Modern English?
What structural change replaced inflections in Modern English?
Give one example of analogy in historical transitions.
Why was the loss of inflections significant in the development of English?

5.5 Sociolinguistic Implications of Analogy and Change

5.5.1 Analogy as a reflection of usage patterns

Analogy reflects how speakers naturally seek consistency in language use. When irregular forms are replaced by regular ones, it shows the collective tendency of communities to simplify communication. For example, the replacement of *holp* with *helped* demonstrates how everyday usage patterns drive morphological change. Analogy therefore acts as a mirror of how speakers adapt language to meet practical needs.

Fill in the blank: The replacement of *holp* with *helped* reflects _____ patterns in language use.

Figure 5.5 Analogy as a reflection of usage patterns

5.5.2 Morphological change and social identity

Morphological change often signals shifts in social identity. Communities may adopt certain forms to distinguish themselves or to align with prestige varieties. For instance, the adoption of *-s* verb endings in Modern English reflects the influence of social preference for simpler, standardised forms. Morphological change therefore not only alters word structures but also expresses social belonging and identity.

Fill in the blank: The adoption of *-s* verb endings in Modern English reflects _____ preference.

Table 5.5 Morphological change and social identity

5.5.3 Standardisation and prestige forms

Standardisation refers to the process by which certain forms become accepted as the norm, often influenced by education, literature, and social prestige. For example, the plural *cows* became standard over *kine*, and *helped* replaced *holp*. Prestige forms are often adopted by speakers to gain social acceptance or authority, reinforcing the role of analogy and change in shaping standard English.

Fill in the blank: The plural *cows* became standard over _____ in English.

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Irregular/Regional	Standard/Prestige	Driver of Change
Kine	**Cows**	Standardization for plural consistency.
Holp	**Helped**	Prestige of the productive *-ed* pattern.
-eth (He goeth)	**-s** (He goes)	Shift from Southern to Northern prestige forms.

Box 5.5 Standardisation and prestige forms

5.5.4 Contemporary relevance in global English

Analogy and morphological change remain relevant in global English today. Borrowed words like *emoji* and *karaoke* show ongoing adaptation, while regularisation continues in informal speech, such as *gonna* for *going to*. These processes highlight how English evolves in response to globalisation, technology, and cultural exchange, ensuring it remains flexible and widely accessible.

Fill in the blank: The word *emoji* in English was borrowed from _____.

Plate 5.5 Contemporary relevance of analogy and change in global English

Pilot questions 5.5

How does analogy reflect usage patterns?
What social preference influenced the adoption of *-s* verb endings in Modern English?
Give one example of a prestige form that became standard in English.
Why is standardisation important in language development?
Provide one example of contemporary relevance of analogy and change in global English.

Series Summary

This Series has explored how analogy and morphological change shape the structure and development of English. Its purpose has been to show how patterns of regularisation, historical transitions, and sociolinguistic influences contribute to the simplification and adaptation of word forms. By examining these processes, learners gain insight into why English has evolved from a highly inflected language to one that relies more on analytic structures, and how analogy continues to drive consistency in usage today.

We began by defining analogy in morphology and considering its types and role in regularisation. Then we examined the mechanisms of morphological change, both internal and external, supported by case studies. Following that, we focused on how analogy regularises irregular verbs, noun plurals, and derivational morphology, with implications for language learning. We continued with

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an overview of historical changes from Old English through Middle English to Modern English, highlighting the loss of inflections and rise of analytic structures. Finally, we discussed the sociolinguistic implications of analogy and change, including usage patterns, identity, standardisation, and contemporary relevance. By completing this Series, you should now be able to define, illustrate, analyse, and evaluate these processes in line with the Series Learning Outcomes, applying them to both historical and modern contexts of English morphology.

Glossary of Terms

Analogy: A process in language where existing patterns are extended to new forms, often making irregular words conform to regular ones.
Analytic structures: Word combinations, such as auxiliary verbs and fixed word order, used instead of inflections to show grammatical relationships.
Borrowing: The adoption of words or structures from another language, often through cultural or social contact.
Derivational morphology: The part of word formation that creates new words by adding prefixes or suffixes, such as *happy* → *happiness*.
Inflections: Endings added to words to show grammatical features like tense, number, or case, common in Old English but largely lost in Modern English.
Internal mechanisms: Processes of morphological change that occur within a language, including sound change, reanalysis, and analogy.
Middle English: The stage of English spoken roughly between 1100 and 1500, marked by simplification of inflections and influence from French vocabulary.
Modern English: The stage of English from about 1500 to the present, characterised by fewer inflections and greater reliance on analytic structures.
Morphological change: Alterations in the structure of words over time, including loss of inflections, regularisation, and borrowing.
Old English: The earliest stage of English, spoken until about 1100, with a complex system of inflections.
Paradigmatic analogy: A type of analogy where patterns are extended within a paradigm, such as making verb endings consistent across tenses.
Prestige forms: Word forms or structures adopted because they are associated with social status, education, or authority, often becoming standard.
Proportional analogy: A type of analogy where a new form is created by following an existing pattern, such as *sing : sang :: ring : rang*.
Reanalysis: A process of morphological change where speakers reinterpret the structure of a word, such as *hamburger* being seen as *ham* + *burger*.
Regularisation: The replacement of irregular forms with regular ones, often through analogy, such as *holp* → *helped*.
Semantic analogy: A type of analogy where meanings influence word forms, aligning words with similar meanings to have similar structures.
Standardisation: The process by which certain word forms become accepted as the norm, often influenced by education, literature, and social prestige.
Usage patterns: The collective tendencies of speakers that influence how language changes, often driving analogy and regularisation.

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Concept Check Questions [Series 5]

Objective questions

Define analogy in morphology. (Linked to SLO 5.1)
Identify the type of analogy illustrated by *sing : sang :: ring : rang*. (Linked to SLO 5.2)
State one internal mechanism of morphological change. (Linked to SLO 5.3)
Which Middle English verb ending was replaced by *-s* in Modern English? (Linked to SLO 5.6)
Give one example of a prestige form that became standard in English. (Linked to SLO 5.7)

Short-answer questions

Explain the difference between proportional and paradigmatic analogy with examples. (Linked to SLO 5.1, 5.2)
Illustrate how reanalysis contributes to morphological change using the word *hamburger*. (Linked to SLO 5.3)
Demonstrate how analogy regularises irregular verbs with one example. (Linked to SLO 5.5)
Describe one case study of morphological change in English nouns or verbs. (Linked to SLO 5.4)
Evaluate why standardisation is important in sociolinguistic development. (Linked to SLO 5.7)

Long-answer questions

Analyse the role of analogy in regularising irregular forms in English verbs and plurals. (Linked to SLO 5.5)
Discuss the internal and external mechanisms of morphological change with examples. (Linked to SLO 5.3)
Trace the historical changes in English morphology from Old English to Modern English. (Linked to SLO 5.6)
Evaluate the sociolinguistic implications of analogy and morphological change in shaping identity and global English. (Linked to SLO 5.7)

Answers to Concept Check Questions [Series 5]

Objective questions

Analogy in morphology is the extension of existing patterns to new forms, often regularising irregular words.
Proportional analogy.
Sound change (other acceptable answers: reanalysis, analogy).
-eth.
Helped replacing *holp* (other acceptable answers: *cows* replacing *kine*).

Short-answer questions

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Proportional analogy extends a pattern across words (e.g., *sing : sang :: ring : rang*), while paradigmatic analogy regularises forms within a paradigm (e.g., consistent verb endings).
Reanalysis occurs when speakers reinterpret structure, e.g., *hamburger* reanalysed as *ham + burger*.
Example: *clomb* became *climbed* through analogy with other *-ed* verbs.
Case study: Old English plural *oxen* vs. Modern English *oxes*, showing tension between irregular and regular forms.
Standardisation ensures consistency, supports education and communication, and reinforces prestige forms as norms.

Long-answer questions

Basic response: Analogy regularises irregular verbs (e.g., *holp → helped*) and plurals (e.g., *kine → cows*). *Value-added response*: Learners may add that analogy reduces complexity, aids acquisition, and reflects broader social trends in language simplification.
Basic response: Internal mechanisms include sound change, reanalysis, and analogy; external mechanisms include borrowing and contact influence. *Value-added response*: Outstanding learners may explain how these mechanisms interact, citing creole development or global borrowing as examples.
Basic response: Old English was highly inflected, Middle English simplified endings, and Modern English relies on analytic structures. *Value-added response*: Learners may add that French influence enriched Middle English vocabulary, while globalisation continues to shape Modern English morphology.
Basic response: Analogy reflects usage patterns, morphological change signals identity, and standardisation promotes prestige forms. *Value-added response*: Learners may add that these processes remain relevant in global English today, influenced by technology, cultural exchange, and informal speech innovations like *gonna*.

Answers to Pilot Questions [Series 5]

Answers to Pilot Questions 5.1

Analogy in morphology is the extension of existing patterns to new forms, often regularising irregular words.
Proportional analogy.
Helped.
Analogy contributes to regularisation by making irregular forms conform to regular patterns.
Analogy is important because it simplifies language and supports acquisition by children.

Answers to Pilot Questions 5.2

Morphological change refers to alterations in word structures over time.
Hlaf → loaf.
Reanalysis.
Bungalow from Hindi.
-s.

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Answers to Pilot Questions 5.3

Regularisation is the replacement of irregular forms with regular ones.
Holp → *helped* (other acceptable: *clomb* → *climbed*).
Kine.
Analogy extends suffixes like *-ness* or *-er* to create new words.
Analogy helps children acquire language by simplifying irregular patterns.

Answers to Pilot Questions 5.4

Old English was highly inflected, while Middle English simplified endings and relied more on word order.
-eth.
Analytic structures such as auxiliary verbs and fixed word order.
Clomb → *climbed* (other acceptable: *kine* → *cows*, *holp* → *helped*).
The loss of inflections marked a major simplification, making English easier to learn and use.

Answers to Pilot Questions 5.5

Analogy reflects usage patterns by showing how speakers prefer consistency.
Social preference for simpler, standardised forms.
Helped over *holp* (other acceptable: *cows* over *kine*).
Standardisation ensures consistency and supports communication across communities.
Emoji (from Japanese).

References and Attributions [Series 5]

This section compiles all references and illustration attributions used or suggested in **Series 5: Analogy and Change in Morphological Features**. The referencing style applied here follows APA guidelines for clarity and consistency.

General References

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Illustration Attributions

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Figure 5.1 Analogy as a force of regularisation

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing analogy in morphology where irregular forms like holp become regular forms like helped.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram analogy morphology regularisation examples.”

Table 5.1 Types of analogy in morphology

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing types of analogy in morphology with examples and explanations.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table types of analogy morphology proportional paradigmatic semantic examples.”

Plate 5.1 Examples of analogy in English word forms

AI-generated prompt: “Create an image showing examples of analogy in English such as cows replacing kine and climbed replacing clomb.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER image analogy English word forms examples.”

Box 5.1 Role of analogy in regularisation

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box explaining the role of analogy in regularisation with key points.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource analogy regularisation language morphology examples.”

Figure 5.2 Morphological change across stages of English

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing morphological change in English from Old English to Modern English with examples.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram morphological change English Old Middle Modern examples.”

Table 5.2 Internal mechanisms of morphological change

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing internal mechanisms of morphological change with examples and explanations.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table internal mechanisms morphological change sound change reanalysis analogy examples.”

Plate 5.2 External mechanisms of morphological change

AI-generated prompt: “Create an image showing borrowed words like bungalow, karaoke, and algebra as examples of external mechanisms of morphological change.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER image external mechanisms morphological change borrowing contact influence examples.”

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Box 5.2 Case studies of morphological change in English

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box summarising case studies of morphological change in English with examples.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource case studies morphological change English oxen eth s bungalow karaoke.”

Figure 5.3 Regularisation of irregular verbs through analogy

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing irregular verbs becoming regular in English, such as holp → helped and clomb → climbed.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram regularisation irregular verbs analogy English examples.”

Table 5.3 Examples of noun plural regularisation

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of noun plural regularisation in English with irregular and regular forms.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table noun plural regularisation analogy English examples.”

Plate 5.3 Analogy in derivational morphology

AI-generated prompt: “Create an image showing analogy in derivational morphology with examples like happiness, sadness, and teacher.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER image analogy derivational morphology English examples.”

Box 5.3 Implications of analogy for language learning

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box explaining the implications of analogy and regularisation for language learning and acquisition.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource analogy regularisation language learning acquisition examples.”

Figure 5.4 Transition from Old English to Middle English

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing the transition from Old English inflections to Middle English simplification with examples.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram Old English Middle English morphological change examples.”

Table 5.4 Middle English to Modern English developments

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing Middle English to Modern English developments in verb endings, plurals, and vocabulary.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table Middle English Modern English morphological change examples.”

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Plate 5.4 Loss of inflections and rise of analytic structures

AI-generated prompt: “Create an image showing the loss of inflections in Old English and the rise of analytic structures in Modern English.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER image loss of inflections analytic structures English examples.”

Box 5.4 Examples of analogy in historical transitions

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box showing examples of analogy in historical transitions of English morphology.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource analogy historical transitions English morphology examples.”

Figure 5.5 Analogy as a reflection of usage patterns

AI-generated prompt: “Create a diagram showing how analogy reflects usage patterns in language, e.g., holp → helped.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER diagram analogy usage patterns language examples.”

Table 5.5 Morphological change and social identity

AI-generated prompt: “Create a table showing examples of morphological change linked to social identity.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER table morphological change social identity English examples.”

Box 5.5 Standardisation and prestige forms

AI-generated prompt: “Generate a text box explaining standardisation and prestige forms with examples in English morphology.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER resource standardisation prestige forms English morphology examples.”

Plate 5.5 Contemporary relevance of analogy and change in global English

AI-generated prompt: “Create an image showing contemporary examples of analogy and change in global English such as emoji, gonna, and karaoke.”

Suggested OER search string: “OER image contemporary analogy morphological change global English examples.”

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