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13.0 OBJECTIVES

In this unit we shall;

- to introduce the students with Morphology and its types,
- to recognize the features and functions of derivational and inflectional affixes,
- to make students familiar with the word formation,
- to learn the phoneme of English Language,
- to get acquainted with the pronunciation of the words.

13.1 INTRODUCTION

Morphology is the study of words, their internal structure and the changes they undergo when altered to form new words (word formation) or when they have different roles within a sentence (grammatical inflection).

Morphology is often referred to as grammar, the set of rules governing words in a language. Traditionally, grammars were based on the models of classical Latin and Greek, languages which contained a large number of endings. It is thus not surprising that classical authors were concerned with the structure of words. However, for later European languages, and certainly for modern English, the categories which were first devised for Latin and Greek are not usually applicable and can be a genuine hindrance in understanding the grammatical structure of modern languages. Grammar is a part of language which is relatively autonomous. By this it meant that it has its own internal rules and is not necessarily affected by the organization of reality outside of language.

Morphology arises basically through words merging with each other. A word becomes semantically bleached, i.e. it loses clear meaning, and becomes attached to another word – this is the stage of a clitic. After some time a clitic may further lose semantic contours and become inseparable from the lexical word it co-occurs with. Then one speaks of an inflection. This process can be carried further and this inflection may later be lost – usually through phonetic blurring – in which case there is a reduction in morphology and the language as a whole becomes analytic in type (this has happened to English in its history).

Phonology is concerned with the regularities that govern the phonetic realisations of sounds in words of a language. It looks at and tries to establish a system of sound distinctions relevant to a particular language. It then seeks to determine how the elements of this abstract system behave in actual speech. Phonology actually delineates the functioning of sounds in particular contexts. Phonetics is thus concerned with sound production while phonology studies sound behavior in realization. Adayanju (2003) expatiates on the difference. This is in terms of phonetics being concerned with providing the set of features which can describe the sounds of a language while phonology provides the information that has to do with the functional patterning of the sounds in the language. He thus views phonetics as providing the raw materials for the description of the speech sounds production while phonology is about the organization of the sound patterns in the language. Essentially then, we could safely say that phonetics describes the production process involved in physical sounds while phonology describes the environmental factors that shape these sounds in particular points of occurrence.

13.2 EXTENSION OF THE MEANING

13.2.1 Word, Morpheme and Allomorph :

Morphology is the level of linguistics which is concerned with the internal structure of words, whether these be simple or complex, whether they contain grammatical information or have a purely lexical status. There are various units which are used on this level and they can be seen as parallel to the distinctions which have already been introduced in connection with phonology. To begin with, however, one has to deal with the word, as lay speakers have a strong awareness of this. It is a fairly imprecise notion

whose definition, if any, is chiefly derived by non-linguists from orthography. A word can be defined linguistically as an element which exhibits both internal stability and external mobility. To take an example the word *pack* is internally stable inasmuch as it cannot be broken down into further elements, i.e. *pack* does not consist of *pa* + *ck* or *p* + *ack*. It is externally mobile in as much as it can occupy various positions in a sentence, i.e. it is moved as a unit within a syntactic construction. They left the *pack* on the table and the *pack* has to be mixed again. Largely because of the imprecision of the term 'word' linguists frequently prefer to use another term, *morpheme*. This is the system unit on the level of morphology much as the phoneme is on that of phonology. By definition a morpheme is the smallest unit which carries meaning. It is kept apart from the phoneme in that the latter distinguishes, but does not itself carry meaning. Normally the morpheme is transcribed in curly brackets : { }, for instance in English there is a plural morpheme {S}. This morpheme naturally has a number of realizations, just consider the words *cat*, *dog* and *horse* which in the plural are *cats* /kæt+s/, *dogs* /d>g+z/ and *horses* /ho :s+iz/ respectively. In order to capture this fact, one speaks of allomorphs which are non-distinctive realizations of a morpheme just as allophones are non-distinctive realizations of phonemes. Allomorphs are a feature of the morphology of all languages.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1

1. Define terms like Allomorph, Morpheme, and Phoneme.
2. What is Phonology ?

13.2.2 Word classes :

Word classes are types of words grouped on the basis of their functions in sentences. They differ in their status and in the relations they may have with other words. Basically there are two categories of classes, the first carries lexical meaning and the second carries grammatical meaning. Those word classes with lexical meaning refer to concepts outside of language. Nouns exist because we conceptualize entities in the world as discrete objects and name them individually. Verbs exist because we live in time and have a clear perception of action and change on a time axis. The attributes of lexical word classes reflect those in the extra linguistic world, e.g. number and natural gender with nouns or person, number and tense with verbs. Case relations (as noted above) must be distinguished on a formal level, for instance with regard to the inflections used to mark them, and on a semantic level in respect of the notions conveyed by cases. Grammatical word classes have a language internal function and typically serve to indicate relations between lexical elements in a sentence. For instance, prepositions can express a spatial or temporal relation, e.g. *Fiona is lying on the couch*. *Fergal is under the car*. Other grammatical word classes offer information about a lexical element, e.g. the definite article shows that the noun it qualifies is a certain member of a set, e.g. *The book Fiona published last year*.

13.2.3 Inflectional morphology :

In the remaining two sections of the current chapter a closer look will be taken at the two subdivisions of morphology mentioned at the outset.

Recall that inflectional morphology comprises the endings in the grammar of a language, mainly the declensions of nouns and the conjugations of verbs but also changes made to other word classes under certain grammatical conditions. The addition of the –e in the genitive case of an Irish noun like súil ‘eye’ – dath na súile ‘colour of the eye’ – is a matter of inflectional morphology. The various conjugational forms of a verb are also instances of inflectional morphology, e.g. walk, walks, walking, walked are all forms of the verb WALK with an additional inflectional morpheme (note that the abstract form of a word, the lexeme, is written in capitals to distinguish it from actual forms which are found in italics). Inflectional morphology also encompasses the formation of noun plurals. Languages like English, which are analytic in type (see section on typology below) have very regular plurals, though languages with many grammatical endings, e.g. German and Russian, have many more plural types. In English /-s/ is the most common plural ending, but a small residue of common words have irregular plurals, e.g. man : men, mouse : mice, tooth : teeth, ox : oxen. The word child has a double plural – children < child + er + en – although neither –er nor –en are used productively in modern English. With less commonly used words, especially borrowings from Latin or Greek, there may be uncertainty about how the plural is formed, e.g. in a recent discussion about holding a referendum, this word appeared variously as referendums and referenda in the plural. The process of attaching inflections to a lexical base is called affixation and there are three main types depending on the position relative to the base as outlined below.

PREFIX

Any inflection which is attached to the beginning of a base is termed a prefix. Examples abound from the vocabulary of English where such elements are derivational (see next section), i.e. they form new words.

re–make un–kind in–decent re–read un–tidy in–accurate

SUFFIX

An inflection which is placed at the end of a word is a suffix. Grammatical inflections in English and in most other languages tend to occur as suffixes but many the latter also fulfill word formational functions are can be seen from the following brief selection.

kind–ly wait–er book–s walk–ed quick–ly play–er mat–s jump–ed

Raymond Hickey Morphology

INFIX

There exists a further option, namely that of putting the affix somewhere in the middle of the word. This is a characteristic of languages from other families outside of Indo–European, for instance of Semitic : Arabic and Hebrew make much use of this possibility. In English there are practically no instances of infixation. Historically the /n/ in the verb stand ~ stood ~ stood may be an infix but this has never had a recognizable function in the development of the language.

13.2.4 Derivational morphology :

This area of morphology is concerned with all types of word formation, something which involves (1) the addition of affixes to bases or (2) the linking of two bases together. These processes can be divided into two basic types, those which maintain the word-class of the input base and those which change it, often called class-maintaining and class-changing respectively. For instance, a word like *super thin* consists of two adjectives, *super* and *thin*, linked to give yet another adjective. In the case of *brainy* the noun base has an ending suffixed to it to yield an adjective, a different word class. Examples of class-maintaining derivation from English would be negation prefixing or productive verbal prefixes like that indicating repetition : *un-* in *unfriendly* and *re-* in *redo* for example. The other major area where class-maintaining derivations are found is that of nouns. Here the process of compounding is the major type, take a simple example like Irish *gearrscéal* ‘short story’ which consists of the adjective *gear* ‘short’ and the nouns *scéal* ‘story’. Another example would be *leathscéal* ‘excuse’ from *leath* ‘half’ and *scéal* again. Instances of word-class changing suffixation abound and can be quoted at random, e.g. *-ly* in *kingly*, *womanly*; *-ish* in *sheepish*, *foolish*. The change is not compulsory, this depends on the input form. Thus with *pink* : *pinkish* there is no change. There may also be an alternation in the stem on suffixation. For instance with adjectives deriving from country names this is common : *Spain* : *Spanish*; *Denmark* : *Danish*. The input word-classes for word formation vary greatly and will be discussed in more detail below. Derivations in a language can be either transparent or opaque. They are transparent when the speaker immediately recognizes the elements of which they are composed, e.g. *undoable* obviously consists of *un* + *do* + *able*. However, where the derivational process is not productive the matter becomes more difficult. Native speakers of English recognize that *warmth* is derived from *warm* + *th*. But when the vowel of the derived form is different from that of the base the case becomes less clear : *health* is derived from *heal* and would probably be recognized as such after a little reflection on the part of the native speaker. But if there is a change in vowel quality and if the meanings of the input and derived forms are different then the derivation can be justifiably termed opaque, that is the native speaker cannot recognize it intuitively.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2

1. Define Inflectional Morphology.
2. Explain Derivational Morphology with examples.
3. Define word class.

13.2.5 Types of word formation :

Word formation in the broadest sense refers to the techniques employed in a given language to create new, complex lexical items from existing simple ones. These processes can be subdivided into a number of types. The first distinction is between those processes which are active in the present-day language and those which are fossilized. The former are termed productive while the latter are lexicalized, i.e. are no longer transparent to

native speakers of the given language. Consider the ending –wise in present-day English which is productive.

Flatwise Dublin is not the best of places to be in. Moneywise he seems to be managing quite well.

Lexicalized endings are those which cannot be used in new formations. The ending –th, as in warmth, breadth, etc. was mentioned above. Another instance is –dom as in freedom, kingdom wisdom. This class is limited and no new members occur. In the discussion of morphology so far the general term base has been used without further discussion. But in fact this requires a few further distinctions to be useful and accurate in an examination of word formation. Strictly speaking, a base refers to any unit to which any affix can be added (and in this meaning it has been employed in previous paragraphs of this chapter). Hence in derivational morphology one speaks of bases as these can take prefixes and suffixes used for word-formational purposes. You can view stems as a subgroup of the class of bases in a language.

Base : big ~ bigger (comparative : inflection) Base : big ~ biggish (new adjective : derivation)

If the internal structure of bases are considered then one can recognize a subdivision into two main types. A root is the irreducible core of a word, that part which cannot be broken down further. There are many roots in English which are also bound morphemes as seen in the following examples (all of these are ultimately words borrowed from Romance languages, chiefly French or Latin).

–mit permit, remit, commit, admit –ceive perceive, receive, conceive
pred– predator, predatory, depredate sed– sedate, sedentary, sediment

A stem is the part of a word which exists before any inflectional material is added to it. A stem may be a root as in house, dog, girl but may already be complex, for instance where an element has been added to a root for some word formational reason. Consider the following examples where the stem is the result of deriving a noun from a verb. The inflection is then added to the result by suffixation.

worker (E work + er) worker–s drinker (E drink + er) drinker–s

Not every instance of a stem, however, can be analysed as a root and a transparent ending. For instance, butter does not consist of butt + er.

13.2.6 Articulatory phonetics :

First, we introduce you to the ways in which the sounds of English are produced. Second, we develop a system for classifying speech sounds on the basis of how they are produced. Simultaneously we introduce an alphabet approximating that developed by the International Phonetics Association (IPA), which will allow us to refer to sounds quite precisely. When we want to indicate that letters are to be interpreted as phonetic symbols, we enclose them in square brackets, / /, and when we want to indicate that letters are to be interpreted as letters from an ordinary spelling system, we enclose them in angled brackets, < >.

The phonetic alphabet uses many of the letters of the English alphabet, but their pronunciations are very restricted and are not always the ones you might expect. In this system, there are no “silent” letters—every phonetic symbol represents an actual sound. Every letter always has the same pronunciation regardless of its context, no letter has more than one pronunciation, and no sounds are represented by more than one letter. To make fine distinctions, phoneticians add special symbols, called diacritics, to the basic letters. For some English sounds and for languages other than English, symbols not from the English alphabet have been devised. (You might visit the IPA web site for a full listing of the symbols.) In the sections to follow, we describe the sounds represented by these symbols and how these sounds are made. As we go through these sections, pay attention to the ways in which individual sounds are ordinarily spelled in English, as well as to the phonetic spellings. To produce speech, air must flow from the lungs through the vocal tract, which includes the vocal folds (popularly called the vocal cords, though they are more like thick elastic bands than strings), the nose or nasal cavity, and the mouth or oral cavity. The vocal folds vibrate for some sounds but not for others. Air flows through the nose for certain sounds but not others. But the main creator of speech sounds is the mouth.

Consonants include the sounds we represent as <p, b, t, d, m, n, f, v, s, z, l, r, h> in the ordinary alphabet. All consonants are produced by entirely or almost entirely stopping the airstream coming from the lungs. When we almost entirely stop the airstream we force it through such a narrow opening that the airflow at that point is turbulent and noisy. We classify consonants according to the following characteristics : (a) whether or not the vocal folds are vibrating (voicing); (b) whether the sound is made with a fully stopped or merely constricted airstream (its manner of articulation); (c) where in the mouth the stoppage or constriction is made (its place of articulation); (d) whether or not air is flowing through the nasal cavity (nasality); and (e) whether or not the lips are pursed (lip rounding).

Voicing As a warm-up exercise, makes the sound fffff, and keeps it going for a count of five. Now make the sound vvvvv, and keep it going for a count of five. Now alternate these two : fffffvvvvvffffvvvvv. You probably noticed that vvvvv had a “buzz” that fffff did not have. That “buzz” is caused by the vibrating of your vocal folds—which you can check by putting your fingers on your throat or by covering your ears as you alternate fffff and vvvvv. Now try the same exercises with the first sounds of the following words : thigh, thy; sip, zip. You should be able to feel the vocal folds vibrate as you make the second sound of each pair.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

Collect a set of words in which each of the voiced and voiceless sounds listed in the two columns above occurs as the first sound of a word, in the middle of a word (specifically between two vowels), and at the end of a word, as in : /b/ bird, rubbing, rub; /p/ pan, tapping, tap. How are each of these sounds ordinarily spelled ? (Note : English single and double consonants, as in rub and rubbing, tap and tapping, represent the same

sound. The doubled consonants tell us how the vowel before them is to be pronounced; cf. tapping, taping.)

13.2.7 Nasality :

Make the sound represented by <m> in the word Pam and continue it for some seconds. As you continue it, pinch your nose and observe what happens to the sound. It should stop immediately. This shows that air was flowing through your nose as you produced this sound. Now try the same little experiment with the <n> of pan and the <ng> of pang. You should find that the air flows through the nose in these two cases also. Sounds in which air flows through the nose are called nasal sounds. The air is allowed into the nose by lowering the velum, the soft palate at the back of the mouth. English has three main nasal sounds :

/m/ Pam	clammy	mat
/n/ pan	clannish	Nat
/ŋ/ pang	clingy	—

13.2.8 Manner of articulation :

By manner of articulation we mean the kind of closure or constriction used in making the sound. We classify English consonants according to three manners of articulation : stops (full stoppage of the airstream somewhere in the oral cavity between the vocal folds and the lips, as in /p/, /b/, /m/); fricatives (constriction of the airstream in the oral cavity producing turbulence and noise, as in /f/, /v/); affricates (full stoppage of the airstream followed immediately by constriction, as in /ʧ /, / ɟʒ /).

Stops

/p/ pad	/b/ bad	/m/ mat
/t/ tad	/d/ dad	/n/ Nat
/k/ cad	/g/ gad	/ŋ/ tang

Fricatives

/f/ fie	/v/ vie	/θ/ thigh
/ð/ thy	/s/ Sue	/z/ zoo
/ʃ/ shoe	/ʒ/ jus (au jus)	/h/ how

Affricates

/tʃ/ chin	/dʒ/ gin
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13.2.9 Place of articulation :

By place of articulation we mean the area in the mouth at which the consonantal closure or constriction occurs. English uses only seven places of articulation which we describe and illustrate below. Bilabial sounds are made by bringing both lips together to stop the airstream :

/p/	pie	cupping	cup
/b/	by	clubbing	cub
/m/	my	coming	come

Labiodental sounds are made by bringing the top teeth into contact with the bottom lip and forcing air between the two to create the fricatives :

/f/ feel raffle tough

/v/ veal ravel dove

Interdental sounds are made by placing the tip of the tongue between the top and bottom teeth and forcing air through. Again, these are both fricatives :

/θ/ thigh ether mouth bath (noun)

/ð/ thy either mouth bathe (verb)

Alveolar sounds are made by bringing the tongue and the alveolar ridge (the bony ridge just behind the top teeth) together to create either a stop or fricative :

/t/ tub boating boat

/s/ sip fussy grace

/d/ dub boding bode

/z/ zip fuzzy graze

/n/ knit boning bone

/r/ rip terror tear

(Alveo-) palatal sounds are made by bringing the blade of the tongue to, or close to, the alveo-palatal area of the roof of the mouth to create fricatives and affricates :

/ʃ/ sure vicious rush

/ʒ/ genre vision rouge

/tʃ/ chin catcher etch

/dʒ/ gin edger edge

Velar sounds are created by stopping the airstream by bringing the back of the tongue into contact with the velum :

/k/ could backer tuck

/g/ good bagger tug

/ŋ/ ——— banger tongue

Glottal sounds are created by either narrowing the vocal folds sufficiently to create a fricative or closing them to create a stop :

/h/ hat cahoots butter (some varieties of English)

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 4

1. Transcribe the following words.

- | | | |
|----------|-----------|----------------|
| a. Chin | b. Vision | c. Examination |
| d. Judge | e. Air | f. Mistake |
| g. Three | h. Bring | i. Teeth |
| j. Face | | |

2. Write the three term label of the following sounds :

- a. /z/ b. /v/ c. /w/ d. /p/ e. /l/

13.2.10 Approximants :

Approximants are sounds made by narrowing the oral cavity but not enough to cause turbulence in the airstream; the airstream is said to be smooth. The beginning sounds of lye and rye are approximants. The narrowest point in the airstream is wider in approximants than in fricatives, but is not as wide as it is in vowels. Approximants are more sonorant (resonant, i.e., naturally loud) than consonants, but less so than vowels. They are like consonants in that they typically occur before or after the vowels of syllables. English has three kinds of approximants. Lateral approximants are made by touching the tongue to the alveolar ridge while allowing the air to pass along one or both sides, as in /l/—in lack, call, and callow. Central approximants are made by raising the sides of the tongue so that the air flows along the center of the tongue, as in /r/—in rock, roll, and Rory. /r/ is regarded as an alveolar sound. Glides (semivowels) come in two kinds : palatal and labio-velar. Palatal glides are made by raising the tongue toward the hard palate, close to where the vowel in eat is made. The first sound of yet, yolk, and y'all is a palatal glide, represented phonetically as /j/. Labio-velar glides are made by rounding the lips and simultaneously raising the back of the tongue toward the velum, close to where the vowel sound of ooze is made. Labio-velar glides thus have two places of articulation—they are both labial and velar. The first sound of wet, wall, and wink is a labio-velar glide, represented phonetically as /w/.

Lateral	/l/	let
Central	/r/	Rhett
Glides Labio-velar	/w/	wet
Palatal	/j/	yet

Articulatory descriptions

An articulatory description of any consonant or approximant must specify (at least) its place and manner of articulation, whether it is voiced or voiceless, and whether it is nasal or oral. For example, /m/ is made at the lips by stopping the airstream, is voiced, and is nasal.

Voicing	voiced	voiced	voiced
Place	bilabial	labio-velar	alveolar
Manner	stop	glide lateral	approximant
Nasality	nasal	oral	oral
Example word	mime	wow	low

13.2.11 Vowels :

Vowels include the sounds we ordinarily represent as the letters <a, e, i, o, u>, as well as a number of other sounds for which the ordinary alphabet has no unique symbols. Vowels are distinguished from consonants in several ways. As we have seen, consonants are produced by constricting the airstream to various degrees as it flows through the oral tract. Vowels

are produced with a smooth, unobstructed airflow through the oral tract. Differences in vowel quality are produced by different shapes of the oral cavity. Characteristic vowel qualities are determined by (a) the height of the tongue in the mouth; (b) the part of the tongue raised (front, middle, or back); (c) the configuration of the lips; and (d) the tension of the muscles of the oral tract. An articulatory description of a vowel must include all of these features.

Tongue height Pronounce the words eat and at. Now pronounce just the vowels of these two words. Notice that as you go from the vowel of eats to the vowel of at, your mouth opens. If this is not obvious to you just by playing with these two vowels, look in a mirror as you produce them. Alternate the words, and then just the two vowels. Once you've become accustomed to the different degrees of openness of these two vowels, pronounce ate between eat and at. The degree of openness of its vowel falls between those of eat and at, so there is a continuous increase in mouth openness as you go from one vowel to another. These degrees distinguish high, mid, and low vowels. We will use the following symbols for this sequence of vowels :

eat	/i/	High
ate	/e/	Mid
at	/æ/	Low

13.2.11.1 Front and back vowels :

Now compare the vowel of beat with that of boot. Alternate the words, and then just the vowels. It will be more difficult this time to monitor the activities of your tongue as you shift from one of these to the other, but try anyway. You produce the /i/ of beat with the front (blade) of your tongue raised toward your palate. If you draw in your breath as you make this vowel, you will feel the cold air against your palate. As you shift from /i/ to /u/, the vowel of boot, you will find yourself raising the back of your tongue. (You will also find yourself pursing (rounding) your lips, but disregard this for the moment.) Because of the relative positions at which these vowels are made in the mouth, phoneticians call /i/ and the other vowels in (1) front vowels, and /u/ a back vowel. The back vowels, like the front ones, descend from high, through mid, to low, in a continuous sequence. You can observe this by pronouncing the words coot, coat, and cot, and then just their vowels. As you produce this series of vowels you'll find your mouth opening (monitor your lower jaw) as you go from coot to coat to cot. We use the following symbols for these back vowels :

coot	/u:/	High
coat	/ɒ:/	Mid
cot	/ɑ:/	Low

13.2.11.2 Lip rounding :

As we compared /i/ and /u/ you probably noticed that your lips changed shape as you shifted from the front vowel to the back one. Your lips were rounded as you produced /u/. They were unrounded (spread or

neutral) as you produced /i/. As you moved through the series of back vowels you may also have noticed that lip rounding decreased as you moved from high to low. In fact the lips are unrounded during the pronunciation of /A/. In English, the only rounded vowels are back, though many languages, such as French and German, have rounded front vowels.

Vowels

	← Mouth wider horizontally		Mouth narrower horizontally →	
Mouth narrower vertically	i: [sleep] /sli:p/	I [slip] /slIp/	ʊ [book] /bʊk/	u: [boot] /bu:t/
Mouth wider vertically	e [ten] /ten/ æ [cat] /kæt/	ə [after] /a:ftə/ ^ [cup] /k^p/	ɜ: [bird] /bɜ:d/ ɑ: [car] /cɑ:r/	ɔ: [bored] /bɔ:d/ ɒ [hot] /hɒt/

13.2.11.3 Diphthongs :

We have approached vowels as if they were articulated by a specific configuration of the tongue, lips, and oral cavity, which is held constant throughout their pronunciation. Vowels made like this are called monophthongs; others, called diphthongs, involve a change in the configuration of the mouth. The vowel sounds in the words like boy, by, and how involves a change in the shape of the mouth as the vowel is being produced. The vowel of boy begins with approximately the mid back vowel / ɔ:/ and finishes with approximately the high front lax vowel /I/ (or the palatal glide /j/). The vowel of by begins with approximately the low back vowel /a/ (a low back vowel slightly more forward than / ɒ:/, but not as forward as / ɒ/) and also finishes with approximately /I/ (or /j/). The vowel of how begins with approximately /a/ and finishes with approximately the high lax rounded vowel /U/ (or the labio-velar glide /w/). We represent these diphthongs as / ɔI/, /aI/, and /aʊ/, respectively (though many linguists use /Oj/, /aj/, and /aw/).

Diphthongs

I ə	e I	
[beer] /bIə/	[say] /seI/	
ʊ ə	ɔ I	ə ʊ
[fewer] /fjʊə/	[boy] /bɔI/	[no] /nəʊ/
e ə	a I	a ʊ
[bear] /beə/	[high] /haI/	[cow] /kaʊ/

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 5

1. Transcribe the following words :

- | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|------------|
| a. Echo | b. No | c. Goat | d. Ablaze |
| e. Ego | f. Idea | g. Aunt | h. Educate |
| i. Over | j. Aid | | |

13.3 LET US SUM UP

Morphology is concerned with the study of word forms. A word can best be defined in terms of internal stability (is it further divisible ?) and external mobility (can it be moved to a different position in a sentence ?). A morpheme is the smallest unit which carries meaning. An allomorph is a non-distinctive realization of a morpheme. Morphology can further be divided into inflectional (concerned with the endings put on words) and derivational (involves the formation of new words). Affixation is the process of attaching an inflection or, more generally, a bound morpheme to a word. This can occur at the beginning or end and occasionally in the middle of a word form. Morphemes can be classified according to whether they are bound or free and furthermore lexical or grammatical. Word formation processes can be either productive or lexicalised (non-productive). There are different types of word-formation such as compounding, zero derivation (conversion), back formation and clipping. English phonology is the basic concept for studying English language skills and components. In fact, it is the basic idea for acquiring good pronunciation, one of the English language components. Good pronunciation is needed for good speaking performance.

13.4 KEY WORDS

1. **Morphology** : The study and description of how words are formed in language.
2. **Phonology** : The study of the speech sounds used in a language.
3. **Phonetics** : The study of speech sounds.
4. **Sounds** : A particular auditory impression.
5. **Consonants** : A speech sound that is made by partly or completely stopping the flow of air breathed out from the mouth.
6. **Vowels** : A speech sound made with mouth open and tongue in the middle of your mouth not touching the teeth.

13.5 BOOKS SUGGESTED

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ANSWERS

Check your progress 1

1. Define terms like Allomorph, Morpheme, Phoneme.

Allomorph : Allomorph is one of a set of forms that a morpheme may take in different contexts.

Morpheme : It deals with a word or a part of a word that has e meaning and that contains no other smaller part.

Phoneme : The smallest distinctive unit of speech that can be used to make a word different from another word.

2. What is Phonology ?

Phonology is a component of linguistics which deals with the way in which sounds function in a language.

Check your progress 2

1. Define Inflectional Morphology.

Inflectional morphology comprises the endings in the grammar of a language, mainly the declensions of nouns and the conjugations of verbs but also changes made to other word classes under certain grammatical conditions.

2. Explain Derivational Morphology.

In morphology, a *derivational morpheme* is an affix that's added to a word to create a new word or a new form of a word.

3. Define word class.

Word classes are types of words grouped on the basis of their functions in sentences.

Check your Progress 4

1. Transcribe the following words.

- a. Chin – /tʃɪn/
- b. Vision – /vɪʒən/
- c. Examination – /ɪg ˈzæmɪˈneɪʃən/
- d. Judge – /dʒʌdʒ/
- e. Air – /eə/
- f. Mistake – /mɪˈsteɪk/
- g. Three – /θriː/
- h. Bring – /brɪŋ/
- i. Teeth – /tiːθ/
- j. Face – /feɪs/

2. Write the three term label of the following sounds :

- a. /z/ – Voiced Alveolar Fricative
- b. /v/ – Voiced Labio-dental Fricative
- c. /w/ – Voiced Labio-velar semi vowel
- d. /p/ – Voiceless Bilabial Plosive
- e. /l/ – Voiced Alveolar Lateral

Check your Progress 5

1. Transcribe the following words :

- a. Echo – /ˈekəʊ/
- b. No – /nəʊ/
- c. Goat – /ɡəʊt/
- d. Ablaze – |əˈbleɪz|
- e. Ego – /ˈegəʊ/
- f. Idea – /aɪˈdɪə/
- g. Aunt – /ɑːnt/
- h. Educate – |ədʒʊˈkeɪt|
- i. Over – /ˈəʊvə/
- j. Aid – /eɪd/

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