



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

FACULTY OF ARTS

COURSE CODE: ENG211

COURSE TITLE: HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE



ENG211

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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CONTENTS	PAGE
Introduction.....	1
What you will Learn in this Course.....	1
Course Aims	1
Course Objectives.....	2
Working through this Course	2
Course Materials.....	2
Study Units	2
Text Books and References	4
Assignment File.....	4
Presentation Schedule.....	4
Assessment	4
Tutor-Marked Assignment	4
Final Examination and Grading	4
Course Marking Scheme	5
How to Get the Most from this Course	5
Facilitators/Tutors and Tutorials	6
Summary	7

Introduction

ENG211: *History of the English Language* is a three-unit course available for students taking BA English and BA (Ed) English programmes. The course introduces you to the history of the development of English Language from Old English to its present status as a world language. In doing this, you will be exposed to major changes that have taken place in the Grammar, Vocabulary and Pronunciation of English from the Old English to the Modern Period. Major social and political events in England such as the Anglo-Saxon Conquest, the Danish Invasion and the Norman Conquest that were responsible for significant changes in the history of English will be examined. Other very important developments such as the Rise of the Middle Class in England; the Emergence of Dictionaries; the Great Vowel Shift; the 18th Century Grammarians; the dispersal of English across the world and the Development of World Englishes will also be examined.

What You Will Learn in This Course

The general aim of this course is to introduce you to the History of English Language - the various stages in the development of English and the fact that social events, political changes and scientific developments usually leave their marks on the language especially in the vocabulary. This is an on-going process because as the world experiences changes, new words and expressions are bound to evolve as part of those development processes. And people must learn new terms to update their knowledge and express their new experiences. This is the case with the English people. You are going to see how socio-political changes in England influenced the language. You will also be exposed to those factors that have been responsible for the growth and spread of English across the world.

Course Aims

There are twenty units in the course and each unit has its objectives. You should read the objectives of each unit and bear them in mind as you go through the unit. In addition to the objectives of each unit, the overall aims of this course include:

- (i) to introduce you to the history of the English language from its earliest development to its present status as a world language
- (ii) to highlight to you some significant events that influenced the emergence and growth of English
- (iii) to acquaint you with the major changes in the Grammar, Vocabulary and Pronunciation of English from the Old English to Modern English; and
- (iv) to prepare you for further studies in English as a world language.

Course Objectives

Based on the general aims of this course, some objectives as a whole are set out. These are the things you should be able to do by the time you complete the course. If you are able to meet the objective, you would have achieved the aims of the course. Therefore on your successful completion of this course, you should be able to:

- (a) trace the history of English language from old English period to the present
- (b) identify some major landmarks and stages in the development of English
- (c) describe the events that were responsible for the emergence and development of English
- (d) explain the factors that influenced the growth of English as a world language
- (e) discuss major changes in the Grammar, Vocabulary and Pronunciation of English from old English to the modern period; and
- (f) participate in further studies and research in the development of English as a world language

Working through This Course

You have to work through all the study units in the course. There are twenty study units in all.

Course Materials

Major components of the course are:

- 1. Course Guide
- 2. Study Units
- 3. Textbooks
- 4. Assignments File
- 5. Presentation Schedule

Study Units

Module 1

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Unit 1 | English Language: The Roots; the Language Situation in England before English; the Roman Conquest |
| Unit 2 | Anglo-Saxon Conquest: the Origin and Status of Old English; some features of the Old English |

- Unit 3 Influences on the Old English: Religion; the Danish Invasion and the Vikings Age
- Unit 4 Middle English Period: the Norman Conquest (1066-1200): The Ascendancy of French; The Fusion of French and English; Re-establishment of English
- Unit 5 English and French in the 13th Century; the Decline of French; the Rise of the Middle Class; General Adoption of English

Module 2

- Unit 1 Some Characteristics of Middle English: Grammar; Vocabulary; Spelling and Speech Sounds
- Unit 2 The Rise of the Standard English; the Spread of the London Dialect
- Unit 3 Early Modern Periods (1500-1750): Some Characteristics; The Renaissance English; Changes in Grammar
- Unit 4 The Problem of Spelling; the Inkhorn Controversy; the Vocabulary Question
- Unit 5 The Emergence of Dictionaries; Shakespeare and the World of Words; the King James Bible

Module 3

- Unit 1 Changes in Pronunciation; the Great Vowel Shift; Some Features of Grammar
- Unit 2 The 18th Century English; An English Academy; Johnson's Dictionary
- Unit 3 The 18th Century Grammarians; the Rise of Prescriptive Grammar
- Unit 4 English since 1900
- Unit 5 Sources of New Words; the Oxford English Dictionary; the Spelling Reform; Functional Varieties of English

Module 4

- Unit 1 Varieties of Modern English
- Unit 2 English across the World
- Unit 3 Reasons for the Growth of English as a World Language
- Unit 4 The American English
- Unit 5 English in Nigeria

Text Books and References

Every unit contains a list of references and further reading. You may wish to read further by making use of as many of the textbooks listed as possible. The textbooks and materials are meant to deepen your knowledge of the course.

Assignment File

In this file, you will find all the details of the work you must submit to your tutor for marking. The marks you obtain from these assignments will count towards the final mark you obtain for this course. Further information on assignments will be found in the assignment file itself and later in this *Course Guide* in the section on assessment.

Presentation Schedule

The Presentation Schedule included in your course materials gives you the important dates for the completion of tutor-marked assignments and attending tutorials. Remember, you are required to submit all your assignments by the due date. You should guard against falling behind in your work.

Assessment

Your assessment will be based on tutor-marked assignments (TMAs) and a final examination which you will write at the end of the course.

Tutor-Marked Assignment

Every unit contains at least one or two assignments. You are advised to work through all the assignments and submit them for assessment. Your tutor will assess the assignments and select three which will constitute the 30% of your final grade. The tutor-marked assignments may be presented to you in a separate file. Just know that for every unit there are some tutor-marked assignments for you. It is important you do them and submit for assessment.

Final Examination and Grading

At the end of the course, you will write a final examination which will constitute 70% of your final grade. In the examination which shall last for two hours, you will be requested to answer three questions out of at least five questions.

Course Marking Scheme

This table shows how the actual course marking is broken down.

Assessment	Marks
Assignment	Four assignments, best three marks of the four count at 30% of course marks
Final Examination	70% of overall course marks
Total	100% of course marks

How to Get the Most from This Course

In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecture. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace, and at a time and place that suits you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to the lecturer. In the same way a lecturer might give you some reading to do, the study units tell you when to read, and what your text materials or set books are. You are provided exercises to do at the end of every sub-section of the units, just as a lecturer might give you an in-class exercise. Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit, and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next to this is a set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should be able to do by the time you complete the unit. These learning objectives are meant to guide your study. The moment you finish a unit, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If this is made a habit, then you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course. The main body of the unit guides you through the further reading from other sources. This will usually be either from your set books or from a reading section. The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, telephone your tutor. Remember that your tutor's job is to help you. When you need assistance, do not hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide it.

1. Read this Course Guide thoroughly, it is your first assignment.
2. Organise a Study Schedule. Design a "Course Overview" to guide you through the Course. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Important information e.g. details of your tutorials, and the date of the first day of the Semester is available from the study centre. You will need to gather all information into one place, such as your diary or a wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to

use, you should decide on and write in your own dates and schedule of work for each unit.

3. Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything to stay faithful to it. The major reason why students fail is that they get behind with their course work. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please, let your tutor know before it is too late for help.
4. Turn to Unit 1; read the introduction and the objectives for the unit.
5. Assemble the study materials. You will need your set books and the unit you are studying at any point in time.
6. Work through the unit. As you work through the unit, you will know what sources to consult for further information.
7. Keep in touch with your study centre. Up-to-date course information will be continuously available there.
8. Well before the relevant due dates (about 4 weeks before due dates), keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignment carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and therefore, will help you pass the examination. Submit all assignments not later than the due date.
9. Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study materials or consult your tutor.
10. When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to pace your study so that you keep yourself on schedule.
11. When you submit an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before you start on the next unit. Keep to your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments, both on the tutor-marked assignment form and also the written comments on the ordinary assignments.
12. After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in the Course Guide).

Facilitator/Tutors and Tutorials

The dates, times and locations of these tutorials will be made available to you, together with the name, telephone number and address of your tutor. Each assignment will be marked by your tutor. Pay close attention to the comments your tutor might make on your assignments as these will help in your progress. Make sure that assignments reach your tutor on or before the due date. Your tutorials are important; therefore try not to skip any. It is an opportunity to meet your tutor and your fellow students. It is also an opportunity to get the help of your tutor and discuss any difficulties encountered on your reading.

Summary

English is just like any other language that struggled for existence for many centuries. But today it has become a world language. A course on the History of the English Language is indeed a worthwhile academic engagement that will not only expose you to the stages of the development of the language but also the factors that led to its growth. At the end, you should be able to say whether English will continue in its present growth and role as a world language or whether we shall expect another language to rise in the next 50 years.

Good Luck!

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CONTENTS	PAGE
Module 1	1
Unit 1 English Language: the Roots; the Language Situation in England before English; the Roman Conquest.....	1
Unit 2 Anglo-Saxon Conquest; the Origin and Status of Old English; some features of Old English.....	6
Unit 3 Influences on the Old English: Religion; the Danish Invasion and the Vikings Age.....	12
Unit 4 Middle English Period: the Norman Conquest (1066-1200): The Ascendancy of French; the Fusion of French and English; Re-establishment of English...	18
Unit 5 English and French in the 13 th Century; the Decline of French; the Rise of the Middle Class; General Adoption of English	24
Module 2	31
Unit 1 Some Characteristics of Middle English: Grammar; Vocabulary; Spelling and Speech Sounds.....	31
Unit 2 The Rise of the Standard English; the Spread of the London Dialect.....	41
Unit 3 Early Modern Periods (1500-1750): Some Characteristics; The Renaissance English; Changes in Grammar.....	46
Unit 4 The Problem of Spelling; the Inkhorn Controversy; the Vocabulary Question.....	53
Unit 5 The Emergence of Dictionaries; Shakespeare and the World of Words; the King James Bible.....	62
Module 3	68
Unit 1 Changes in Pronunciation; the Great Vowel Shift; Some Features of Grammar.....	68
Unit 2 English Language in the 18 th Century: An English Academy and Johnson's Dictionary.....	74
Unit 3 The 18 th Century Grammarians; the Rise of Prescriptive Grammar.....	81
Unit 4 English since 1900.....	86
Unit 5 Sources of New Words; the Oxford English Dictionary; the Spelling Reform; Functional Varieties of English.....	93

Module 4 100

Unit 1	Varieties of Modern English	101
Unit 2	English across the World.....	109
Unit 3	The Growth of English as a World Language	115
Unit 4	American English	121
Unit 5	English in Nigeria.....	128

MODULE 1

Unit 1	English Language: the Roots; the Language Situation in England before English; the Roman Conquest
Unit 2	Anglo-Saxon Conquest; the Origin and Status of Old English; Some Features of the Old English
Unit 3	Influences on the Old English: Religion; the Danish Invasion and the Vikings Age
Unit 4	Middle English Period: the Norman Conquest (1066-1200): The Ascendancy of French; The Fusion of French and English; Re-establishment of English
Unit 5	English and French in the 13 th Century; the Decline of French; the Rise of the Middle Class; General Adoption of English

UNIT 1 ENGLISH LANGUAGE: THE ROOTS; THE LANGUAGE SITUATION IN ENGLAND BEFORE ENGLISH; THE ROMAN CONQUEST

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	English Language: the Roots
3.2	The Language Situation in England before English
3.3	The Roman Conquest
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You may want to ask: where did English come from? Was English the original language of the British people? Were there other languages in England before English emerged? Who really are the English people? To answer these questions it is important you understand that every language has a root as well as a history and English is not an exception. The history of English is divided into three broad periods namely Old English (AD 450-1100), Middle English (1100-1500), and Modern English (1500-). This first unit will give you background knowledge of the origin of English and the environment that gave birth to the old English. You will get to know the language family where English belongs; the earliest people that lived in Britain and the languages they

spoke, and how a change in their socio-political situation affected their culture, because language is an important part of a people's culture.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

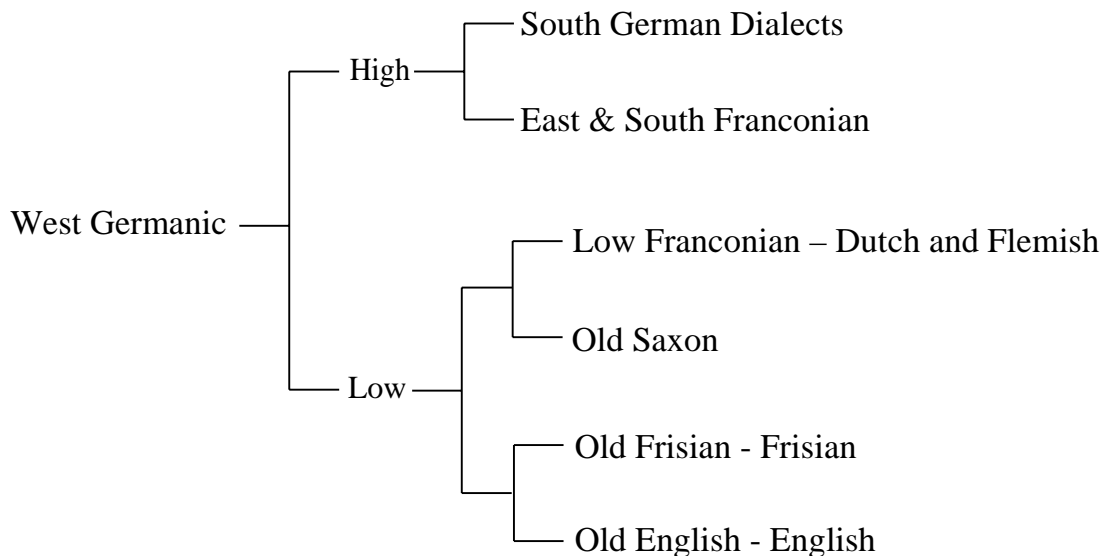
- trace the origin of the English Language
- mention other languages within the Indo-European family
- describe the language situation in England before English
- explain how the Roman conquest affected language in England at that time.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 English Language: The Roots

English did not originate in England. In Europe, languages are grouped into 'families' depending on the features of each member of the group. English belongs to the group known as the "Indo-European Family" which includes most of the languages in Europe. Within the Indo-European family, are other sub-groups called *Italic* and *Germanic*. Germanic is also known as Teutonic. Latin and French developed from Italic at different times. The Germanic group has three branches namely North Germanic, East Germanic, and West Germanic. It is not certain whether North, East and West Germanic represent actual languages. The North Germanic is the group where we find language like Danish, Swedish, Norwegian and Icelandic.

The West Germanic group developed into modern German, Dutch, Frisian and English. In this group are still other sub-groups, namely High West Germanic and the Low West Germanic due to their grammatical features. Both English and Frisian belong to the Low West Germanic and are therefore the closest of relatives. Frisian is spoken in North-west Netherlands. Remember that when we say that languages belong to one linguistic 'family', it means that they share essential similarities in grammar and in their stock of words. English was separated from its Germanic root when some Germanic tribes: the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes migrated from their original home in North-western Europe to Britain, and English language began to develop into an independent language with new characteristics distinct from other Germanic languages. You shall know more about this in the next unit.



The West Germanic Language Group

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Where did English language originate from?
2. Mention four (4) languages that belong to the West Germanic branch of the Indo-European family.
3. What do you think are the benefits of studying the history of English Language?

3.2 The Language Situation in England before English

English came to England only at about the middle of the 5th century, whereas men had inhabited Britain for thousands of years before then. Of course you cannot imagine a place where people live without a functional language. So there must have been at least one language and its varieties, with which people communicated with one another. The first people known to have inhabited the island that was later to become England were the Celts and they spoke 'Celtic'. The Celtic language and its varieties were another branch of the Indo-European family. The Celtic languages were the most extensive groups in the Indo-European family to be spoken in England at that time and up till today a good number of people in some parts of Wales and Highlands of Scotland still speak it. When Latin was later introduced in Britain, Celtic remained the language of the populace, especially of the rural dwellers.

How the Celts came to England is not really known but history confirms that at the beginning of the Christian era, the Celts were found in Spain, West Germany, Italy and Great Britain. In fact they covered some greater part of Western Europe. Some centuries earlier they were said to have gained entry to Greece and Asia Minor. But how the Celtic languages increasingly declined over time is still quite surprising.

Today Celtic languages are found only in some remote areas of France and Britain as we said earlier. The impact of Celtic on modern English however, has survived mainly on place-names. Names of cities like Belfast, York, London, Glasgow or Cardiff are Celtic. Names of rivers such as Avon, Clyde, Dee, Don, Forth or Usk also have the Celtic origin. Others are names of regions like Devon, Glasmorgan, Kent, Cumbria, and Argyll. The Celtic 'cumb' (i.e. a deep valley) is traceable in names like Dumcombe, Holcomb or Winchcombe. What the original Celtic meaning for these place names are cannot be said for sure. Celtic remained the predominant language of England until the occupation of the Romans when Latin was introduced.

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Mention the first Germanic tribe to inhabit the Island that later became England.
2. Can you explain the functions of the Celtic language in the England of the 5th century?

3.3 The Roman Conquest

The Romans under Julius Caesar first invaded Britain in 55B.C, but the actual conquest was in AD 43 under Claudius when the Celtic warriors could no longer resist the much stronger Roman army. The Roman occupation of Britain lasted from about AD 43 until 410. This was a very long period which invariably planted much of Roman occupation, civilization and culture in Britain. Latin was the language of the Romans so it became the official language, in the Roman Britain especially in towns and cities. Celtic was spoken in the rural areas. In some localities outside the cities, Latin was spoken; workmen and artisans were familiar with the language as they often scratched Graffiti on tiles and some pieces of pottery. At this time, English had not come. Since Latin was not wide spread enough it could not survive the later Germanic invasions. Latin began to wane around AD 410, the time the last of the Roman troops were officially withdrawn from Britain.

However, the Roman conquests have some linguistic contributions to the present day English lexicon. For instance, the old English "Caestar" (an enclosed place) is from the Latin "casta" (camp). Today we have some English place-names like Chester, Dorchester, Manchester and Lancaster. The Latin 'portus' (gate) gave English the following names: Newport, Port sea, Portsmouth; from Latin 'mons' (mountain) we have Larchmont, and Oakmont, while the Latin 'turris' (tower) gave rise to Torrington, Torbridge. So you can see that Latin contributed to the development of English.

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. Mention the two languages that were spoken in the Roman Britain between AD 43 and 410?
2. Describe the contributions of the Roman conquest to the development of the English language.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You can see that English has its root from among the dialects of Germanic tribes in North-western Europe. This is the area where you find the modern Germany, Poland, Russia or Denmark. It belongs to the Indo-European language family and is grouped along with German, Dutch, Flemish, and Frisian as the West-Germanic. Before English was planted in Britain, the Celtic tribes who lived in the Isles then spoke their language Celtic and that became the first language in Britain. The Celts were defeated by the Romans and Britain came under the Roman government and for a very long time Latin, the Roman language was then planted as the language of communication and politics. But the Celtic language still survived especially in the rural areas.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have seen where the English came from, i.e. in North-west Europe, from a dialect of the Germanic tribes. You will get to know more about these Germanic tribes in Unit 2. Latin and Celtic were spoken in England before the Germanic tribes brought in English. We can still find some of the marks of the Celtic and Latin languages in modern English place-names.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the origin of the English language.
2. Describe the contributions of both Celtic and Latin languages to modern English.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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https://www.academia.edu/9463445/A_Brief_History_of_the_Development_of_the_English_Language_Old_Middle_and_Modern_Periods

Seoane, E. (2008) *The Handbook of the History of English* DOI: [10.1002/9780470757048.ch15](https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470757048.ch15)
(pp.360 - 391)

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/229764538_The_Handbook_of_the_History_of_English

UNIT 2 ANGLO-SAXON CONQUEST; THE ORIGIN AND STATUS OF OLD ENGLISH; SOME FEATURES OF THE OLD ENGLISH

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Anglo-Saxon Conquest
 - 3.2 The Origin and Status of Old English
 - 3.3 Some Features of the Old English
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You have seen from the last unit that English language was transported to England from among some tribes of Germanic people from Northern Europe of the regions comprising present day southern Denmark and Northern Germany. These tribes were the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. In this unit, you will see the process of their movement and how they eventually occupied Britain. The Anglo-Saxon language was the Old English. You will also see some features of the old English so that you can identify the extent of changes on its grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation as we make progress in this course.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the Germanic tribes that invaded Britain at the close of the 6th century
- describe some features of the old English.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Anglo-Saxon Conquest

The Romans occupied Britain for more than 300 years. But the power of the Roman Empire began to decline due to series of attacks from Northern Europe and the Romans needed to protect their territories. Consequently, the Roman soldiers in Britain were withdrawn to fight

subsequent battles. This left the Celts unprotected. There were two tribes from Northern Britain which the Romans did not conquer, known as the Picts and Scots. These people saw the withdrawal of the Romans as an opportunity to attack and plunder the much vulnerable Celts. The Celts then appealed to the Germanic warriors - the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes for help. They came in great numbers and at different times. The Angles from the modern state of Schleswig-Holstein, Germany came in AD 547 and settled in the north and central England. The Saxons (AD 477) also from modern Germany occupied the south of the island; while the Jutes occupied Kent. The Jutes were the first to arrive in AD 449 driving the indigenous Celtic speaking people notably the Britons to the North and West – the present day Wales. The Jutes were from modern Denmark or Northern Germany; their territory bordered that of Saxons.

These Germanic tribes helped the Celts defeat the attacking Picts and Scots, but then turned around to loot, and destroy their host country and eventually occupied it. The Celts realized too late that their friends had become their conquerors. Although wars to resist the Germanic tribes continued for the next 200 years, the Celts could not drive the Germanic tribes out. Some of the Celts were rather driven to places like Wales, Cornwall and the Scottish highlands. Those who remained were forced to accept the government of the new comers and became absorbed through inter-marriages. After a few centuries, the Celts lost their identity within the Anglo-Saxon society.

The Germanic tribes had a lot of things in common: they were semi-nomadic (they moved from place to place) warlike, sea-faring but land loving. The Angles and the Saxons were more in number than the Jutes, and were also more persistent. The Celts called the invaders “Sassenachs” i.e. “Saxons” regardless of their specific tribes. By the end of the 6th century the term “Angles” was used. During the seventh century the Latin name for the country was Angli or Anglia. This became “Engle” in Old English, while the name of the language was called “Englisc”. It was around the 10th century that the word “Englaland” or “Aegle-land”, (land of the Angles) appeared; this later became England.

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Mention the Germanic tribes that invaded Britain at about the 6th century?
2. Why did the Romans evacuate Britain leaving the Celts unprotected?
3. Explain the methods the Anglo-Saxons used to conquer Britain?

3.2 The Origin and Status of Old English

Old English was the language the three Germanic tribes spoke as they settled in England. It was more of a fusion of the dialects of the Germanic tribes and it is difficult to say how much the speech of the Angles differs from that of the Saxons or that of the Jutes. However, it was never a uniform language. Four main dialects of the Old English were spoken during this period namely, Northumbrian, Mercian, West-Saxon and Kentish. These dialects were spoken in different parts of Britain and Scotland. For instance, Northumbria and Mercian were spoken in the region north of the Thames where the Angles occupied.

As you have seen in Unit1, English belongs to the low Germanic branch of the Indo-European family. This means that English has in common certain characteristics with other Germanic languages. For instance, it has both the ‘weak’ and ‘strong’ stress patterns in adjectives and verbs. It shows that there is a strong stress accent on the first or the root syllable of most words. This feature is common to all Germanic languages since it is mainly responsible for the decay of inflections in these languages. You will know more about this in the subsequent units.

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Explain the origin of the Old English.

3.3 Some Features of the Old English

Let me remind you once again that the period from AD450 to 1150 is referred to as Old English. The grammar of the Old English took after the Latin grammar. One of the features of Latin is that it is heavily inflected. This means that the Latin words are full of inflections; what you may call affixes today. That is why the Old English period is sometimes called the period of full inflection, because during this period, the endings of nouns, adjectives and verbs had inflections. A noun for example is described in terms of cases, Latin has six (6) cases, Nominative (subject), Genitive (possessive), Accusative (objective), Dative (indirect object) Ablative and Vocative. The Latin “Nauta” (sailor) for example has its singular form (nominative) as ‘nauta’, plural “nautae”. Remember in its grammar, Old English resembled Latin. The nouns and adjectives are inflected for up to four or five cases. The old English “fisc” (fish) for example has the following cases:

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	fisc	fiscas
Genitive	fisces	fisca
Accusative	fisc	fiscas
Dative	fisca	fiscum

Old English adjectives had separate forms of each of the three genders.
For example:
gōd (good)

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	Gōd	gōd	gōd
Genitive	Gōdes	gōdre	gōdes
Dative	Gōdum	gōdre	gōd

So you can see that old English takes much of Latin. In pronunciation, Old English differs a great deal from its modern equivalent. For example, the Old English “stan” is the modern ‘stone’ but the vowel differs. This is the same thing in words like halig (holy); gañ (go), bán- (bone) ráp (rope), cēne (keen), fyr (fire), scēap (sheep) etc. The difference is also reflected in spelling. Because the Old English represented the sound ‘sh’, by ‘sc’ the spelling of ‘sheep’ was written as ‘scēap’.

Old English vocabulary is almost entirely lifted from the Germanic languages. A large part of this vocabulary has disappeared today. When the Northern conquest introduced French to England as the language of the upper classes, much of the Old English vocabulary for literature and education gave way to words borrowed from French and Latin. Those that survived were very few, with such words as ‘mann’ (man), ‘wif’ (wife) ‘cild’ (child) ‘hūs’ (house) etc.

You can see that both in grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, old English is distinct from modern English. Below is a sample from a West-Saxon version of the gospel according to Saint John Chapter 1:1-3

TEXT 1

On frymthe waes Word, and thaet Word waes mid Gode and God waes thaet Word. That waes on fruman mid Gode. Ealle thing waeron geworhte thurh hyre; and nan thing naes geworht butan him.

In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was with God, and the Word was God. The same was in the beginning with God. All things

were made by Him, and without Him was not anything made that was made.

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. Can you say why the old English conformed to the grammar of Latin?
2. Describe at least two (2) features of old English.

4.0 CONCLUSION

One of the most important events in the history of the English language is the Anglo-Saxon conquest, which is responsible for the birth of English in Britain. Old English, which is the language of the conquering Germanic tribes, was influenced by Latin due to the long occupation of Britain by the Romans and their long contacts with the Germanic tribes. The old English was the national language of Britain during this period, though it had other varieties or dialects.

5.0 SUMMARY

The Germanic conquest brought the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes to England. They were initially invited to help the defenseless Celts fight their battles after the Roman withdrew from Britain. The Germanic tribes came in their large numbers, defended the Celts against the Picts and the Scots and turned around to conquer their host. The Celts could not match their new conquerors and were forced to be subjected to their authority. This period is known as the Old English period because the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes spoke this language. Old English was a combination of the features of the languages of the tribes and resembled Latin both in grammar and vocabulary. About four dialects of Old English were spoken at that time. Looking at some of the characteristics of Old English, it is obvious that most of its lexical, grammatical and phonological features have faded away, over time.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the meaning of “Anglo-Saxon”.
2. Describe how the Germanic tribes conquered Britain and how this resulted in the birth of the English language.

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UNIT 3 INFLUENCES ON THE OLD ENGLISH: RELIGION, THE DANISH INVASION AND THE AGE OF THE VIKINGS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Religious Influences on the Old English
 - 3.2 The Danish Invasion and the Age of the Vikings
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 2 you were exposed to how the Germanic tribes conquered Britain in the 6th century and introduced Old English which was a mixture of the languages of the tribes and the Celtic language. The Roman civilization, you will remember left its mark on the language. Old English continued to receive foreign influences which affected its internal structure and vocabulary. In this Unit you will be introduced to some of these influences. The most important are religion (Christianity) and the Danish conquest.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- explain how Christianity influenced the Old English
- discuss the effects of the Danish invasion on the English language.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Religious Influence on Old English

Christianity was introduced in England at about AD597. And from this time to the close of the Old English period (around AD1100) is over 500 years. So you can imagine how great impact this would have on language. The dominant church then was the Roman Catholic and the religious zeal that greeted the 7th century was responsible for building churches and monasteries. And Latin being the primary language of

religion was once again rapidly imported. The temporary decline Latin experienced earlier with the coming of the Anglo-Saxons was overtaken by this religious revival.

The missionaries from Rome did not only introduce Christianity, they came with classical civilization, education and the Latin language, which was the universal language of the church and education. Many of the Latin words were adopted early, while some were adopted towards the end of the tenth and eleventh centuries. These words also found their way into the literature of the time. Normally, it is expected that the new words would express new ideas and concepts. So the new religion introduced words about the church, and explained its internal and external organization. Remember that the Anglo-Saxons were not Christians, so the church and pagan ideas and customs survived side by side. But much of paganism was absorbed by the church.

With education the Anglo-Saxons could record their tradition and poetry. People began to express themselves in literature. One of the first works of Literature in the Old English language is called "Beowulf." The author is one of the earliest converts who were educated in classical literature. He must have read some of the earliest classical writers called Virgil and Homer. Virgil wrote *Aeneid*; while Homer wrote the *Odyssey*. Another product of this early Christian education is a man by name Bede - Venerable Bede. Bede was born in Northumbria and educated at the University of Warmouth. He authored the *Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation*; this was just one of the thirty-six books credited to him. He wrote in Latin.

Words Relating to Religion

Some words relating to Christianity such as "Church" and "Bishop" were borrowed earlier because the Anglo-Saxon had had contact with some bishops and had plundered churches before they came to England. But most of the words relating to religion were borrowed at the time of Christian evolution. The following words given in their modern forms have survived over time: *canon, alms, chalice, altar, angel, anthem, epistle, hymn, litany, cleric, martyr, nun, minister, organ, pope, priest, psalm, provost, shift, shrine, deacon, synod, temple, noon, ark, candle* etc.

The church also influenced the domestic life of the people. You can see this in the words that relate to clothing and household use, e.g. *cap, sock, silk, mat, sack, purple*; words denoting food or food items such as *beef, cabbage, lentil, millet, pear, oyster, lobster, mussel* were also adopted from religion. Some number of words that relate to education and learning show another dimension of the church's influence. Such

words are *school, Latin, master, grammatic, verse, meter, rotary* etc. Names of trees, plant and herbs are also rooted in religion. Examples are *lily, pine aloes, balsam, fennel, hyssop, mallow, myrrh* and the general word “plant”. There are various words that one can trace to the religion of this period like *anchor, fan, fever, place, sponge, phoenix, elephant, circle, giants, legion, talent and consuls*. These examples are mostly nouns but Old English also borrowed a number of verbs and adjectives which we may not cover in this study. The most important thing is that you understand how significant impact the church had in Old English

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention some ten (10) words that are attributable to the influence of Christianity in the English language.

3.2 The Danish invasion and the age of the Vikings

Towards the end of the Old English period, another invasion of England took place, this time by the Danes from Denmark. Also called the Vikings, their contact with English constituted another major influence on the language. Denmark, Sweden and Norway are among countries that come from the Scandinavian region.

The Scandinavians, i.e., the Swedish, and the Norwegians were actually neighbours to Anglo-Saxons and were even related in language and blood. Their plundering activities started from the 8th century to the beginning of the 11th century. The climax of their achievement came in the 11th century when the King of Denmark took over the throne of England, conquered Norway and rule the greater part of the Scandinavians world. The period of the Danish activities and influence from 1014 -1039 is known as the Viking Age.

The Danish attacks were in three stages: the first early stages were characterized by plundering of towns and church facilities. This was between AD787 and 850. The second stage was in 850 when the Danes came in a fleet of 350 ships. They invaded and captured Canterbury, London, York and East Anglia. By 878 they had overrun almost the whole of Britain. The third stage of the Scandinavian invasion was more of political adjustment and assimilation from 878 to 1042. In 1042 the English king was sent on exile and for the next 25 years England was ruled by the Danes.

As the Vikings became permanent settlers in England they gradually got absorbed in the native population and accepted the Anglo-Saxon religion and language. Their adoption of the language, though very similar with theirs, altered the Old English in some noticeable ways, especially its

influenced on place names. More than 1,400 places in England bear Scandinavian names. Their early acceptance of Christianity can also be seen in the Scandinavian names found among the Monks, Priests and Bishops. The Danes settled mainly in Northumbria, and the West Coast of Ireland.

The relationship between the Old English and Danish (also called Norse) was more of interference. The situation is similar to what is obtainable in many cities of the world today where people from different cultures leave and spoke different languages. In some parts of Scotland, Norse was spoken as late as the 17th century, while in some part of England, English was generally spoken but newcomers to such districts will normally speak their own languages. There is no doubt that many words in modern English are borrowed from the Scandinavian tongue. For example in Old English, the modern sound of 'sh' (like ship) is written as 'sc'. In the Scandinavian sound 'sk' is retained in modern English. Native words like *ship*, *shall*, *fish* have 'sh' in modern English. Words borrowed from the Scandinavian are still pronounced with 'sk' e.g. *sky*, *skin*, *skill*, *scrape*, *whisk* or *bask*. The O.E 'scyrte' has become "shirt" while the corresponding O.N (Old Norse) from "skyrta" is retained "skirt". Also words with the retention of 'g' sound as in *get*, *give*, *gild* and *egg* indicate Scandinavian origin. So you can see that the Scandinavian language enjoyed a great deal of influence on modern English.

Scandinavian Place Names

You have been told earlier that one of the notable evidences of the Viking settlement is the extensive number of place names in England. More than 600 places with names ending in *-by* are Scandinavian e.g. *Grimsby*, *Wgitby*, *Derby*, *Rugby*, *Thoresby* etc. Some 300 names end with *-pe*. As in *Althorp*, *Bishopsthorpe*, *Gawthorpe*, etc. The Scandinavian '*throe*' means village. Some others contain the word '*thwaite*' meaning 'an isolated peace of land'. They include *Applethwaite*, *Braithwaite*, *Cowperthwaite* etc. About a hundred names bear the ending '*toft*' (a piece of ground) e.g. *Brimtoft*, *Eastoft* *Langtoft*, *Nortoft* etc. Personal names ending with the suffix '*son*' are also of Scandinavian origin e.g. *Gibson*, *Jackson*, *Johnson*, *Watson*, *Wilson* etc.

The largest number of place names is found in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire, contributing about 75% of names of Scandinavian origin to the English Lexicon. A good number is also found in Cumberland and Westmoreland; these are countries in the Northeast of England showing that the Danes had a large settlement in these areas. This is also true of Norfolk in East Anglia.

The earliest influence of the Norse on the Old English vocabulary is words that are associated with sea-faring or sea-roving. You know that the Danes lived an adventurous and predatory life. The Old English *scegþ* (vessel), *lip* (fleet), *scegþmann* (pirate), *dreng* (warrior) etc. are Scandinavian words. Later, a number of words relating to law, and those relating to the social and administrative system of the Danes were also introduced to Old English. The word 'law' itself is a Scandinavian word.

As a matter of fact the Danish invasions were not like the introduction of Christianity that brought the English people to a new civilization and introduced them to many things, both physical and spiritual that they never knew before. And you know that these new things came with new vocabularies and ways of expressing them. The civilization of the Scandinavians was very much like that of the English themselves. Consequently the Danish loans entered the English language through the process of everyday interaction.

Scandinavian Words

Some common place nouns that have the Scandinavian origin are *bank, birth, bull, dirt, down, dregs, egg, fellow, gap, guess, kid, leg, loan, mire, root, scales, score, seat, sister, skin, sky, slaughter, thrift, tidings, trust* etc. among adjectives we have *awkward, flat, ill, brose, low, meek, rotten, rugged, tight, and weak*. There are also some number of verbs, such as *grave, call, crawl, die, gape, get, give, lift, nag, raise, scare, take, thrive*. These are some of the words that the Danish invasion and subsequent settlement introduced to English.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention five (5) words that are of the Scandinavian origin.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Two major foreign influences in the Old English are the coming of the Christian religion and the Danish invasion. Don't forget that in this Unit we have used the terms, the Danes or Danish, the Scandinavian and the Vikings to refer to the same people. These two events introduced foreign words to the English Language.

5.0 SUMMARY

The coming of Christian civilization to England brought with it new ideas and concepts which required the right kind of vocabulary to express them. Hence, Christianity brought into the Old English words that are associated with religion and church administration. When the

Scandinavians later invaded England and settled there, they were absorbed in the social system of the English people and many of them became Christian converts. However, through everyday interaction they introduced their own words, which are less technical than the religious ones. Most of the words that are Danish are everyday words and those associated with Sea-roving. Most English place names are also attributed to the Scandinavians.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Distinguish between religious influences and that of the Danish invasion on the English language.
2. Discuss some specific contributions of the Christian religion to the growth of the English language.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 4 MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD: THE NORMAN CONQUEST (1066-1200); THE ASCENDANCY OF FRENCH; THE FUSION OF FRENCH AND ENGLISH; RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF ENGLISH

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Middle English Period: The Norman Conquest (1066-1200)
 - 3.2 The Ascendancy of French
 - 3.3 The Fusion of French and English
 - 3.4 Re-Establishment of English
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

So far, we have been able to trace the origin of English and examined major events and factors that influenced its grammar and vocabulary. Towards the close of the Old English another event occurred that had greater effect on the English language than any other in the course of its history. This event is the Norman Conquest and indeed, it changed the course of the English language, and ushered in the period known as the Middle English. This period runs from the beginning of the 12th century to the middle of the 15th century. In this Unit, you will get to know how far the introduction of French language which came with the Norman Conquest influenced the English language.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you will be able to:

- explain the relationship between the Norman conquest and the French Language
- describe the position of French in the England of the middle English period
- discuss the relationship between French and English at this time
- explain why the English language was re-established after French domination.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Middle English Period: The Norman Conquest (1066-1200)

You may want to know who the Normans were. The Normans were made up of the Danes and other settlers from Northern Europe that occupied Normandy in the 9th and 10th centuries. Normandy was a district on the Northern coast of France. The civilization of Normandy was essentially French, and the Normans were among the most progressive and advanced of the people of Europe at this time.

Before the conquest, England and Normandy had enjoyed a fair long standing relationship. For instance, one of the English kings (Ethelred) married a Norman wife and when he was driven to exile by the Danes, he took refuge with his brother-in-law, the duke of Normandy. His son Edward, then brought up in France was more of French than English. In 1042, the Danish government declined in England and Edward known as the confessor was restored to the throne from which the Danes had earlier expelled his father. He came back with his Norman friends, enriched them and gave them important positions in his government, thus a strong French atmosphere reigned in the English court during the 24 years of Edward's government. Edward died in 1066 without a son to succeed him. William the Duke of Normandy was a second cousin of the late King Edward and had nursed the ambition of succeeding the king. His relationship with Edward however, didn't give him any right to the English throne. So he decided to take the throne by force. This he did, and at the battle of Hastings, his forces killed the reigning king Harold and defeated his army. William was eventually crowned king of England on the 25th December 1066. With the possession of the English crown, William introduced new nobility. Most of the English higher class died in the war at Hasting and those that escaped were treated as traitors. By 1072, the Old English nobility was practically wiped out, and their places were filled with Norman followers of the king. What the Norman settlement in England meant to language was that French, which was the language of the Normans, was introduced as a second official language in England. And it functioned particularly as the language of the upper class. Unlike the Anglo-Saxons language that came to replace the existing Celtic language, French was adopted to be used side by side with English but the two languages were to perform different roles.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Describe how the French language came into England.
2. Explain the effect of the elimination of the English nobility to the English language.

3.2 The Ascendancy of French

Following William of Normandy's ascension of the English throne, French strictly became the language of government. French speaking officials of government were appointed, who in turn brought their own personal staff. French speaking bishops and clergymen were also appointed, and for almost 20 years of the invasion of England, almost all the religious houses were under French-speaking superiors. Large numbers of French merchants and craft men flooded England to take advantage of the commercial opportunities provided by the new regime. The French nobles and aristocrats in England retained their links with Normandy where their estates and investments were. For about 200 years after the Norman Conquest, French remained the language of communication among the upper and ruling class in England. Initially only those who spoke French were of the Norman descent, but soon through intermarriages and association with the ruling class, many English speaking people found it a social advantage to learn French, and before long the distinction between those that spoke French and those that spoke English was no more ethnic but social. To be more socially recognised, one had to learn to speak French. Bilingualism flourished; English people needing to cross some social hurdles and gain some advantage from the aristocracy learned French. Some junior staff of government who needed to improve their daily communication contact with the local communities however, learned English. The language of the masses remained English. It was the language of the inferior class.

Some of the factors that favoured the continual use of French by the English upper class were the close link between England and Europe, especially Normandy. From the time of the conquest, the kings of England were also dukes of Normandy. William himself was more attached to his dukedom and spent more of his time in Normandy than in England. The English nobility were also more of French aristocracy. Their business interests and possession were in the continent especially France and many of them spent most of their time there. They frequently contracted marriage there also. You can see that the Normans maintained a strict French culture and civilization in England and this raised the status of French above all other languages.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Give at least three (3) reasons why the French language became the superior language during the early years of the Norman occupation of England.
2. Explain the status of English in the England of this period.

3.3 The Fusion of French and English

We have already noted that the French language exerted a lot of influences on the English people's life, socially, politically and religiously. Most of the abbots (clergymen) and monks were Normans. For example, the Archbishops of Canterbury and of York were Normans and spoke French. English kings were equally dukes of Normandy. William even considered Normandy more important than he left it to his eldest son while England was for his second son. All English kings until Edward IV (1461-1483) made it a tradition to marry French wives. The English nobility were equally French conscious, marrying French wives and engaging in French wars and campaigns. Most literary works in England at that time were all written in the language and were encouraged by members of the upper class.

However, English survived in some monasteries and among church men, the ability to speak English was fairly common. And interestingly, some notable bishops of Norman descent spoke French, English and Latin.

So we can conclude that the ascendancy of French did not eliminate English completely. Both languages were used by the upper class and nobility. But French was the language of social civilization and refinement. English held a subordinate position and remained the language of the low class.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Summarize the roles of French and English during the reign of William the conqueror.

3.4 Re-Establishment of English

Changing social and political conditions in Europe and England after 1200 gave rise to re-establishment of English language in the English public service. As a result of these changes, English became more widely used among the upper classes. The English and Normans had so lived together, doing things together and intermarrying, that the two nations became so mixed up that it became difficult to tell who was English or who was French. And by the end of the 12th century, it was noticed that some children of the nobility spoke English as their mother tongue and were taught French at school. French continued to be used in government and in courts. Now what happened that raised the status of English? From 1204 a different political and economic climate emerged. King John of England lost his control of Normandy, because of a conflict he had with king Philip of France. Consequently the English nobility lost their estates in France and enmity grew between England

and France. This led to about a hundred year war (1337-1453). The popularity of French began to decline as the spirit of English nationalism grew. In 1362, English was used for the first time at the opening of parliament. By about 1425, English became more popular in England and was used in speaking and writing. Remember that when Normandy was lost, many English noblemen lost their estates and were forced to look up to England as their primary concern. This helped the English language.

English survived more because the language in the 11th century was well established, unlike the Celtic and had a considerable written literature and strong tradition. Don't forget that this was what the Celtic language did not have; that was why it could not survive the Anglo-Saxon invasion about 500 years before. The good relation of English and French lasted for about 150 years and during this period, it was speculated that the number of Normans in England were about two percent of the population. French was mainly the language of government, law, administration, literature and the church. Latin was also used in education, administration and worship. By the 13th century the position of English became clearer when it was evident that a number of sermons, prayers, poems and songs were written in English language. Finally in 14th century, major achievements in Middle English literature began to emerge, with the works of Geoffrey Chaucer.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

1. Do you think that the loss of Normandy by King John of England helped the re-establishment of English in any way?
2. Identify some factors that aided the revival of English.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You can see that a number of factors gave rise to both the decline as well as survival of English in the 11th and 12th centuries. The most important factor was the enthronement of French as the language of the ruling and the upper class in England, when the Normans invaded England in 1066. Secondly French became the language of the high class, of status and pride. In fact one of the Norman kings said it was a disgrace to be called an English man. However, in the 12th and 13th centuries some socio-economic and political factors helped the English language again to rise.

5.0 SUMMARY

The Norman conquest of 1066 under William the Conqueror introduced French and the second official language of England. Because French became the language of public administration, law and literature, its status grew. It became the language of the nobility and was associated with status. A speaker of French belonged to the high class while a speaker of English belonged to the low class. However, English remained the language of the masses and up to two third of the population used English in speaking and writing.

During the 13th and 14th centuries economic and political situations changed. English and France became enemies and were engaged in wars for about a hundred years. At the end, the influence of French declined and English once more rose to prominence, owing more to its long established literature, and oral tradition. When Normandy lost to the control of England, in 1204, the English nobility lost their possessions and estates in France and were forced to concentrate their interest in England. This again gave room to popularize the English language. Between the 13th and 14th centuries English had again revived as the language of government, law, literature, commerce and religion.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe the roles of the French language during the Norman Conquest of England.
2. Identify some factors that led to the revival of English at this time.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 5 ENGLISH AND FRENCH IN THE 13TH CENTURY; THE DECLINE OF FRENCH; THE RISE OF THE MIDDLE CLASS; GENERAL ADOPTION OF ENGLISH

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 English and French in the 13th century
 - 3.2 The Decline of French
 - 3.3 The Rise of the Middle Class
 - 3.4 General Adoption of English
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this Unit we want to look more closely at the relationship between English and French in the thirteenth century and the factors that led to the decline of French. One of the most important factors is the rise of an English middle class. You will be exposed to the reasons why English was eventually adopted as the language of government and education.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- explain the relationship between English and French in the 13th century
- identify factors that led to the decline of French
- discuss some factors that led to the general adoption of English.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 English and French in the 13th Century

In the 13th century French and English continued to function as the primary language of communication. The upper class mostly continued to speak French, but this time, it was no longer as the mother tongue inherited from Norman ancestors but as a matter of social custom, business and administrative convention. Meanwhile English made

steady progress. At a point it became quite clear that English was becoming a favourite language. When the English nobles lost their interest in Normandy and France, as we saw in the last Unit, it was no longer a surprise that English became a matter of general use among the upper class. At this time also, there was wholesale adoption of French words into English; the reason being that those who spoke French now tried to express themselves in English. Within this period also, literature that was intended to entertain the nobility began to be translated from French to English. And just as we mentioned in the last chapter, there were evidences that towards the end of the 13th century, children of the upper class began to speak English as their mother-tongue, which implied that English was becoming a household language among the upper class. Significantly, English was used in parliament, in the law courts and in public communication. The spread of English among the upper class was making steady progress and the general attitude began to favour the use of English. The attitude then was that the language for proper English people to know and use was English.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Describe the position of English and French in the 13th century.
2. Explain how French loan words found their way into English at this time.

3.2 The Decline of French

We must not lose sight of the fact that French began to lose its status as the official language of England in 1204 when King John lost the control of Normandy. This affected the fortunes of the English nobles who lost their estates and began to lose their connections with the continent. Consequently, they began to see themselves as English men and began to identify with English cultures including language.

Another contributing factor that led to the decline of French was the Hundred Year War (1337-1453). Edward III claimed the French throne and invaded France. England was victorious at Crecy (1346) and Poitiers (1346). Henry V also won a significant victory over France in 1415. This long time antagonism and hostility among the two nations contributed to the weakening of the influence of French in England and enhanced interest in learning and using the English language.

At the close of the 13th century, it was clear that French was losing its hold on England and the tendency to communicate in English was becoming increasingly stronger, even in the church and universities.

Another factor that undermined the position of French was the provincial character of French in England. French was spoken in provinces, and was particularly restricted to the ruling and upper classes. Norman French was a mixture of dialect, which became further corrupted by contact with English. What we may call the Anglo-Saxon French was non standard French. So, when the opportunity came to drop the language, it was quite easy to do.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Discuss the factors that gave rise to the decline of French in England in the 13th century.

3.3 The Rise of the Middle Class

You have seen so far that the importance of a language lies mainly on the importance of those that use such a language. This is a feature that helped English to rise and de-emphasized the use of French in England, because as the living conditions and prestige of the common people improved, it also improved the position of English Language.

During the Middle English Period, there was this practice of *villeinage* among the rural population. A *villein* was a poor farmer who got a little piece of land in return for working on the land of a rich landowner. In 1349 precisely, an epidemic broke out in the South west of England, which soon spread rapidly to other parts of the country.

The diseases killed its victims within three days. The spread of the epidemic and the rapidity with which it killed people were unbelievable. Some studies said that 40% of the clergy died, and approximately more than 30% of the overall population was lost to the epidemic. Because of the high death rate of the plague, it was referred as the “The Black Death”. Naturally, the mortality of the epidemic was more among the villeins, the poor and the low class. The result was a serious shortage of labour. Many villeins (labourers) escaped England during the Plague. For those that remained there was a rise in wages but that could not solve the burden of their poor condition. A general spirit of discontent soon arose, which led to the Peasants’ Revolt of 1381. Coupled with the effect of the Black Death, the importance of the labouring class was recognized. Remember that this increased the importance of the language of the emerging class, which is English.

At this time also, another important group arose - the craft men and the merchant class. By 1250 England had grown to about 200 towns with increasing populations. Some places like London and York were considerably large. These towns became free and self-governing. The

people were engaged in trade mostly. Some were in manufacturing crafts, with commercial groups and fraternities to secure their positions. In these environments, each town began to have a strong wealthy class, standing halfway between the rural low class (the peasants) and the aristocracy which was then hereditary.

With such changes, you can see that the social and economic life of the English speaking population was a great advantage to the final triumph of the English language.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Do you agree that the rise of the Middle Class in the England of the 13th century aided the growth of English? Give two (2) reasons for your answer.

3.4 General Adoption of English

From the beginning of the 14th century upward, English began to gain ascendancy in England. Popular literature of this period was primarily in English, which until a generation before had been in French. Though the English was now understood by everyone, French did not die out completely. It was still used in the courts although English had largely taken its place. Those who spoke French in the 14th century were bilingual, and some people in the upper class still spoke French in the parliament when necessary but generally used English. In 1362, the Chancellor opened parliament for the first time with a speech in English. In 1388 parliament required all gilds (professional associations) to submit reports on their foundations, statutes, property etc. The submissions were mostly in Latin, but about 49 of them were in English, outnumbering those in French. Towards the latter part of the century, much of the business of parliament was conducted in English. When Richard II was deposed of, the article of accusation read to him was in Latin and English. The order deposing him was also read to him in English. Henry IV's speeches claiming and accepting the throne was delivered in English.

In the 14th century as you can see, English was again the mother tongue of English. To give English language its rightful place in all England, steps were taken to adopt it in the English legal system. Hitherto, French had been the language of legal proceedings. But in the 14th century it became necessary to reverse the trend. In 1356 the Mayor of London ordered that proceedings in the Sheriff's courts in London and Middlesex be conducted in English. In 1362, "the statute of pleading" in court was enacted, stating that all lawsuits shall be conducted in English,

and the reason for this was that French was much unknown in the country.

Shortly after the Norman Conquest, French replaced English as the language of education. The use of French in English schools became quite general. But again, in the 14th century English began to be used in schools and by 1385 the practice had become general and overwhelming. By the 15th century, the French language became increasingly unknown. Many nobles could no longer speak French and the ability to communicate in French was viewed as an accomplishment. The ability to write it was becoming less general among the ruling and upper classes.

The last significant progress which the English was to make in its growth to supremacy was its use in writing. Before the Norman conquest, Latin was the recognized language of literature and written communication, and before the 14th century French was adopted as the first language of England and the primary language of writing and literature. In the 14th century English replaced both. After 1450 letters were written in English as a general rule. Wills were also written in English. For example, the wills of Henry IV, Henry V and Henry VI were all written in English. English was also adopted in writing records of towns and gilds and in branches of the central government. At about 1430 many towns were translating their ordinances and their customary books in English. And English became general in their transactions. After 1450s the English literature of the Middle English period showed that English had gained general adoption throughout England.

Where French had enjoyed primacy as the language of poetry and books among the nobles, English now became the preferred medium. It was this general adoption of English by all classes in the latter part of the 14th century that triggered a new interest in literature, which gave rise to a high point of English literary achievements in the Middle Ages. The period between 1350 and 1400 had been called the period of great individual writers. This was the period that Geoffrey Chaucer, (1340-1400) regarded as the greatest English poet before Shakespeare wrote, authored a love story titled *Troilus and Criseyde* as well as the *Canterbury Tales*. Other big names of English literature of this period include William Langland, author of *Piers Plowman* (1362-1387); John Wycliffe, the translator of the Bible and the unknown poet who wrote one of the finest of the Middle English Romances titled *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*. Middle English no doubt, contributed immensely to the fortunes of the English language.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

1. Describe some of the first signs that showed that English was becoming a popular language in England in the 14th century.
2. Identify some factors that were responsible for the general adoption of English in the 14th and 15th centuries.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We can say in conclusion that social and economic conditions favoured the re-establishment of English as the first language of England in the 14th century. With the growing interest in English and a declining fortune of French, one will expect that English would peak up quickly. And this was exactly what happened. English men became proud of themselves and their culture and took definite steps to curtail the influence of French and promote the learning and use of English. It was no surprise that even in law and public administration English was adopted as the language of official business. Soon English became the popular language throughout England and used as the language of parliament, law, education, religion and general communication.

5.0 SUMMARY

English made a steady advancement in the 13th century as the upper classes no longer relied primarily on French for communication. The nobility who lost most of their fortunes with the loss of Normandy, looked up to England for hope, and began to appreciate their language. Their children soon spoke English as their mother tongue. French declined steadily in the 14th century, due to a general renewed interest in English and the Hundred Year War which resulted in a long time of hostility between England and France. Some successive victories of England over France; significant interest in English in the church and universities; and the provincial character of French in England; all weakened French influence in England. Just as these factors witnessed the decline of French, they advanced the status of English.

A major factor in the general adoption of the English language is the rise of the Middle class from the groups of tradesmen and craft men, engendered by the “Black Death” of 1349 and the rise of the living standard of the working class; the growth of English cities and their independent status to govern themselves. Other factors were direct legislation, replacing French with English in the courts and in government, adoption of English in schools, and the acceptance and use of English in writing. Thus English was once again re-established as the general language of all England.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the factors that gave rise to the decline of French in England in the 13th century.
2. Describe some of the first signs that showed that English was becoming a popular language in England in the 14th century.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 2

Unit 1	Some Characteristics of Middle English: Grammar; Vocabulary; Spelling and Speech Sounds
Unit 2	The Rise of the Standard English; the Spread of the London Dialect
Unit 3	Early Modern Periods (1500-1750): Some Characteristics; The Renaissance English; Changes in Grammar
Unit 4	The Problem of Spelling; the Inkhorn Controversy; the Vocabulary Question
Unit 5	The Emergence of Dictionaries; Shakespeare and the World of Words; the King James Bible

UNIT 1 SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF MIDDLE ENGLISH: GRAMMAR, VOCABULARY, SPELLING AND SPEECH SOUNDS

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Some Characteristics of Middle English: Grammar
3.2	Middle English Vocabulary
3.3	Middle English Spelling
3.4	Middle English Speech Sounds
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Before we go on to discuss changes in Middle English, have you ever wondered why changes occur in language at all? Why is English, like other languages in constant state of change? Well, language operates as a system i.e. a group of related parts that work together as a whole. A change in one part can cause a change in the other. For example, the Middle English ‘trone’ changed to ‘throne’ in Modern English and ‘tesis’ changed to ‘thesis’. So, the first sounds being pronounced as /t/ changed to /θ/. Thus a change in spelling led to a change in pronunciation. You will know more about this in Module 2 Unit 3.

You will recall that during the Scandinavian age, French and English were spoken side by side, thus these languages were in close contact.

You know that where two languages are spoken in a community, some members of the community will speak more than one language and may frequently switch between languages. This will generally lead to mutual influence of the languages. That is why we still have many French words in English today

Another possible reason for changes in language is that speakers are likely to imitate languages they consider to be prestigious. This was what happened when Latin and French were introduced in England. People learned and copied French for social reasons. Up till now French is still considered as a language of prestige and sophistication. And very often, changes that affect our physical environment, social status, social attitudes and reflected in language, especially in vocabulary and meaning.

Let me remind you again that the boundaries that exist in the periods of the history of English, i.e., Old English (AD 450-1100); Middle English (1100-1500), early Modern English (1500-1750) and late Modern English (1750) are conventional labels which are used as a matter of convenience mainly to show the major linguistic changes as well as cultural, social and political changes that occurred in the history of the English language. And as we said, language is in a continual state of change, and the history of English as we are tracing it in this study, shows that change does not just happen suddenly. In this Unit, we shall be looking at how changes in Middle English are reflected in the grammar, vocabulary, spellings and speech sounds.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- identify changes that occurred in middle English grammar
- describe some characteristics of middle English vocabulary
- distinguish between the spellings and speech sounds of old English and middle English
- explain why changes generally occur in Language.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Some Characteristics of Middle English Grammar

One of the major features of the Middle English is the decay of inflections which was a feature of Latin in Old English. Inflections place stresses on the first syllable of words and it became increasingly difficult to hear them when pronounced. Unlike most Germanic languages in which stress within a word moved according to some rules, the Old

English stress pattern was fixed and this created auditory problems. When speakers could no longer cope with this, the system was gradually dropped. The disappearance can be traced throughout the Middle English period.

The most important grammatical development of this period is that a fixed pattern of word order between clause elements was established. The subject-verb-object (SVO) order that was partially evident in Old English was now consolidated. Where the Old English would say 'robbed they', Middle English would say "they robbed". Today, we rely much on word order to enable us work out grammatical function. In Old English this was determined by inflections.

As a result of the decay of inflections nouns lost their numerous inflectional endings or declensions. In early Middle English, only two methods of indicating plurals remained fairly distinct: - s, - es or - en, (as in oxen). Adjectives also lost their inflections, partly because of changes in sounds. What this means is that rather than have a word like 'blinde' in Old English as "blinda - blinde and blindan" indicating singular and plural, it became simply 'blinde' (blind) in Middle English. So we can easily say "blind man" or "blind Men." In Old English it would be something like "blinde man" or "blindan men".

With the decay of inflections nouns and adjectives were now simplified and it became necessary to depend less on gender, case, and number. To make clear the relation of words in a sentence, word order and prepositions were now used. Demonstratives and pronouns forms were also reduced and simplified. For example, the various forms of *sē*, *sēo*, *ðæt* (i.e. the) survived as "the" and "that" through Middle English till today.

The demonstrative "pēs" "pēos" "pis" (i.e. this) was also reduced to "this". However, some personal pronouns in Old English were retained e.g. *hē* (he) *hēo* (she) *hit* (it). The same is true of some forms of accusative (objective) and dative (indirect object) which were combined e.g. *him*, *her* (t) *hem*, *h* (it). This means that rather than have different forms say "him" or "her" as direct object and indirect object. The Middle English had the same form e.g. I gave *him* the book (indirect object). I love *him* (direct object). This survived till Modern English. Remember, in Old English, "him" would have different forms using inflections to show grammatical functions (i.e. to indicate which is direct or indirect object in this case).

Some nominative (subjective) plurals were also extended to all cases of plural appearing in Modern English as "those" and "these". The second person pronouns in Middle English looked like this:

Function	Singular	Plural
Subjective (nominative)	Thou	Ye
Objective (accusative)	Thee	You
Possessive (genitive)	Thy/thine	Your/yours

Now let's see how verbs were affected by these changes. An important point to note here is that like nouns, the general process has been that of simplification with the gradual decay of inflections.

In Old English, verbs generally had two forms depending on their conjugations “strong verbs” and “weak verbs”. Strong verbs are those whose forms are changed in order to derive their past tense. Today, we call them “irregular verbs” e.g. *write, wrote, written*, or *sing, sang, sung*; while weak verbs (regular verbs) are those that take -d, -ed, or -en for their past tense, e.g. *walk, walked, walked*. In Middle English, almost one third of strong verbs in Old English died out. More than a hundred Old English strong verbs were lost at the beginning of the Middle English while about thirty more became absolute in the course of Middle English. Today, more than half have disappeared. Some strong verbs in Old English became weak verbs in Middle English.

In Unit 4 of Module 1, we noted that English was mainly spoken by the lower class and largely removed from the influences of education and literature; naturally many speakers were already wrongly applying the pattern of weak verbs. For example, we have *come, came, come* (strong verb) but *drive, drove, driven*; (notice “*driven*”) as a feature of a weak verb. In the 13th century this trend became clear in written literature. Verbs like *burn, brew, flow, help, mourn, step, weep* were then undergoing change and by the 14th century, these verbs showed weak forms. During the Middle period however, strong forms continued to be used while the weak forms continued to grow, and in many cases the inflections for weak verbs were established. So there were variations. People still had the past tense of “*ache*” as “*oke*” while “*ached*” was used by others. In some ways “*stope*” and “*stepped*”, “*clew*” and “*clawed*” were used side by side. However, strong verbs still survived. We must add here that in the Middle English, there were still inflections for simple present tense in verbs. For example:

	Person	Modern English	Middle English
<i>Singular</i>	1st – I	Thank	Thanke
	2 nd – you	Thank	Thankest
	3 rd – he/she/it	Thanks	Thanketh (-es)
<i>Plural</i>	1st – we	Thank	Thanke (n) (-es)
	2 nd – you	Thank	Thanke (n) (-es)
	3 rd – they	Thank	Thanken (n) (es)

	Present	Past tense
I	Turn (e)	Turned (e)
(thou	Turnest	Turnedest
(he/she/it)	Turneth	Turned (e)
(we/you/they)	Turneth	Turned (en)

The inflections in brackets show other forms, depending on the dialect. There were about six (6) dialects of the Middle English, namely Northern dialect, Southern dialect, West Midland, East Midland, Kentish and East Anglia. The examples above are Midlands.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Explain why changes normally occur in language, with particular reference to English.
2. Describe some general features of Middle English grammar.
3. Distinguish between Old English forms of nouns and that of Middle English.

3.2 Middle English Vocabulary

The most dominant influence on the Middle English vocabulary is French, though Latin also contributed a great deal. It was estimated that about 10,000 French words came into English in the 13th century. These words were mainly from law, administration, medicine, art, fashion, science and learning. Over 20% were nouns. Some were constructed using French affixes like *con-*, *trans-*, *pre-*, *-ance*, *-tion*, and *-ment*. No doubt you are familiar with some of these words. As new words came into English, there were cases where certain words were duplicated due to similar already existing words in Anglo-Saxon. In that case, one either replaced the other or both remained with slight differences in meaning. Some existed with different senses e.g. house (O.E) mansion (F), hearty (O.E) cordial (F). In most cases the French word replaced the Old English equivalent. Many Old English words were lost in this way. As I said earlier, many French loan words were drawn from the fields of administration e.g. *authority*, *empire*, *duke*, *crown*, *liberty*, *majesty*, *palace*, *parliament*, *tax*, *treaty*, *royal*; can you think of other ones? From Law we have examples like *adultery*, *accuse*, *arrest*, *assault*, *execute*, *attorney*, *evidence*, *crime*, *fine*, *fraud*, *indictment*, *judge*, *summons*, *legacy* etc. Religion – *baptism*, *cathedral*, *chaplain*, *clergy*, *communion*, *confess*, *immorality*, *convert*, *prayer*, *salvation*, *saviour*, *sermon*, *temptation*, *theology*, *virtue* etc. From Military we have: *ambush*, *army*, *besiege*, *captain*, *lieutenant*, *battle*, *navy*, *peace*, *retreat*, *sergeant*, *soldier*, *spy*, etc. From Food and Drink - *appetite*, *beef*, *biscuit*, *cream*, *dinner*, *feast*, *fruit*, *fry*, *herb*, *lemon*, *orange*, *plate*, *pork*, etc.

Can you think of words in the fields of fashion, leisure, and the arts, science and learning and home? Write at least ten (10) words from each of these areas.

Some general nouns such as *action, affection, adventure, age, country, courtesy, labour, marriage, noise, number, ocean, opinion, sign, sound, reason, rage, river*, etc are French words, while some adjectives and verbs are also of French origin. Examples are: *active, amorous, calm, certain, natural, nice, original, perfect, poor, precious, real, honest, scarce, advise, arrange, close, cry, delay, prove, prefer, receive, remember, refuse, save, travel, wait deceive*, etc.

During the 14th and 15th centuries several thousands of Latin words, were introduced into English most of which came through French. Most of these words were technical terms belonging to religion, medicine, law, and literature. So you see that Middle English vocabulary comprises words largely borrowed from French and Latin simultaneously. This has resulted in what we have today in modern English where some set of items all expressing the same idea but with slight difference in meaning and style are being used. For example, *rise/mount/ascend* are possible synonyms.

Other sources of new words in Middle English include the Scandinavian words. There were also a few evidences of loan words from Dutch, Russian, and Arabic resulting from commercial and maritime contacts. The effects of this borrowing on the English lexicon were that in early Middle English over 90% of words were of native English but by the end of Middle English this has fallen to about 75%.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Give at least 15 English words that are of French origin.
2. Write 10, words that were borrowed from Latin.
3. Mention some professional areas from which French loan words were derived.

3.3 Middle English Spellings

Let's begin this section by trying to identify some of the factors that influenced English spelling. First was the social and linguistic impact of the French invasion; secondly, the continued process of sound change that began in the Anglo-Saxon times and thirdly, the considerable growth and movement in population during the medieval period. All these were responsible for the marked difference between the spelling irregularity that were evident earlier in the development of English and

the more stable system of spelling which began to appear in the 15th century, especially in the works of William Caxton.

In Middle English, there was no standard convention for spelling, which led to some variations. A writer's spelling reflected the dialect he happened to speak, thus, a number of spelling forms were introduced by Middle English writers. Norman scribes in particular adopted spelling conventions of the French language. Let's look at a few of them:

- *sh* replaced *sc* in words like OE *scip* (ship)
- *qu* replaced *cw* in words like OE *cwen* (queen)
- *gh* replaced *h* in words like OE *riht* (right)
- *ch* replaced *c* in words like OE *cin* (chin)
- *wh* replaced *hw* in words like OE *hwaet* (what)
- *c* replaced *s* in words OE *is* (ice)
- *ou* replaced *u* in words like OE *wund* (wound)

These changes helped some to solve problems associated with having two different sounds for one phoneme. For example, the first sounds of 'c' in Old English 'cin' (chin) and cyning (king) were not the same, with the adoption of 'ch', it became easy to differentiate between 'chin' and cyning (i.e. king). Also the adoption of 'ou' helped to indicate a long vowel without having to use double *u* as was the case in Old English. Sometimes, the scribes wrote 'o' for 'u' e.g. love (OE *luve*) to bring spelling closer to pronunciation, thus making it clearer this way.

The advent of printing with William Caxton in 1476 was a significant step towards the standardization of spelling, which provided a national standard for written English. It was an important factor that suggested the beginning of Modern English. (We shall see more of this in Module 2 Unit 2).

Printing made it possible to promote a standard in spelling with a vast amount of reading materials. This does not mean that all the early printers agreed on what the standard should be or were consistently applying it. After all, Caxton chose a particular dialect which was not general to the early printers. In some respects the printers added some strangeness to spelling. Many of the printers were Dutch, and sometimes, Dutch spelling influenced English words. For instance the 'h' in the word 'ghost' was not originally there in Old English. The word was spelt "gast". Printers also added 'e' in words like "olde" (old), or doubled up consonants like "shoppe" (shop) or used "y" instead of 'i' for economy of space. All these resulted in the general spelling differences in the English Language.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Now look at this text, which is a part of Caxton's Prologue to the *Eneydos* - a story about some merchants who tried to ask for eggs in Kent.

TEXT 2

And certaynly our langage now vsed varyeth ferre from that. whiche was vsed and spoken whan I was borne/ for we englysshe men/ ben borne vnder the domynacyon of the mone. which is neuer stedfaste/ be euer wauerynge wexyng one season/ and waneth and dyscreaseth another season/ and that comyn englysshe that is spoken in one shyre varyeth from a nother..."

Study the spelling in this text:

- (i) What inconsistencies in the spelling can you find?
- (ii) Can you explain why these occur?
- (iii) Letters g and i; u and v are said to be interchangeable. How true is this in the above text?

3.4 Middle English Speech Sounds

As new spelling formats were emerging, a new system of pronunciation was equally emerging. The result is that there was never a regular correspondence between phonemes or speech sounds with the letters that represent them. But this is not totally true of the Old English period. A word like 'twa' (two) was pronounced with the "w" sounding, unlike in Modern English. Look at the following words in Modern English and try to pronounce them: *sword*, *answer*, *walk*, *half*, *wreck*, *write*, *gnarl*, *gnaw*, *know*, *knight*.

English adopted the Roman alphabet, i.e. Latin. Today English has over 40 phonemes, but only 26 letters represent those phonemes. In particular there are 24 vowel sounds in English, but only five vowel letters. Even in Old English letters were represented by pairs of letters called "diagraphs" (today we call them diphthongs) for example, *sc* was used to represent /s/ as in *scep* (sheep); *cg* represent the phoneme /dʒ/ as in *ecg* (edge). The diagraph *ea* and *eo* were used as in Old English *eare* (ear) and *beor* (beer).

In the Middle English period several sounds altered. Some took on different value, while some disappeared completely. The Old English vowel system was reconstructed. Original diphthongs became pure vowels and new diphthongs emerged. Some diphthongs emerged and

certain consonants at the end of a syllable came to be pronounced like vowel as in /wei/ (way) from Old English *weg*. French loan words also introduced new diphthongs like /oi/ /ui/ which can be linked to the modern /ɔi/ in boy, or joy.

Several pure vowels also changed their values. Old English /a:/ as in *ban* was now pronounced as *bon* (bone), and *swa* became *so*. Interestingly the /h/ sound, which occurred at the beginning of many Old English words like *hring* (ring), *hnecca* (neck), was completely lost in the Middle English period. It was restored later in many words during Modern English period through influence of spelling.

The /v/ sound became important due to its use in French loan words, and began to distinguish between /v/ and /f/ sounds as in *vin* and *film*. French influence also brought the contrast between /s/ and /z/ as in 'zeal' and 'seal'. The *ng* sound /ŋ/ distinguished meanings in words like *thing* and *thin*. In Old English, this sound has always been followed by a /g/ e.g. *cyning* (king), which was realized as /kyning/. The /g/ however disappeared at the end of the Old English period leaving only /ŋ/ as the only distinguishing unit.

It is not always easy to give a general description of Middle English pronunciation because of the variation that exist due to different dialects and the spellings that represent particular sounds.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

1. Do you think spelling had some influence on Middle English pronunciations?
2. Describe some features of Middle English speech sounds.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have examined some general characteristics of Middle English grammar, vocabulary, spellings and speech sounds. And you can see that changes had been gradual, and whether it was social, political or economic, each had its effects on language. Some of these effects were certainly beneficial in a way to the overall development of the English language. The English grammar became more structured; spellings more stabilized, and vocabulary more enhanced.

5.0 SUMMARY

A major grammatical feature of the Middle English is the disappearance of the inflectional system. English nouns, verbs, and adjectives became more simplified. And where necessary, some general rule of inflection

was applied for some classes of words. A fixed pattern of grammatical structure was also established at this time. Middle English vocabulary was enriched by French and Latin loan words particularly words related to administration, law, art, medicine, science and learning. English spelling became more stabilized during Middle English period especially with the introduction of printing. Pronunciation also underwent definite changes which led to Modern English pronunciations.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe some characteristics of Middle English Grammar.
2. In what definite ways did French influence Middle English vocabulary?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 2 THE RISE OF STANDARD ENGLISH; THE SPREAD OF THE LONDON DIALECT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Rise of the Standard English
 - 3.2 The Spread of the London Dialect
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

It is natural that a language often has regional varieties or dialects. It is even possible to have entirely different languages in different parts or regions of a country. Nigeria is an example. The differences that may occur between different dialects of the same language may be a matter of pronunciation, or few variations in vocabulary. In Module 2 Unit 1, we did mention that Middle English had about six dialects. Four of them were the principal ones namely Northern, East Midland, West Midland and Southern. The Southern dialect for example extended to Worcester, Hereford and the district south of the Thames, together with Gloucestershire. The peculiarities of these dialects rest partly on pronunciation, vocabulary and partly on inflections. What became known as the Standard English or London dialect is a combination of the features of these local dialects as we shall see in this Unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- describe the characteristics of the London dialect
- explain the causes that contributed to the rise of standard English.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Rise of Standard English

The variety that is now called Standard English came out of the local dialects of the Middle English, towards the end of the 14th century and won general acceptance in the course of the fifteenth century. The part of England that contributed most to the development of this standard

was the East Midland district. The East Midland English dialect was the dialect of the London metropolis. Several factors contributed to this development: firstly, as a Midland dialect of English, it occupied a middle position between the extreme North and South. It was said to be less conservative (i.e. has more tendency to admit change) than the Southern dialect and less “radical” than the North. In its sounds and inflections it represented a kind of compromise, sharing some of the communication bridge which the dialect provided between the North and South, a 14th century translator - *Trevisa*, in his translation of *Higden’s Polychronicon* (c.1387) wrote:

TEXT 3

for men of þe est wiþ men of þe west, as it wer vnder þe same partie of heuene acordeþ more in sownynge of speech þan men of þe norþ wiþ men of the souþ; þerfore it is þat mercii, þat beeþ men of myddel Engelond as it were partners of þe endes, vnder stondeþ better þe side languages, Norþerne and souþerne, þau Norþerne and souþerne vnderstondeþ eiþer aþer. (Baugh & Cable 2001:192)

Note: “þ” = *th*, “v” = *u*, “u” = *v*, “y” = *i*; “ne” = *n*.

Secondly the East Midland district was the largest and most populous of the major areas. Places like Lincolnshire, Norfolk and Suffolk within the district were significant prosperous agricultural areas. Also the prominence of Middlesex, Oxford and Norfolk in the political affairs of England throughout the Middle English period gave the East Midland district the importance that could have enhanced its influence.

Thirdly, it was possible that the presence of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge could have had some influences on standardization process. Cambridge in particular could have exerted some influence in support of the East Midland dialect. In the 14th century the monasteries no more played important roles in disseminating information, while the two universities development into prominent intellectual centres.

Fourthly a regional standardized literary language evolved in the latter part of the 14th century, which tended towards the Central Midland districts, especially Northamptonshire, Huntingdonshire, and Bedfordshire. This was evident in the large number of manuscripts by Wycliff a notable Christian writer, including sermons, prayers, poems and different versions of the *Wycliffe Bible*. Though this variety was spread widely, increasing its status as standard, it could not compete favourably with the large volume of written materials from the capital London.

Fifthly, the development of printing gave rise to the emergence of a Southern literary standard. This resulted in the spread of a single norm over most of the country, so much that during the 16th century it was no longer easy to identify through some linguistic features a particular dialect in which a literary work was written.

The last but the most influential factor was the emergence of London as the political and commercial capital of the country. Particularly the administrative offices of the London Chancery (political administrative office) were important and Chancery scribes adopted a standard practice. These practices interacted with those used by other London copy writers and spelling gradually became stabilized, affecting other kinds of materials including literary texts. As the seat of the judicial system, the centre of social and intellectual activities of England, London population grew rapidly with people who brought to it the traits of their local speeches to mingle with the London English. The result was a kind of give and take, beginning as a Southern and ended up as Midland dialect. And by the 15th century East Midland dialect had developed a fairly uniform dialect and the language of London conformed to it in all its important aspects.

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. What is the meaning of *dialect*?
2. Discuss at least four (4) factors that gave rise to development of Standard English.

3.2 The Spread of the London Dialect

Towards the close of the 15th century, the London Standard had been accepted in writing in most parts of England. Except in some Northern texts, it was almost impossible to know precisely a particular region from which a particular work was written. However, variations still existed in spoken dialects.

In talking about the spread, one must admit that the introduction of printing in 1476 as we have mentioned earlier, had an immense contribution. London had been the English centre of book publishing and Caxton, the English printer used the London dialect in his numerous works. Most translations and that of those after him gave currency to the London English which showed that it had been adopted as the standard. In the 16th century the use of London dialect had become a matter of precept and practice. The author of "*The Arte of English Poesie*" (attributed to George Puttenham) even advised aspiring poets to use "the usual speech of the court, and that of London and the shires lying about London within 1x. myles, and not much above". Though complete

uniformity was never achieved, it was certain that the foundation of what we have today as Standard English was laid by the end of 15th century.

I am sure you have been asking in your mind, what does the London English look like? I am going to reproduce here a part of Caxton's preface to his translation of Virgil's *Aeneid* which he translated from French and published in 1490. This translation was done in the London dialect.

TEXT 4

After dyverse werkes made, translated, and achieved, havynge noo werke in hande, I, sitting in my studye where as laye many diverse paunflettis and bookys, happened that to my hande came a lytyl book in frenshe, whiche late was translated oute or latyn by some noble clerke of fraunce, which book is named Eneydos... And whan I had aduysed me in this sayed boke, I delybered and concluded to translate it into englysshe, and toke a penne & ynke, and wrote a leef or tweyne, whyche I oversawe again to corecte it. And whan I sawe the fayr & straunge termes therein I doubted that it sholde not please some gentylmen whiche late blamed me, saying that in my translacycons I had over curious termes whiche coude not be understande of comyn peple, and desired me to use olde and homely termes in my translacycons... (Baugh & Cable, 2001: 195).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. What factors aided the spread of the London dialect?
2. Look at the text above again. Can you identify some spelling differences from what we have in Modern English? Are there some spelling inconsistencies?
3. Compare this text with text 3, above. Are there any differences in grammar and spelling?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Standard English emerged as the London English, which provided a middle line among the dialects of Middle English, especially North and South. The importance of London in the 15th century as the capital of England aided the spread of the dialect. Although uniformity was not instantly achieved, it was the beginning of an accepted standard that gave rise to Modern English.

5.0 SUMMARY

Between the end of the 14th century and the beginning of the 15th century, the London English which was more of the East Midland dialect became a standard, for the whole of England, especially in writing and in literary works. Factors that gave rise to this development and also for its spread were that the Midland dialect of English provided a compromise between the North and South, both in sounds and in its internal linguistic features. The Midland district which London was part of was the largest and most populous of England's major areas. London became the capital of England, and as the most important political and commercial centre, a written standard of communication was readily accepted. Administrative offices and the Chancery offices also became important in terms of writing standards. The development of printing in 1476 by Caxton resulted in the spread of a simple norm over most of the country and the London English, which was the norm, became more stable. The existence of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge also contributed a great deal. Conformity to the standard was however gradual, while varieties still existed in the spoken dialects.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the factors that led to the emergence of the Standard English in the 15th century.
2. Study *TEXT 4* and describe the characteristics of the London English.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 3 EARLY MODERN PERIODS (1500-1750): SOME CHARACTERISTICS; THE RENAISSANCE ENGLISH; CHANGES IN GRAMMAR

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Some Characteristics of Early Modern Periods (1500-1750)
 - 3.2 The Renaissance English
 - 3.3 Changes in Grammar
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We have seen that it is not possible to study the history of the development of a language without reference to some particular social events that have had significant effects on the language. Cast your mind back on the effects of the Anglo-Saxon conquest, the Norman Conquest, the Black Death and the rise of the Middle Class on English language. You can see the close relationship that exists between socio-political and economic situations and language development. The study of the Modern period of English (i.e. from Chaucer to Samuel Johnson roughly 1400 -1800) will be incomplete without reference to the time referred to as *early modern periods*, which some scholars have conveniently put at the beginning of 1500 to around 1750. Some placed it earlier at 1400 - 1450, immediately after Chaucer. Those who put it around 1500 consider the effects of printing revolution, but the coming of printing which many consider as the key factor of the modern period, began in 1476, when William Caxton set up a printing press at Westminster. There is no consensus about when the early modern period actually started. The period, i.e. 1500 -1650 was also called the period of the *Renaissance*. In this Unit we shall look at the characteristics of the early modern period. Because of the importance of the development of printing, we shall discuss it in detail in this Unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- (i) describe some general characteristics of early modern English period
- (ii) identify the features of the early English grammar and vocabulary
- (iii) explain the contribution of printing technology to the development of the English language.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Some Characteristics of Early Modern Periods (1500-1750)

Printing technology which was developed in Germany in the 15th century had a significant impact on the vernacular (native) languages of Europe. In England, it had so far reaching effect that in about a century later, manuscript books (hand written) were completely replaced by printed ones. Printing made such a rapid progress that before the end of 1500, printed books in Europe reached about 35,000. Though majority of these were in Latin, the effects of printing on modern languages like English was no doubt overwhelming. By 1640 over 20,000 titles appeared in English, ranging from pamphlets to large texts. Books were no longer an exclusive luxury of the upper class; everyone had access to it now because it was possible to reproduce a thousand copies or more of one book exactly like the other. Thus, a powerful force was in place for promoting a standard and a uniform language. And it also provided a means of spreading the language throughout the lands where the language was understood.

Another important factor for the growth of English, which was also a feature of the early modern period, was the rapid growth of popular education. Literacy became widespread. In the latter part of the Middle Ages, a good number of the people of the middle class could read and write and this helped in the rapid spread of standards and uniformity in language use. In the later 17th and 18th centuries, education became much more accessible, with increase in the number of available schools and colleges. In Shakespeare's London for example, it was estimated that more than a third or even a half of the population could read and write. Journalism developed, featuring men, like Daniel Defoe, and it was also the period of the rise of the novel. With this kind of progress in education, the printing press was able to exert an unforgettable influence on language as well as learning. Not just in the early modern period alone, it is noticeable that the influence of commerce, transportation and rapid means of communication has had a great impact on language. We

shall look closely at this as we examine the growth of English as a world language in Module 4 Unit 3.

As the modern period began to witness increased technological developments, which enhanced easy travel, communication, and social contacts, people and places which had been isolated during the earlier times were now brought together. This again enhanced the development of language.

Another important factor was social consciousness. This means people's general tendency to identify with certain social or economic groups. Under modern democracies, a man can easily rise to a higher economic or social class and would likely make some efforts to adopt the standards of grammar and pronunciation of the people of his new class. He becomes careful of his speech, manners, tastes and general comportment. Most importantly as it applies to us here is that social consciousness creates language awareness. The more social conscious someone is, the more careful he is in his language. This has helped the English language to sustain a uniform standard.

What are the effects of all these social characteristics to the English language of the early modern period? We shall look at them under the next sub-headings.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Describe the general characteristics of the early modern period.
2. How did those characteristics affect English language grammar and vocabulary?

3.2 The Renaissance Period

Two forces to be identified here are (1) a radical force to produce a change in the vocabulary of English, and (2) a conservative force which aimed at preserving the existing status of the English grammar. The printing press, new reading habits and the spread of ideas, which came with growth in communication all promoted the extension of vocabulary, while these same factors together with social consciousness as we described above, worked actively towards the maintenance of standards especially in grammar and usage. While education for example showed some influence in promoting grammar, spelling and pronunciation, people were still unconsciously assimilating some features of less Standard English through the reading of books, newspapers or magazines. In modern times, you will discover that changes in grammar are less compared to changes in vocabulary. This was not the case during the earlier English periods. At that time, changes

in grammar were extensive. Remember that it was during the Middle English period that the structure of English, where verb follows the subject, was stabilized.

In the middle Ages, the condition under which English was developing was peculiar to England, especially with the Norman Conquest which relegated the English language to the low class. French became the language of the refined noble class. But by the close of the Middle English period, the language having gone through major transforming experiences, needed to establish itself in modern times like other European languages, and be recognized in the fields where Latin had for centuries dominated. That was why it was necessary that English establish a more uniform orthography and enrich its vocabulary. We shall examine these in details in Unit 4 of this module.

However, we can say that the general interest in the English of the Renaissance focused on vocabulary. And let me remind you that the period from the time of Caxton (1476) until around 1650 was called the *Renaissance* – a time of great change in Europe.

During the 16th century, following the development of printing there was a flood of new publications in English as a result of renewed interest in classical languages and literature and in the rapid growing fields of science, medicine and the arts. As new concepts, techniques and inventions were being experienced in Europe, words in the languages were either insufficient or not available at all to express these new ideas, so writers began to borrow new terms. Most of the words that came into English at this time were taken from Latin, French, Greek, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese. And as the period of world-wide exploration came underway, words from over 50 other languages including indigenous languages of North America, Africa and Asia came into English. We shall discuss in detail the vocabulary question and the inkhorn controversy in the next Unit. *Inkhorn terms* are foreign words in English.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Can you identify a major influence on the Renaissance English?
2. What necessitated the wide spread borrowing of foreign words into English language during the Renaissance period?

3.3 Changes in Grammar and Pronunciation

By the time of the Renaissance, major shifts in English grammatical structure had already taken place. Words had already lost most of their inflections. Few changes in English syntax could still be noticed. For

example several features of the verb use show a marked difference today.

- (i) *my life is run his compass* (Julius Caesar) where today we should say *my life has run its compass*.
- (ii) verbs developed wider use of auxiliaries e.g. *speake he the truth?* (does he *speake the truth?* *Is he speaking the truth?*) *What makes you?* (*What are you making?*) *It judges me* (*I judge...*) *It benefits me not* (*It does not benefit me*) etc. *Me thinks he did* (*I think he did*).
- (iii) Sentences tend to be too long, loose and linear, with repeated 'and' and 'then' coordination, mostly introduced by 'which' or 'that'. Here is an example from Caxton's prologue to *Golden Legend*:

And I shal praye for them vnto Almighty God that he of his benygne grace rewarde them etc. and that it prouffyte to alle them that shal rede or here it redde, and may encrease in them virtue and expelle uyce and synne that by the ensanmple of the holy sayntes amend theyr lyuyng here in thys shorte lyf that by their merytes they and I may come to everllastyng and blysse in heuen.

- (iv) There were constructions involving a double negative e.g. I cannot do no wrong
- (v) A number of verbs inflections (*speaketh, pleaseth, know'st, spake* etc) fell out of standard use
- (vi) Adjectives lost their inflections, though not completely. Expressions like *most unkindest* or *more longer*, were no more in use
- (vii) Pronouns like 'thou' 'thee' 'thine' 'thy' 'thysself' 'ye' fell into disuse except in poetry; 'you' was substituted for 'ye' normative; 'its' came into use as the possessive of it.
- (viii) The pronoun 'who' as a relative pronoun developed in the 16th century.
- (ix) The 's' plural became general
- (x) Some unchanged plural remained e.g. Sheep, Swine.
- (xi) New conjunctions emerged: 'because' for example first appeared in Chaucer, but 'for' and 'that' remained the normal way of expressing cause until the early 17th century. Participial constructions (use of verbs ending with *-ed -en* or *-ing*) became mostly common. This added to the length of sentences. The search for stability in the language continued until the 18th century.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Identify at least 5 features of the Early Modern English grammar.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The Renaissance, being a period of great social and economic change also brought with it some inevitable changes in the English language. Changes in grammar were slight while changes in vocabulary were more dynamic because of the new waves of scientific explorations and increase in knowledge. And we can therefore conclude that social changes have great influence on language, because language functions as a means of express meaning within specific social contexts.

5.0 SUMMARY

The early Modern Period was characterized by:

- (i) a rapid growth of printing technology which resulted in a very high volume of printed materials in England; this provided a means of promoting standard in language use.
- (ii) Growth of popular education and high degree of literacy placed more demands on printed information and literature; again increasing the power of the printing press to influence language and learning.
- (iii) Modern developments in commerce, medicine, transportation, communication increased the quest for new words to express new concepts and ideas.
- (iv) Social consciousness also enabled people to move along social classes, giving them the opportunity to adjust to higher standards of language use.

These factors had radical effect on the vocabulary of English because new terms emerged and borrowing became necessary to express new knowledge. A conservative force also emerged which sought to preserve the existing structure of grammar. These were the hall marks of Renaissance English.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the general characteristics of the early Modern period and explain their effects on the English language.
2. Compare and contrast the Middle English grammar and the early Modern English grammar.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 4 THE PROBLEM OF SPELLING; THE INKHORN CONTROVERSY; FURTHER ENRICHMENT OF VOCABULARY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Problem of Spelling
 - 3.2 The Inkhorn Controversy
 - 3.3 Further Enrichment of Vocabulary
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The revolution in printing as we have seen in the previous Unit did not produce a standard in English spelling. During the Middle Age, writers simply pulled spelling along Latin and French conventions and the result was that there were a lot of differences. The problem continued in the modern period. And you may have observed that up till today spelling in English is still quite problematic. There is usually no explanation for the 'w' in a word like 'row', when a word like 'go' (without a 'w') is pronounced the same way. Why the verb 'read' (present tense) is spelt the same way as 'read' (past tense) but pronounced differently. Some scholars have argued that while Caxton's printing revolution helped in standardizing writing in English, it indeed contributed to the problem of spelling. This is because orthography did not grow alongside pronunciation. While the latter has changed since Caxton's time, writing and printing has been very slow in reflecting the changes. Some people have even argued that it is impossible to achieve consistency between spelling and speech sounds. So we cannot talk of development in spelling, the same way we talk about it in vocabulary or pronunciation. In fact the problem of spelling has been the most lingering problem of the English language. In this Unit we shall be looking closely at scholarly efforts that were made in the early modern period to achieve stability in spelling. We shall also examine the state of English vocabulary and the controversies that characterized its standardization.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- identify major contributions towards standardizing English spelling
- explain what is meant by 'inkhorn terms' and why they were rejected as part of English lexicon
- describe sources of new words in English during this period.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Problem of Spelling

In the Early Modern Period of English, there was no generally accepted system of spelling and it was neither fixed nor phonetic. And as we said earlier, it was not possible to match spelling with speech, though old and Middle English tried it with fair success. Even then Norman scribes created some confusion in spelling by writing English words the French way. This created more problems when certain spellings became conventional and pronunciation gradually changed. Discrepancies between sound and symbol increased when certain symbols which represented actual sounds in Latin were inserted in the English words. An example is 'b' in *debt* or *doubt* from Latin *debitum* and *dubitare*. In English the 'b' is silent. The 'gh' in English words like *night*, *delight*, *light*, *tight*, *fight*, *knight* etc. represents actual sounds in Latin words.

The 16th century spelling was so unstable that it became varied from writer to writer, depending on education, temperament and purpose. An individual could adopt his own spelling and be consistent with it. An example is Sir John Cheke for example doubled long vowels, e.g. *maad*, *staar*, *haat* etc.; he discarded final -e, in *giv*; *belev*, *recev* etc.; he used 'I' instead of 'y' e.g. *mighti*, *beuti*, *dai* etc. Richard Stanyhurst adopted his spelling to soothe his translation of Latin poetry e.g. *woorde*, *yeet*, *mee*, thee (the), too (to) etc. There was then a very great need to devise a means of achieving some kind of agreement. Scholars began to attempt to draw up some rules and to devise new systems. Thomas Smith for instance published a *Dialogue Concerning the Correct and Emended Writing of the English Language* in 1568. He increased the English alphabet to 34 letters and marked the long vowels. His reform however did not receive significant acceptance, as it was moreover written in Latin. John Hart in 1570 published *A Method or Comfortable Beginning for All Unlearned, whereby they May Bee Taught to Read English*. Again this work did not win any favour despite some special characters (or phonemes) he used for *ch*, *sh*, *th*, *ek*. Another attempt at phonetic reform was made in 1580 by William Bullokar in his *Booke at Large, for the Amendement of Orthography for English Speech*. This work

applied much of vowels and consonants sounds based on old letters of English. The author also introduced new characters, accents and apostrophes which almost bought English spelling and accents to resemble that of French.

The most important of these reform efforts was *Elementaire* (1582) by Richard Mulcaster. Mulcaster viewed spelling as *right wrting* and felt that spelling problem could not be solved by a radical bending of spelling to fit sounds of words. He believed that the same letter can be used to represent different sounds just as we use one word in different senses. Thus he refused to adopt any form of phonetic reform, and opted for custom and usage. This means that he considered acceptability, ease and convenience in writing as the most important thing. Popular approval must be the final authority. He believed that no set of rules can solve the spelling problem, but some things must be left to observation and daily practice. While he did not totally discard sounds, he insisted that it needed not receive undue attention. These were his contributions:

- (i) He got rid of extra letters in words e.g. *putt, grubb, ledd*, became *put, grub, led*, etc.
- (ii) He retained 't' as necessary letters in words like *fetch, scratch, hatch* etc.
- (iii) He allows double consonants when they belong to separate syllables e.g. *wit-ting sit-ting* etc.
- (iv) Words ending in – ss; he wrote -sse e.g. *glasse, confesse, proffesse, impresse-ed*,
- (v) Final – e used to indicate long vowel, making a difference between *made* and *mad*, *stripe* and *strip*, *bite* and *bit*
- (vi) 'y' used to represent 'loud' and 'sharp' sound of 'i' e.g. *cry, deny, fry, try*
- (vii) If we spell 'hear' we should also spell *fear, tear, dear* etc.

At the end of his book, Mulcaster gave a 'General Table' giving the recommended spelling for some 7,000 common English words. Though Mulcaster's spelling could not be said to be the model that was eventually adopted, it is clear that English spelling developed along his recommendations. During the first half of the 12th century, spelling tended towards uniformity and this tendency increased with Dr Johnson's dictionary. We shall examine this in Unit 2 of Module 3.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Explain the reason for lack of uniformity in the spelling of English words of the Early Modern Period.
2. Discuss the contributions of Richard Mulcaster's *Elementarie* to the development of English spelling.

3.2 The Inkhorn Controversy

Inkhorn terms were used by critics of foreign terms mainly from French and Latin to describe words indiscriminately introduced into English. Such critics - one of them Thomas Wilson called it “outlandish English” which were merely “counterfeiting Kings English.” Some of the critics considered the use of these words as too pedantry (bookish) and strange. The strongest objection which Wilson represented believed that words such as *affability*, *ingenious*, *mundane*, *celebrate*, *extol*, *magnificent*, *dexterity*, *scholastic*; *relinquish*, *intelligence*, *compendious* were essentially obscure, and therefore should be thrown out. Sir Thomas Chalouer (1549) said they were “disused words of antiquitee” borrowed from “strange languages” out of “wrotten pamphlets.” These oppositions were at their heights during the middle of the 16th century. By this time borrowing had become excessive and the procedure for borrowing was simply being abused. Those who defended borrowing argued that it was simply a means of enriching the English language just as Latin and French had enriched themselves. It was a means of getting acquainted with new things, which as great novelties would be quite entertaining when they have been fully integrated in the new language. So borrowing actually gave credit to the English language and new words were linguistic legacies for posterity.

Some scholars however, thought that compromise should be reached. Writers should beware of indiscriminate borrowings of inkhorn terms, but must also give room to borrowing when such became inevitable. One of the scholars, by name Puttenham who had earlier moved against inkhorn terms defended such words as *scientific*, *significative*, *methodical*, *placation*, *function*, *audacious*, *compatible*, *subtiling*, *refining*, *compendius*, *profluxe*, *figurate*, *inveigle*, *penetrate*, *indignite* etc. Note that these words were inkhorn terms. Some of the words Puttenham justified did not survive the test of time but some of them like *methodical*, *function*, *audacious*, *compatible* etc have become part of English lexicon today.

In fact one interesting thing you will notice is that most of the ‘inkhorn terms’ that were vehemently opposed during the 16th century are of common use today. Nouns such as *allurement*, *allusion*, *atmosphere*, *autograph*, *capsule*, *denunciation*, *dexterity*, *disability*, *disrespect*, *excursion*, *expectation*, and *jurisdiction* were as difficult and strange as to become subject of controversy. Others were adjectives like *agile*, *appropriate*, *conspicuous*, *dexterous*, *expensive*, *external*, *habitual*, *hereditary*, *impersonal*, *insane*, and *malignant*. Some verbs like *adapt*, *alienate*, *benefit*, *consolidate*, *disregard*, *emancipate*, *eradicate*, *erupt*, *excavate*, *extinguish*, *harass*, *meditate*, were also described as inkhorn terms. I’m sure you can tell the meaning of many of these words. Most

of the words in the list are Latin words. But some of them like *anachronism*, *atmosphere*, *autograph*, *antipathy*, *chaos*, *chronology*, *climax*, *crisis*, *critic*, *dogma*, *emphasis*, *enthusiasm*, *epitome*, *parasite*, *parenthesis*, *pathetic*, *scheme*, *skeleton*, *system*, *tactics*, were acquired by Latin from Greek.

During the Renaissance, there was a renewed study of Greek which led to the introductions of more Greek words such as *anonymous*, *catastrophe*, *criterion*, *ephemeral*, *idiosyncrasy*, *lexicon*, *polemic*, *tonic*, *tantalize* and *thermometer*.

As these words came into the English language, some retained their forms and meanings, while some lost aspect of their forms in the process of adaptation. Words like *climax*, *appendix*, *epitome*, *exterior*, *delirium*, and *axis* retain their Latin form. Some lost their Latin endings e.g. *consult* (L. consult-are) *exclusion* (L. exclusion-em) and *exotic* (exotic-us). Some others went through some different forms of change e.g. *conspicuous* (L. conspicu-us), *external* (L. externus) *brevity* (L. brevitos). Many English verbs borrowed from Latin usually end in *-ate* (e.g. *create*, *consolidate*, *eradicate*, *educate* etc.) Some of the words had been borrowed more than once, thus assuming different meanings. For example, the Latin words *episcopus* and *discus* was borrowed in Old English as *bishop* and *dish* and later appeared during the Renaissance as *episcopal* and *disc*. Many of the inkhorn terms that were out rightly rejected somehow survived, while some didn't. Can you think of why this happened? Some were found and used a few times and dropped and forgotten, others remained but again forgotten. Among some of the words that eventually disappeared were *anacephalize* (Greek), *deruncinate*, *adminiculation*, *illecebrous*, *expede*, *exciccate*, *deciccate*, *eximious*, *disaccustom*, *disacquiant*, *disadorn* etc. Some of these Greek words had alternatives in Latin that the language has absorbed, or were simply modified, e.g. *discongruity* (*incongruity*) *appendence* (*appendage*), *attemptate* (*attempt*) *denunciate* (*denounce*).

The borrowing of this period was largely experimental; they were being tried out, introduced by individuals' judgments and choices. Some of the words survived, some disappeared. In Shakespeare's days for example, no one knew whether to say *effectual*, *effectuous*, *effectful*, *effectuating* or *effective*. But today, you can see that about two forms have survived i.e. *effectual* and *effective*. We shall see more about how French Italian and Spanish words were adopted to reinforce the English lexicon in the next sub-headings.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Explain the term “inkhorn terms”.
2. Describe some of the issues raised against the introduction of inkhorn terms into English.
3. What was the justification for their use?

3.3 Further Enrichment of Vocabulary

Foreign borrowing of words in the 16th century was not limited to learned words taken from Latin and Greek but from more than fifty languages (Baugh & Cable 2001), the most prominent being French, Italian and Spanish. The English vocabulary of this time showed words adopted from French such as *alloy*, *bigot*, *bizarre*, *bombast*, *chocolate*, *comrade*, *detail*, *duel*, *entrance*, *equip*, *essay*, *explore*, *genteel*, *mustache*, *naturalize*, *probability*, *progress*, *retrenchment*, *shock*, *surpass*, *ticket*, *tomato*, *vogue*, *volunteer*.

Italian words: *algebra*, *balcony*, *caprice*, *design*, *granite*, *pizza*, *stanza*, *violin*, *volcano*. Some of these Italian words were introduced through French or adopted to French forms, such as *battalion*, *bankrupt*, *brigade*, *carat*, *charlatan*, *gala*, *gazette*, *grotesque*, *infantry*, *rebuff*, etc. Though there were initial protests against these words, they were eventually adopted in England and often read in English books. Many of the Italian words for a time, preserved their Italian forms.

Spanish/Portuguese: *alligator*, *apricot*, *armada*, *banana*, *barricade*, *bravado*, *brocade*, *cannibal*, *canoe*, *cocoa*, *embargo*, *hurricane*, *maize*, *mosquito*, *mulatto*, *Negro*, *potato*, *renegade* (*renegade*) *tobacco*, *yam*, etc. With the new spirit of exploration and adventure characterized the Renaissance, a great deal of impact on the English vocabulary became quite evident.

The method through which these words entered the English vocabulary was generally through writing. Latin especially was through churchmen and scholars. Even words borrowed from Romance languages (French, Italian, and Spanish) in the 16th century often came through books and writers. It might be difficult to name individual writers who introduced each particular word. But it is believed that one notable English writer - Sir Thomas More introduced words like *absurdity*, *acceptance*, *anticipate*, *combustible*, *compatible*, *comprehensive*, *congratulatory*, *contradictory*, *denunciation*, *dissipate*, *endurance*, *exit*, *exaggerate*, *exasperate*, *explain*, *fact*, *frivolous*, *impenitent*, *implacable*, *indifference*, *insinuate*, *monopoly*, *necessitate*, *obstruction*, *paradox*, etc. Another scholar - Sir Thomas Elyot added the following words: *accommodate*, *adumbrate*, *analogy*, *animate*, *beneficence*, *encyclopedia*, *excerpt*, *exhaust*, *experience*, *exterminate*, *frugality*, *infrequent*, *irritate*, *modesty*

etc. Sir John Cheke first used *adapt*, *alienate*, *assassinate* and *benefit*. John Milton introduced *consolidate*, *disregard*, while Sir Philip Sidney brought in *emancipation*, *eradicate*, *erupt*, *excavate*, *exert*, *exhilarate*, *exist*, *extinguish*, *harass*, *meditate*, etc. More and Elyot were sometimes referred to as “makers of English” because of their contributions in the 16th & 17th centuries by introducing or helping to establish many new words in English. No doubt most of the words that came into the English vocabulary during the Renaissance came from sources outside, England. Yet, a good number were to come from native sources, either through development of words through old roots or through a revival of expressions that had gone out of use. At least this was the thought of someone like John Cheke. Cheke was so strongly opposed to borrowing from Latin or Greek that he sought English native equivalents from whatever source. In his translation of the gospel of St. Matthew, he attempted to change Greek words with English equivalents as much as possible. For instance he used *moonied* for *lunatic*, *toller* for *publican*, *hundreder* for *centurion*, *foresayer* for *prophet*, *byword*, for *parable*, *freshmen* for *proselyte*, *crossed* for *crucified* and *gainrising* for *resurrection*.

Poets on their own part tried to revive old words especially words they learned from Geoffrey Chaucer. This revival was sometimes referred to as “Chaucerism”, which was about a conscious use of old words to enlarge the vocabulary of poetry. One of the most prominent poets in this movement was Spencer. These poets revived old words like *astound*, *blameful*, *displeasance*, *enroot*, *doom*, *forby* (*past*, *empight*, *(fixed)*), *natheless*, *whilere* (*a while before*). Others were *askew*, *filch*, *flout*, *freak*. The origin of these words was uncertain. Some were coinages such as Spencer’s *blatant*, *braggadocio*, *shrimp*, *cosset* (*lamb*), *delve* (*pit*), *squall* (*to cry*) and *wrizzle* (*wrinkled*). Many of the words were simply adaptations and derivations of old words such as *baneful*, *drear*, *hapless*, *sunshiny*, or *wolfish*. The words English acquired in this way were not as much as half of those obtained from outside, but the fact remains that Spencer and his colleagues contributed a great deal to the enrichment of English vocabulary. Many of the words like *belt*, *bevy*, *dapper*, *fortnight*, *glee*, *glance*, *surly*, *banishment*, *birthright*, *don*, *enshrine*, *drizzling*, *gaudy*, *gloomy*, *merriment*, *shady*, *wary*, etc. which they also introduced, have since passed from the language of poetry into common use.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. Write ten (10) words that were adopted from Romance Languages.
2. Describe the contribution of Spencer and the poets to the enrichment of English vocabulary.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You can see that the spelling and vocabulary of English language had pulled the language to two opposite directions, in terms of their rate of growth and development. On one hand, spelling had been quite unstable especially due to the fact that printing stabilized early, while pronunciation had changed many times over. On the other hand vocabulary had been quite rapid in its development which had indeed attracted heavy criticism from English language watchdogs. Words had been borrowed indiscriminately from Latin, Greek and the Romance languages which had threatened the existence of native English words.

5.0 SUMMARY

Spelling had been one problem area in the development of English because there was never a generally accepted system of spelling. And it was neither fixed nor phonetic. Early Norman scholars created more problems by trying to spell the French way. To compound the problem was the attempt by scholars to force spelling to correspond with speech sounds. At a point writers adopted their individual mode of spellings and tried to be consistent with them. Finally, Richard Mulcaster (1582) introduced a reform which differed from previous efforts and brought in the method of spelling which simply allowed itself to be tested and proved by observation and practice. Popular approval was to be the final authority. Mulcaster's spelling revolution eventually influenced modern English spelling like no other.

Unlike spelling, vocabulary had been very dynamic. The English vocabulary since the 16th century had been enriched much more from words borrowed from Latin, Greek, French, Italian, Spanish and about fifty other languages. However English scholars raised an alarm during the Renaissance at the rapid rate of foreign words or "inkhorn terms" being introduced into English. Though some of these borrowed words naturally disappeared, most of them survived, along with English native words to give it the richness that it enjoys today.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What have been the causes of the problem of spelling right from the Norman Conquest?
2. Identify the major sources of foreign influence on English vocabulary.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 5 THE EMERGENCE OF DICTIONARIES; SHAKESPEARE AND THE WORLD OF WORDS; THE KING JAMES BIBLE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Emergence of Dictionaries
 - 3.2 Shakespeare and the World of Words
 - 3.3 The King James Bible
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This Unit is a continuation of the history of English during the Renaissance and the early Modern English Period. And again it continues the history of the development of vocabulary, by looking at more of the important influences on the English lexicon. The emergence of dictionaries of hard words in English will expose you further to the contribution of early attempts at compiling English words to enhance their stability. Most texts books on the history of English agree that the two most important influences on the development of the language during the final decade of the Renaissance are the works of William Shakespeare (1564-1616) and the King James Bible (1611). We shall be looking at these two factors more closely in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the importance of the early dictionaries of hard words in history of English
- discuss the contributions of William Shakespeare in development of English lexicon of the renaissance period
- discuss the contributions of the king James bible to the development of the English language during the 16th & 17th centuries.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Emergence of Dictionaries

The very first attempt to produce a comprehensive list of all the words in the English language was Nathaniel Bailey's *Universal Etymological English Dictionary* published in 1721. The earliest English dictionaries were those that merely explained difficult words. The first of this was *A Table Alphabetical of Hard Words* written by Robert Cawdrey, and published in 1604. It explained some 3,000 terms. This was followed in 1616 by John Bullkar's *English Expositor*, while Henry Cockeram published the *English Dictionaries* in 1623. Again in 1658, Edward Philips published *New World of Words*. All these dictionaries and later compilations only treated difficult words. A new wave of dictionaries was to be experienced in the first half of the 19th century in order to keep pace with increases in knowledge and terminologies that were the result of the industrial revolution and progress in science and medicine. However, Dr. Samuel Johnson's dictionary of 1755 was the first to account for the extensive additions that had been made to the language and helped to enhance their adoption into general use. Dr Johnson's dictionary is discussed in Unit 2 of Module 2.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Discuss the general contributions of early dictionaries of the 17th century, to the growth of English.

3.2 Shakespeare and the World of Words

Though Shakespeare's influence on the English language extended to pronunciation, syntax and usage, his impact was more prominent in the area of vocabulary. His plays and poems also illustrated the way English was developing during the latter part of the 16th century and early 17th century - the time he lived (1564-1616).

Shakespeare had the largest vocabulary of any English writer and this is due to his resourceful use of words and his acceptance of new words. He freely used some of the words that some people rejected as *inkhorn terms*. The following words which were first used by Shakespeare were all new to English in the latter half of the 16th century: *agile, allurements, antipathy, catastrophe, critical, demonstrate, dire, discountenance, emphasis, emulate, extract, hereditary, horrid, meditate, modest, pathetic, prodigious, vast, armada, barricade, cavalier, mutiny, palisade, renegade* etc., (Baugh and Cable 2001). In some number of cases, Shakespeare's use of certain words became their earliest occurrence in English language e.g. *accommodation, apostrophe,*

assassination, barefaced, countess, courtship, dwindle, eventful, lacklustre, dexterously, dislocate, frugal, misanthrope, laughable, obscene, pedant, premeditate, reliance, submerge etc.

The sense in which Shakespeare used some of these words was in fact closer to their original Latin meaning than the sense in which we use them today. For example Shakespeare's *communicate* means *to share* rather than to exchange information as we know it today. So you can see that his liberal attitude towards foreign borrowing enhanced his stock of words. And as he creatively used them in his works, he showed how foreign words can enrich the English vocabulary and function effectively in practical terms.

There were however some of his words (i.e. first recorded in Shakespeare) which have not survived as the ones listed above. About a third of his coinages from Latin fall into this category. Some examples are: *abruption, appertainments, cadens, exsufficate, persistive, protractive, questrist, soilure, tortive, ungenitured, unplausive, vastidity*, (Crystal 2002). These words could be explained in the context of which Shakespeare used them.

One aspect of Shakespeare's lexicon, which we must mention here are his use of hyphenated compound words. Many of these coinages were peculiarly his, some which again did not survive in modern English. Examples of Shakespeare's hyphenated compounds are *Arch-heretique, baby-eyes, bare-pickt, breake-vow, canker-sorrow, faire-play, giant-world, halfe-blown, heauen-mouing; ill-turned, kindre-action, pale-visag'd, pell-well, vile-concluded, widow-comfort*. William Shakespeare's works demonstrate his contributions and his indispensable place in the history of the English language.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Make a list of some of Shakespeare's hyphenated compound words that have survived in Modern English.
2. What do you think was responsible for the success of Shakespeare's contribution to the development of English Vocabulary?

3.3 The King James Bible

The King James Bible or *Authorised Version* as it was also called was published in 1611. Though it was not authorized by any process of parliament, the Bible's title page stated that it was appointed to be read in churches throughout the United Kingdom and this was to determine its influence on the population and far more on the language.

The Bible was translated by 54 university scholars. The project was approved by King James himself following a recommendation by some 750 reformers from within the Church of England. The preliminary version which took four years was submitted to the bishops for revision. The translators were divided into *companies* each working on a section of the bible. The final version took nine months.

The panel followed a number of guidelines. They were to use the *bishops Bible* where possible and were permitted to consult the Tyndale Version and other earlier versions where necessary. They were also to maintain recognized chapter divisions and proper names. Translations by one member of a group were to be submitted by other members for approval and each group was to send its materials to the others for final agreement. Disagreements were to be discussed formally and outside opinions sought if necessary. The project was successful due to the personal enthusiasm and intellectual quality of the translators. In their language choices, they did not introduce new items of vocabulary or change the grammatical structure of the language. Frequently, they introduced old use of words from the Tyndale version, and also used quite a number of idioms. In fact there were many phrases in the King James Bible which have entered the general idiom of the language, sometimes with minor grammatical changes. Here are some examples: *my brother's keeper* (Genesis 4); *eye for eye* (Genesis 15); *the apple of his eye* (Deuteronomy 32); *a man after his own heart* (1 Samuel 13); *how are the mighty fallen* (2 Samuel 1); *a root of the matter* (Job 19); *salt of the earth* (Math 5); *new wine in old bottles* (Matthew 7); *physician heal thyself* (Luke 4) etc.

Below are two sample texts showing the 1611 printing of the King James Authorised Version of the Bible and the 19th century printing. Carefully compare the spelling, punctuation and vocabulary of both editions. A is the preface to the 1611 edition.

Sample A

An other thing we thinke good to admonish thee of (gentle Reader) that wee haue not tyed our selues to an vniformitie of phrasing, or to an identitie of words, as some peraduenture would wish the we had done, because they obserue, that some learned men some where, haue beene as exact as they could that way... That we should expresse the same notion in the same particular word; as for example, if we translate the Hebrew or Greeke word once by purpose, neuer to call it intent; if one where Iourneying, neuer Traveilling; if one where Thinker, neuer suppose; if one where Paine, neuer Ache; if one where Joy, neuer Gladness, etc.

Sample B (Genesis 28:11-13)

And he lighted upon a certain place, and tarried there all night, because the sun was set; and he took of the stones of that place, and put them for his pillows, and lay down in that place to sleep. And he dreamed, and behold a ladder set up on the earth, and the top of it reached to heaven: and behold the angels of God ascending and descending on it. And behold the Lord stood above it, and said, I am the Lord God of Abraham thy father, and the God of Isaac: the land whereon thou liest, to thee will give it, and to thy seed...;

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What type of influence do you think the King James Bible had on the English language?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Dictionaries of difficult words; William Shakespeare and the King James Authorised Version of the Bible were three important influences on the 16th and 17th century English, especially on the development, enrichment and stability of standard vocabulary of the English language. Shakespeare and The King James Bible especially demonstrated how English was used during the period and helped to maintain standard in the English vocabulary, grammar and usage.

5.0 SUMMARY

Dictionaries of hard words attempted to provide meaning to difficult English words during the early part of the 17th century. This was necessary because of extensive additions to the English vocabulary, some of which generated a lot of controversy. The dictionaries also helped to facilitate the use of the words that had been generally adopted.

William Shakespeare's contribution to the enrichment of the English vocabulary was a major feature of the 17th century English. His wide and creative use of words gave the language a wide stock of words, some of which have become part of modern every day English. Similarly, the King James Authorised Version of the bible illustrated the Standard English, and helped to sustain stability since it was every body's Bible. Many of the Bible idioms for example have been modernized and added to every day usage. These three influences on the English language of the 17th century were significant ones.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Compare and contrast the influence of Shakespeare and the King James Bible on the English language of the 17th century.
2. Discuss the contributions of the early dictionaries of hard words to the development of English vocabulary.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Baugh A.C, Cable .T. (2001). *A History of the English Language*, 5th Ed. London: Routledge.

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MODULE 3

Unit 1	Changes in Pronunciation; the Great Vowel Shift; Some Features of Grammar
Unit 2	The 18 th Century English; An English Academy; Johnson's Dictionary
Unit 3	The 18 th Century Grammarians; the Rise of Prescriptive Grammar
Unit 4	English since 1900
Unit 5	Sources of New Words; the Oxford English Dictionary; the Spelling Reform; Functional Varieties of English

UNIT 1 CHANGES IN PRONUNCIATION; THE GREAT VOWEL SHIFT; SOME FEATURES OF GRAMMAR

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Changes in Pronunciation
3.2	The Great Vowel Shift
3.3	Some Features of Grammar
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The study of sounds changes in the history of English is as important as the study of grammar and vocabulary. This is because language operates as a system and as we have earlier observed, a change in one part often results in a change on the other. As you must have noticed in Module 2 Unit 1, Old English speech sounds differed significantly from the Middle English pronunciation. And you will also discover in this unit that there had been consistent sound changes from old English through to the modern period. The major change in pronunciation which took place at the end of the Middle English period, and affected the vowel system so fundamentally is called *The Great Vowel Shift*. This change has been responsible for most modern speech sounds. In this Unit, You will see how this change occurred. We shall also examine in this Unit some of the features of English grammar of the late 16th century and early 17th century.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- identify some changes that occurred in the speech sounds of early modern English
- explain what is meant by the great vowel shift
- describe some features of the grammar of the early 17th century.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Changes in Pronunciation

Some sounds in English have not had any changes like others. For example, the short /e/ has remained unchanged since the old English times. The O.E *bēdd* is still *bed* today; whereas the *â* in O. E *stân* (store) became a sound like /ɔ:/ as in *law* towards the end of Old English, and later changed to *ō* similar to its current pronunciation *o* (store). Changes in pronunciation however varied according to regions.

Changes in consonant sounds had been insignificant compared to changes in vowel sounds. Though some voiced consonants in Old English, became voiceless or occasionally lost in Middle English, consonant have remained fairly as stable as they been in Old English (O.E). The *w* sound was almost generally lost in Middle English (M.E) where they had been pronounced in Old English; O.E *swâ* became *sō* (so) and O.E *hwâ* changed to *hō* (who) in Middle English.

Most short vowels in Old English; like *è, ì, ô, ú* passed on to Middle English unchanged. The long *ý* developed as the short *ý*. The O.E *brýd* became *bride* (M.E) and *bride* in modern English; O.E *fýr* became *fire* (M.E) and *fire* in modern English. The quality Old English vowels did not change much in passing to Middle English but their length were considerable altered. Old English long vowels for example were shortened early in the Middle English period when followed by double consonants. Compare Middle English *grèt* with Old English *grêat*.

All Middle English long vowels went through extensive alteration in passing to Middle English, but short vowels that occur where syllables are accented remained fairly stable. Short vowels like *a* and *u* went through important changes. M.E *a* became /æ/ in the 16th century, pronounced as *cat, thank, mat, flax*, almost returning to the Old English *æ* as in *at, apple, back*. The *u* in Middle English became what is known as *unrounding* in M.E. The vowel was pronounced as *u* as in *full or pull*. In early modern English *u* became *u* as in *cut, but, sun, love*. As far as short vowels are concerned a modern speaker of English will have no difficulty in understanding the English of any period in history. But this

situation is quite different when we consider long vowels. The notable change in pronunciation involving long vowels is known as *The Great Vowel Shift*.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Compare some vowel sounds in Middle English with those in Modern English.
2. Compare changes in vowel sounds with those of consonant sounds in both Old and Middle English.

3.2 The Great Vowel Shift

The Great Vowel Shift affected the seven long vowels in English. In Middle English they were \bar{i} , \hat{e} , \hat{e} , \hat{O} , \hat{o} , \hat{u} .

\bar{i} pronounced as i: e.g. /fi:f/ became /fair/ five

\hat{e} pronounced as e e.g. /me:də/ became /mi:d/ mead

\hat{e} pronounced as ε: e.g. /kl ε:nə/ became /kle:n/ clean

\check{a} pronounced as a : e.g. /na:mə/ became /ne:m/ name

\hat{O} pronounced as ɔ: e.g. /gɔ:tɔ/ became /go:t/ goat

\hat{o} pronounced as o: e.g. /ro:tɔ/ became /ru:t/ root

\hat{u} pronounced as u: e.g. /du:n/ became /daun/ down

Notice that *i* and *u* became diphthongs *ai* and *au*. And you can see that most of the vowels had almost acquired their present pronunciation by the 16th century, through the Great Vowel Shift. You will also notice that the Middle English \hat{e} has changed to /i:/. In the early modern period (of Shakespeare) \hat{e} was pronounced as in *lane*, *or name* but now it sounds as *lean*, *clean*, *bean*. The change occurred at about the end of the 17th century. The Great Vowel Shift is responsible for the random use of vowel symbols in English spelling. Spelling had already become fixed before the shift and therefore did not change when the quality of the long vowels changed. As a result vowel symbols no longer correspond with the sounds they once represented in Old English.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Describe the influence of the *Great Vowel Shift* to modern pronunciation.

3.3 Some Features of Grammar

The English grammar of the late 16th century and early 17th century is marked by some characteristics which had since disappeared, especially the few parts of speech that retained their old forms. We shall examine some of them.

The Noun:

The only inflections in the noun were, as we mentioned in Unit 3 of Module 2 those marking the plural and possessive singular. There were however a few nouns like *sheep*, and *swine* with unchanged plurals. In the 16th century some old weak plurals like – *n* survived. Most of them gave way to the – *s* plural, such as *fon* (foes) *kneen* (knees) *fleen* (fleas). Shakespeare for example had some forms like *eyen* (eyes), *shoon* (shoes), and *kine*,. Some mixed plurals like *children*, *oxen*, *brethren*, and some internal change of vowels like *mice*, *feet*, survived.

The Adjective: Since the adjective lost its inflectional endings that marked gender, number and case distinctions, the only forms it retained during the 16th and 17th centuries were the comparative and superlative degrees. The two common endings –*er* (comparative) and – *est* (superlative) with the adverb *more* and *most* had been in use since the Old English period. Shakespeare used double comparative or superlative such as *more large*, *most boldest*; or *most unkindest*. These are no longer in use today. In modern times only one syllable (monosyllable) words take the –*er*, –*est* suffixes like *fine-finer-finest*; *tall-taller-tallest* etc. Words with more than one syllable take *more* and *most* e.g. *beautiful -more beautiful -most beautiful*; *active -more active -most active*; *careful -more careful l-most careful* etc.

The Pronoun: As we have said earlier, it was during the 16th century that the pronouns *thou*, *thy*, *thee* were dropped except where the *Authorised Version* or *Shakespeare* is still read. *You* was substituted for *ye*, while *its* was introduced as the possessive of *it*. During the Middle English the singular forms *thou*, *thy*, and *thee* were used among friends and colleagues and for addressing superiors. In the 16th century *ye*, *your*, *you* became pronouns of direct address irrespective of rank or closeness, while the singular forms disappeared. However, the *Authorised Version* of the Bible and Shakespeare still used them.

The formative of *its* as possessive marker was one interesting thing of the early modern period. However, *his* was still used as the proper form

of the possessive. E.g. *if the salt has lost his savor; little candles throw his beams* etc.

Another development of the pronoun in the 16th century was the use of *who* as a relative pronoun. In Old English there were no relative pronouns, rather definite articles (*sê, sêo, þæt*) were used as relative. Sometimes the article *þe* was added (*sê, þe, which, that*) and sometimes *þe* was used alone. In the Middle English this was replaced by *þæt* (*that*). In the 15th century *which* and *that* began to be alternated. It was not until the 16th century that the relative pronoun *who* came into use.

The Verb: Verbs were commonly used without auxiliaries in interrogative statements. A question in Shakespeare's *Macbeth* says *Goes the king hence today?* Normally we would say: *Is the king going out today?* Or *Does the king go out?* Another noticeable difference is the omission of progressive forms. It is common to hear or read: *Where goes he?* or *What do you read?* Rather than *where are you going?* or *what are you reading?* The increase in the use of progressive forms is a modern development.

Impersonal use of verbs was much more common in the 16th and 17th centuries. A construction like *it pleases me not, it dislikes me, it repents me*, are familiar expressions in Shakespeare and the King James Bible, which in more recent English have been replaced by personal constructions like *It doesn't please me; I don't like it* or *I repent*.

The regular ending of the third person singular –eth, was universal right from the 14th century and all through the Middle English period, thus *goeth, giveth, lieth, saith, doth, speaketh* became the standard forms. Forms like *goes, gives, lies, says, does* are also a modern development of English. This however made some occasional appearances in the 15th century.

We also mentioned in Unit 5 of Module 1 that some Old English strong verbs were lost during the Middle English period and some became weak verbs. Those that remained became subject to functions in the past tense and past participle. Verbs like *hide, crow, crowd, flay, dread* etc. developed weak forms. While a number of weak forms became strong, e.g. *blowed, growed, shined, shrinked, and swinged*. Some of these verbs have also undergone changes in modern English.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

- (i) Describe some features of the pronoun during the 16th century.
- (ii) Write some verbs that may be referred to as having weak forms in Middle English.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Some of the changes that were characteristic of the 16th century actually started earlier. Sound changes were climaxed by the *Great Vowel Shift* which provided the foundation for modern English pronunciation. Changes in some forms of grammar as we have seen in this Unit were expected as a part of the ongoing development process of the language, which became more radical with the emergence of the Standard English.

5.0 SUMMARY

Sound changes have been important in the process of development of the English language. Changes occurred more with vowel sound than with consonants. And except for notable changes in the sounds of *i* and *u*, other vowels did not change much from Old English. The most important change in the English sound system is the Great Vowel Shift, which affected some seven long vowel sounds and changed them from Middle English pronunciation to modern pronunciation.

Changes in grammar were those characteristic of the Renaissance English. The *-s* plural marker was generally adopted, with some few mixed plurals. Adjectives lost their inflections and retained only the *-er* and *-est* markers for comparative and superlative degrees. For pronouns *ye*, *your*, and *you*, replaced the singular *thou*, *thy* and *thee* and became pronouns for direct address irrespective of the status of the addressee or the relationship between addressee and the addresser. Impersonal use of verbs, the scarcity of progressive forms, the *-eth* ending of verbs and the weakening of some strong verbs and vice versa were the general features of verbs in the 16th century. All the features of grammar and pronunciation as we have seen in this Unit were further developed but became the strong foundation for the modern day English.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss some general patterns of change in the 16th century English pronunciation.
2. Describe some general features of grammar during the 16th century.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 2 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE 18TH CENTURY: AN ENGLISH ACADEMY AND JOHNSON'S DICTIONARY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The 18th Century English
 - 3.2 An English Academy
 - 3.3 Johnson's Dictionary
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

One of the major characteristics of the Renaissance is the search for new knowledge and in the 17th and 18th centuries there was a conflict of ideas between science and religious thinking, which was going to involve English and language use. Matters of knowledge and learning were now being extensively published in English and in the latter part of the 17th century, there arose a kind of public consciousness towards the language. For instance, a popular feeling arising from the conflict of science and religion, proposed that scientific prose should be written in plain language, made clear and precise. And the style must not be assertive. It was also argued that language should be void of emotions; it should be rational and English prose was to be used to facilitate national unity rather than mere source of entertainment or relaxation. There was a Royal Society then in the 1660s the job, of which was to propose solution to the conflict of thoughts, especially to design a universal language style for scientific writing. But the Royal Society failed to create the plain style of language which it was meant to do neither did its members show any example. This search for stability and a demand for regulation introduce us to the temper of the 18th century, which we shall discuss in this unit under *the 18th Century English*. We shall also examine some of the efforts made by scholars to achieve order and standard in English with particular reference to Dr Johnson's Dictionary.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- describe the general characteristics of the 18th century England
- explain the English language situation of the 18th century

- describe some efforts made to achieve order and uniformity in English in the 18th century
- discuss the contributions of Johnson's dictionary to the growth of English vocabulary and language use.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The 18th Century English

In the study of English literature, the first half of the 18th century, is often referred to as the *Augustan Age* in England. It was a period of English prose writing which invariably affected the course of the English language. This age was characterized by a search for stability in language use. There was a strong sense of order and great desire for a system that would enhance efforts towards conformity to certain standards of good writing. There was also a drive towards correctness and attempts were made to formulate rules and principles to define correctness and to achieve correctness. This was characteristic of the spirit of rational science and philosophy that started with the Renaissance. Latin was looked upon as a classical standard for literature. Concerns for English soon began to take a new turn. Questions were then asked whether the language was at all worthy to be used for writing, where Latin had been the tradition; whether the extensive additions being made to the vocabulary were justified, and whether a better system of spelling could be introduced. For the first time, it was discovered that English had no grammar. What was *grammar* did not follow any generally accepted pattern. The result was that English did not have any rules. People did not know when they were wrong or right. Everything was uncertain. Even among the educated people there was so much variation on matters of grammar.

Latin remained an authoritative example in which one was told how to use language. People began to feel that this problem could be solved by an English Academy that could legislate on matters of language. The popular idea was that English was being corrupted and needed to be refined and corrected. Necessary reforms should be in place after which the language should be *fixed* permanently and protected from regular changes.

In a nutshell the 18th century sought to:

- reduce the language to rule and set up a standard of current usage;
- refine the language – that is, to remove supposed defects and introduce certain improvements; and
- fix* it permanently in the desire form (Baugh & Cable 2001).

Attempts to Purify the Language

Right from the 17th century as we have pointed out, people were conscious that English lacked standards - the fact that the language did not have rules to determine right or wrong in its usage. Writers were particularly worried that writing was more of a guess work; individuals wrote according to their choices of words and how best they felt they could express themselves, not guided by any particular standard. This led to further corruption of the language, as some people thought.

The feeling that English was being corrupted and unchecked gave rise to some attempts to clean up the language and rid it of some supposed imperfections. One of such attempts was Swift's proposal of 1712, titled: *A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining the English Tongue*. Swift was not comfortable with the spate of scientific enquiry and revolutions that favoured careless use of language. Innovations such as clipping and shortening of words like *mob*, *taxi*, *rep* or *phone* was not acceptable to Swift. A later publication *Philosophy of Rhetoric* by George Campbell (1776) also condemned this practice. In fact Campbell described it as 'barbarism' in language use. Another innovation that Swift opposed was the tendency to contract verbs like 'rebuk'd,' 'disturb'd' or 'perturb'd'. He condemned this practice and argued that leaving out a vowel to save a syllable makes such contracted forms very difficult to pronounce. Again Swift condemned some new words that kept coming into the English language. Words such as *sham*, *banter*, *mob*, *bubble*, *bully*, *shuffling*, or *palming*, that were becoming the vogue among people of fashion and even among preachers were rejected. As we have pointed out in the earlier Unit, Swift was not alone in the criticism of foreign words. But Swift desired and hoped that like Latin and Greek, English could be rendered stable. But it is a mistaken notion that these languages never had times when they struggled with the process of stability like English at this period.

However Swift and others who believed that the problems that confronted English - that of standardizing, refining, and 'fixing' were to consider what happened in Italy and France. Each of these countries had an academy that defined standards in language and monitored the processes that sustained these standards. Italy for example founded the *Accademia della Crusca* in 1582, that was responsible for the purification of the Italian language. The Academy to this effect published in 1612 a dictionary called *Vocabolario degli Accademici della Crusca*, which had about six volumes by 1738. France similarly established an Academy. The principal functions of the Academy were to give rules to the French language, render it pure and capable of treating the arts and sciences. It was also to compile a dictionary, a grammar, a rhetoric and a guide on how to write poetry. These were all

achieved by 1694. England did not have any Academy that performed similar functions.

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Describe the problems that English had, that became prominent in the 18th century.
2. Why did these problems become too obvious in the 18th century?

3.2 An English Academy

An English Academy was then suggested following the Italian and French example. In 1660, a volume was published titled *New Atlantis...* continued by R.H Esquire. The author formally pictured an academy that would be charged with purifying the English language and regulating its grammar and vocabulary. Not long, the idea of an academy received supports from influential intellectuals, including John Dryden (a poet), and John Evelyn among others. Evelyn, who was a member of the Royal society, proposed that a grammar of language be formulated with some spelling reforms to be followed by a collection of all 'pure' English words with their meanings. He further suggested collections of technical words, dialects, expressions and archaic words that might be revived and possibly translating some of the best of Greek and Latin literatures as models of elegance and style. Remember that the Royal Society was established for scientific research and had no real interest in language matters, so nothing was done about Evelyn's proposals. Dryden's efforts also in this direction did not attract any significant attention.

Towards the end of the century however, Daniel Defoe (a novelist) in his *Essay upon Projects* (1697) again raised the issue of an English Academy and devoted a whole article to the subjects of academies. Swift's Proposal of 1712, as we noted earlier, marked the heights of the movement for an English Academy. Already public opinion had been in its favour following the efforts of Dryden, Evelyn and others, for more than fifty years. Once again the idea of an Academy suffered a set back following a publication of *Reflections on Dr Swift's Letter to the Earl of Oxford about the English Tongue* by John Oldmixon, in the same year that Swift's Proposal appeared.

Oldmixon (a lawyer) writing in the name of the legal profession totally attacked the idea of standardizing the language, arguing that it was impossible to prevent a language from responding to change. While he did not protest against the idea of an Academy, he ridiculed the person of Swift and his proposal and nothing subsequently came out of Swift's Proposal, which was indeed the closest England ever came to having an

Academy. Subsequent talk of an Academy in England was soon received with skepticism. There were now doubts of the results of the French Academy. Some came to think that the Academy came to fix French but ended up spoiling it. The claim that a language could be fixed was the platform upon which the idea of an Academy was built, now it began to decline and popular feeling began to favour the notion that nothing can stop a language from changing, not even Latin or Greek could resist change.

When it was clear that Swift's Proposal had failed the only means was to work out a substitute for an academy and that would demand working directly on the public. Individuals sought to provide reforms that they believed necessary and to set up standards that would be accepted by every body. Thus, in 1724 an anonymous publication appeared under the title: *The Many Advantages of a Good Language to Any Nation: with an Examination of the Present State of our Own*. This re-echoed the old complaints that English was full of too many monosyllables, used too many contractions, and had no adequate grammar or dictionary. It then called upon the public to take part in the discussion on matters of language and proposed a series of weekly or monthly publications on grammar and other topics on language. Some other publications also emerged calling for reforms on grammar and spelling.

All these publications identified two greatest needs of the English language (i) standard grammar (ii) a dictionary. The need for a dictionary was met by Johnson's dictionary of 1755 and the one of grammar by early grammarians in the latter part of the 18th century. The latter shall be discussed in Unit 3 of Module 2.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Discuss the factors that favoured the proposal for the establishment of an English Academy.
2. Explain the reasons why Swift's Proposal failed.
3. What substitutes were adopted for an academy?

3.3 Johnson's Dictionary

Dr. Johnson's dictionary of 1755 was the first of its kind to exhibit English vocabulary in a more fully and extensive manner. It offered quotations to illustrate the use of words. Thus, it became the first dictionary to record language usage. And this was to aid understanding where the explaining of meanings became inadequate. The dictionary also gave a guide to pronunciation.

The purpose of this dictionary was not just to provide a kind of standard in spelling and use of words, it was, according to the author to refine the

English language and ensure grammatical purity; to clear it from colloquial barbarism, licentious idioms and irregular idioms” (Baugh & Cable 2001: 273). At another place he said it was to fix the English language, preserve its purity and ascertain the meaning of English idioms. This was like performing the functions of an Academy; and in fact, the Johnson’s dictionary could compare favourably with similar works of an Academy in France or Italy.

The dictionary however had its defects. For instance, it was said to include many words that did not belong to English, and its history of words was not perfect. Some of its explanations of places were incorrect and full of prejudice and his definitions were sometimes discriminatory. Though laden with its inadequacies scholars still believed that Johnson’s dictionary is the foundation of all meaningful efforts towards the standardization of the English language. Dr. Samuel Johnson himself is considered as the founder of the modern English dictionary.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. Describe the features of the Johnson’s Dictionary of the 18th century.
2. What faults were leveled against the work?

4.0 CONCLUSION

The position of the 18th century English was that of uncertainty in grammar and vocabulary. It was the general feeling that English lacked standards and needed a regulatory body. This resulted in the call for an English Academy and some other attempts to fix a standard. When the efforts failed, Samuel Johnson’s dictionary appeared to try to solve the problem of standards in spelling, pronunciation and language use.

5.0 SUMMARY

The 18th century was an age in search of rules and established standards of spelling and language usage. Efforts to refine the English grammar and remove some supposed defects and improve on it became necessary. A strong thirst to fix the language permanently as a guide to correct usage in both writing and speaking became the preoccupation of language scholars. There was a call for an English Academy that would effectively legislate on matters of language as described above and serve as a watchdog against foreign agents of pollution, following the examples of France and Italy. At the forefront of this call was the Swift’s *Proposal* of 1712. When this proposal failed individuals adopted other forms of propaganda to win public interest in favour of standards for English and its purity. This was in form of weekly and monthly

publications on matters of language. In 1755 Samuel Johnson's dictionary appeared that provided for the first time the standard steps to fix the language. The dictionary provided a comprehensive list of English words, a guide to spelling and pronunciation, and a guide to language usage. The dictionary almost served as an Academy by itself and solved one of the greatest problems of English at that time which was lack of standards in vocabulary.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the problems of English that became glaring in the 18th century.
2. Describe the features of the Johnson's dictionary of the 18th century and its contribution to the development of the English language.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 3 THE 18TH CENTURY GRAMMARIANS; THE RISE OF PRESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The 18th Century Grammarians
 - 3.2 The Rise of Prescriptive Grammar
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

One of the greatest defects of the English language in the 18th century as we observed in Unit 2 of this Module was the absence of consistent grammar. There was no standard because the language had not been reduced to rules, showing what correct English was and what it wasn't. So people used the language with the consciousness that it possessed no character that reflected order and consistency. It was this challenge that the 18th century grammarians would confront. In this Unit, we shall see the efforts of the grammarians to formulate rules for the English language and how this attempt led to the emergence of prescriptive grammar. What were the achievements of the grammarians and what were their failures?

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- assess the general contributions of the early grammarians to provide a standard for English grammar
- describe the rise of prescriptive grammar and say why it is called *prescriptive grammar*
- distinguish between prescriptive grammar and the grammar of the early modern period.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The 18th Century Grammarians

Before the 18th century there had been few attempts to make English grammar more formal and stable. However, these works were generally written for the purpose of teaching foreign learners the language or providing basis for learning Latin grammar. An example was Ben Johnson's *An English grammar ...for the Benefit of Strangers*, published in 1640. It was in the 18th century that English grammar was viewed as a subject worthy of study by itself. An earlier writer, John Wallis (*Grammatical Linguae Anglicante*, 1653) had observed that the Latin structure defers significantly from that of English, and therefore describing English using Latin grammar was not proper. It was like forcing English to the methods and rules of Latin. In the 18th century, the grounds were set to witness descriptions of grammar that had its peculiar nature and syntax. Unfortunately, most of the compilers of the English grammar were only trained in Latin and Greek and still tried to preserve some of the classical concepts that are foreign to English.

The works of the grammarians began with the work of Joseph Priestly (1761) titled *The Rudiments of English Grammar*. A month later, Dr. Robert Lowth, a bishop of London, published *Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762). About 22 editions of this book appeared in the 18th century, and became very influential. Subsequent four publications were mere imitations of Lowth's grammar. For instance John Ash's *Grammatical Institutes* (1763) was intended to serve as *Easy Introduction to Dr. Lowth's English Grammar*. In 1784, Noah Webster published *A Grammatical Institute of the English Language*, which enjoyed much circulation and influence in America. Most of these works were by men who did not have any special training in language. Lowth for example was a clergyman, and their works were a mixture of philosophical matters with language and did not really answer the great questions of grammatical descriptions. Over 200 works on grammar and rhetoric were published between 1750 and 1800. What really was their aim and what did they achieve? It is undeniable that the 18th century English grammarians attempted a coherent prescriptive tradition, within which they aimed at:

- (a) Codifying the principles of the language and reducing it to rules;
- (b) Settling disputed points and deciding on cases of divided usage;
and
- (c) Pointing out common errors, correcting such supposed errors and improving the language.

- (a) The grammarians were to demonstrate that English was capable of order and systematic procedure for achieving correctness. Lowth had argued that the supposed irregularity in the language was the problem of users and not with the language itself. People had taken their skills in the language for granted and proceeded without being conscious of any rules. So the grammarians were to systematize the facts of English grammar and draw up rules by which questions could be examined and decided.
- (b) They were to settle disputed cases of grammar and usage. They were not just to make rules but also pronounce judgment where necessary. There were no longer going to be cases of uncertainty. A grammatical construction is either right or wrong, and it was the job of the grammarians to decide.
- (c) Dr Lowth again observed that the best way to judge whether a construction was right or wrong was to lay down rules, and illustrate them by examples. But besides showing what was right, it was necessary pointing out what was wrong. So the grammarians would identify grammatical errors and demonstrate how such errors would be corrected.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain the aims of the 18th century grammarians.

3.2 The Rise of Prescriptive Grammar

In terms of achievement, the grammarians were going to do for grammar what Johnson's Dictionary had done for vocabulary. The dictionary had handled most questions of spelling and lexicon in a fairly systematic way, and attention was now on grammar. Now the grammarians set out to *prescribe*. To prescribe in this context, means that people were told what to say, the grammar was to be static, which invariably implied that anything out of the specifications was condemned and proscribed. For example, expressions like *had rather*, *had better*, were condemned; *I would rather* was accepted. There was preference for *different from* rather than *different than or to*, and the rejection of *between you and me*. *He is taller than I*, was accepted rather *taller than me*. *Shall* was approved for the first person pronoun, while *will* for the third person etc. Do not forget that no consensus was reached among the grammarians in this rule making process. However a decision was usually taken after such questions as reason and examples from Latin or Greek had been considered.

William Ward in his *Grammar of the English Language* (1765) drew up for the first time a full set of prescriptions that formed a background to the rules found in modern English books. This publication was strengthened by Lindey Murray's *English Grammar* (1795). The books by Lowth and Murray and those they influenced have been quite controversial and were often considered as the origins of most of the grammatical controversies in today's English.

To make grammatical rules the grammarians were guided by three considerations: reason (or analogy): history of the word or phrase involved and the examples of Greek and Latin. The third point formed the basis upon which many questions of grammar were decided. Some grammarians felt that descriptive comparisons among these languages (English included) could be turned into prescriptive rules especially since they were working towards a universal grammar, and the idea of universal grammar was derived from the traditions of Latin and Greek. However there was in the 18th century a definite feeling that trying to fit English into the pattern of Latin grammar was a disadvantage. This feeling was sustained in the next century when the interest in universal grammar declined.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. What does *Prescriptive Grammar* mean?
2. What do you think were the achievements of the 18th century grammarians?

4.0 CONCLUSION

What we still have today as *traditional grammar* that tells us what is right and wrong has its foundation in the 18th century grammarians. Bishop Robert Lowth in 1762 said: "the principle design of a Grammar of any Language is to teach us to express ourselves with propriety in the Language; and to enable us judge every phrase and form of construction, whether it be right or wrong". (Crystal 2001:79). So the grammarians set out to provide for English grammar a platform for determining what was correct about spoken or written English and what was wrong. In doing this they prescribed certain forms as correct and proscribed others as incorrect.

This approach however brought about a serious argument - the question of whether correctness should be determined by usage or grammatical rules. Shouldn't dictionaries and grammars rather reflect usage describing current practice than prescribe rules? This view has since been adopted by modern descriptive grammarians in their study and analysis of language.

5.0 SUMMARY

Before the 18th century, English grammar had no definite rules. And it was difficult to determine what correct or incorrect sentence was since there were no standards. The assignment before the 18th century grammarians were to:

- (i) codify the principles of the language and reduce it to rules;
- (ii) point out common errors; correct such errors and improve on the language;
- (iii) settle disputed points and decide on cases of divided usage.

They set about to achieve the above by applying reason, common sense, history, logic and references to Latin and Greek. At the end, they were able to formulate rules for the language, prescribing some grammatical forms as correct and proscribing some grammatical forms as incorrect. Some of these publications have been controversial while some have been condemned as containing a lot of blunders. One of the most important arguments against their approach had been that English grammar should reflect usage showing current practice rather than proscribed rules.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the activities of the 18th century grammarians and outline their achievements.
2. What was the main criticism against the Grammarians?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 4 ENGLISH SINCE 1900

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Influences on the 19th Century English and After
 - 3.2 Vocabulary and New Developments
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The 19th century and after, are also referred to as late modern period, or simply the period of modern English. Again we are going to look at some of the major influences on English language which have been mainly on vocabulary. So far, we have seen that social factors have contributed greatly to the growth of the language. Again, both political and social factors had helped to strengthen the position of England as a world power especially with its successive victories at wars during the 19th century (e.g. victory at Trafalgar, against France in 1805 and against Russia at Crimea 1854-56). Its political and social reforms in the 19th and 20th centuries were also important factors in establishing England as one of the world's stable democracies. The world wars of the 20th century and its effects on the society; the growth and importance of some of British colonies; their eventual independence and the rapid growth of the United States as one of the greatest English speaking world powers certainly have their influences on the English language of today. We shall consider in detail some of these factors in Units 17 and 18. In this Unit we shall be considering the more influential factors as they relate to language, namely the growth of Science and Medicine, Transport, Information technology, Journalism and Broadcasting and the world wars. You shall also see how developments in other areas have affected English vocabulary.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit you should be able to:

- discuss the factors that influenced English vocabulary in the 19th century and after
- explain how English vocabulary has been largely affected by some new developments across the world since 1900.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Influences on the 19th Century English and After

As you can see in this study, English is one language that easily accepts change and admits foreign technical terms. And no doubt as someone that has been studying the language you are familiar with terms that are associated with professions or *register*. And it is easy to identify terms that are associated with science, medicine or engineering. These technical terms came along with growth and development in the various disciplines during the 19th and 20th centuries. Let's consider some of these disciplines and terms associated with them. We are able to appreciate these terms because they have become part of our everyday communication.

- (i) ***Growth in Medicine and other Sciences:*** In every field of science, there has been a growth in technical words in the 19th and 20th centuries which only the specialist in these fields understand but with time, a good number of the words became familiar and in fact turn to everyday usage. In **medicine** for example we are familiar with names of diseases like: *Anaemia, Diarrhea, Appendicitis, Bronchitis, and Cardiac-arrest* and other numerous ailments. We can easily associate terms like *Bacteriology, Virology, Immunology, Paediatrics, Orthodontics*, with medicine and we can easily suggest what some of them mean from their names. AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome) which has become a household term was unknown in the 19th century. We can easily talk of *clinics, anti-biotic, vaccine, or anesthetic*. We have learnt names of drugs like *paracetamol, aspirin, analgesics, iodine, panadol, morphine, or penicillin*. Medical equipment such as *stethoscope, syringe, electrocardiogram, ultrasound scan machine, or x-ray machine*, is not very strange to us. We speak of *hormones, enzymes; metabolism, endocrine glands, DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid) etc.*, and we know what *carbohydrate, vitamins, proteins, amino-acids, or cholesterol* mean. Although you may not explain them clearly but you're familiar with them. For example, *carbohydrates* gives energy, *protein* builds up body tissues and so on. We often talk about someone who usually falls ill by eating a particular food as being *allergic* to that food. All these words that came during the 19th and 20th centuries have become everyday language.

In **physics** and electricity we can easily identify words that we know. Words like *relativity, calorie, ultra-violent rays, ionization, transformer, dynamo, current, arc light*, are indeed familiar though many of them we

may not really explain. The development of atomic energy and nuclear weapons following the World Wars and international conflicts has given rise to words like *atomic bomb*, *hydrogen bomb*, *air raid*, *ballistic missiles*, *and missiles*, *radio active*, *chain reaction*, *fallout*, etc.

Chemistry has given the English lexicon, *nitrogen*, *alkali*, *benzene*, *radium*, *creosote*, *biochemical*, *petrol-chemical* etc. Aviation and space science have also contributed terms such as *astronaut*, *cosmonauts*, *space craft*, *space shuttle*, *count down command module blast off* etc. How we know that these terms have to stay is that we often make reference to them in informal speech or writing consciously and unconsciously. Many times we fail to recognize where the words come from. You often hear people refer to *inferiority complex*, *melancholic*, or *schizophrenia* without realizing that they are using words from formal psychology.

(ii) **Growth in Automobile and Transport Industry:** Scientific discoveries and inventions have proved to be an important source of new words. The word *automobile* itself is a new term just as we have *saloon* (American sedan) as terms used for earlier types of vehicles. Now we have lorry (Army-truck), *trailer limousine*, *mustang*, *jeep*, *Mercedes-Benz*, *Ford*, *Volkswagen*, etc. some of the cars are named after their inventors, e.g., Ford or Mercedes. We have learnt new meanings with the evolution of vehicles like *carburetor*, *sparkling plug*, (American(Ame) *spark plug*) *choke*, *clutch*, *gear lever* (Ame-gear shift), *gearbox*, *steering wheels*, *differential*, *shock absorber*, *chassis*, *automatic transmission*, *radial tyres*, *spare tyres*, *convertible*, or *station wagon* etc. And a car is usually parked in a garage. We now talk of the *traffic*, *speeding*, *traffic light*, *petrol* (Ame gas), *bus-stop*, *terminus*, *ticket*, etc. You may supply more examples to illustrate further how these technical terms have become part of our everyday language.

(iii) **Development in Broadcasting, Information Technology and Computing.** Communication and computer technology are other aspects of science development that have contributed new words to English vocabulary especially due to the degree of impact these developments have had on people's daily life. These additions are either entirely new words or old words being given new meanings. In communication, especially in films, broadcasting and motion pictures most new words came in during the 20th century. The word *cinema* dates from 1899, while *motion picture* came much later. The word *radio* in the sense of broadcasting came from about 1925, while the term *television* (TV) was introduced at about 1904. Radio and TV share some

common terminologies like *broadcasting, newscaster, aerial, transmitter, transmission, antenna, lead-in, loud speaker, standby, announcer, reception, microphone, camera, etc.* but abbreviations like FM (frequency modulation) AM (amplitude modulation) are used only for the identification of radio broadcasting stations. But terms like *cable TV, cable network, teleprompter, video tape, UHL channel, colour programming, digital TV, super thin TV, VCD, DVD* are peculiar to the television. Computer technology has been another significant influence on the vocabulary of English. The first digital computers were invented between 1940 and 1950, with some general terms like *program, memory, language, and hard ware*. With new waves of development in computer technology during the 1980's, people began to own 'PCs' (personal computers) and learn new words from computing such as *RAM (random-access memory), ROM (read-only memory) DOS (disk operating system), micro processor, byte, gig, modem, software, mouse, keyboard etc.* and with the growth of the *internet*, we now use terms like *www (World Wide Web), browse, hack, down load, upload, hyper text, browser, search engine, LAN (local area network, WAN (wide area network), e-mail, yahoo etc.*

- (iv) ***The Influence of Journalism:*** Journalists do not only propagate new words, they also create theirs. Newspaper and magazines have demonstrated a great deal of creativity when it comes to saying what just have to be said even when the reporter lacks the right word. Many times they adopt colloquial and informal styles, sometimes using words out of context and often giving new meanings to familiar words. And some of such words are used metaphorically. For example *quiz* for question; *oust* for remove, *probe* for investigate, *comb* for search and *maul* for defeat. *Law makers* will always reach at a *truce*; someone *spikes* a rumour, or makes a business *deal*. We read about a *cleanup*, a *go-between* and how the price *soared*. The president is usually *briefed* or *chauffeured* and we expect some sought of *entertellment* or *condomania* or *satzefaction*. These are coinages we see in magazines and newspapers that catch our attention, sometimes used as adverts or to create sensations but indeed much of these coinages are finding their ways into formal writing.
- (v) ***The Effect of World Wars:*** As we examine how great developments leave their marks on the English language, we must not fail to mention that the First World War (1914-1918) brought some words into English. Some of these are military terms, or words associated with warfare e.g. *air raid, anti aircraft gun, tank, nose-dive, blimp, gas mask, liaison officer, and camouflage*.

‘Liaison’ and ‘camouflage’ are borrowed from French. We also have words that assume new meaning e.g. *sector* (*specific position*) *barrage* (protective screen of a machine gun); *dud* (a shell that did not explode) etc. Today we say ‘sector of the economy’ ‘barrage of corruption’, *dud cheque* with new meanings. Some words already in the language were popularized by the war, e.g. *dugout*, *machine gun*, *periscope*, *no man’s land*, *doughboy* etc.

World War II wasn’t as productive as the World War I in terms of introducing new words. However it contributed certain new words and new meanings about new methods of warfare. Examples are *alert*, *block-buster*, *dive-bombing*, *nuclear bombing*, *evacuate*, *parachutist*, *landing strip*, *crash landing*, *wad block*, *fox hole*, *bulldozer*, *task force*. Some expressions like *spearhead*, *to mop up* and *to appease* are new verbs or old one with military sense. The word *commando* already existed before 1940’s, acquired a new meaning. Others that either acquired new meaning or given great currency during the war are *backlog*, *stockpile*, *priority*, *bottleneck*, *ceiling (limit)* etc. The war also contributed expressions like *traveler*, *iron curtain*, *cold war*, *fellow* etc. to English vocabulary. Most of these words and expressions have since been absorbed into everyday civilian language.

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. List 5 words that the growth of science introduced into English.
2. List 10 words that are associated with Broadcasting, computing.

3.2 Vocabulary and New Developments

Vocabulary has its way of expressing and highlighting developments. You have seen so far, in this Unit and the previous ones that, a new development leaves a significant linguistic mark on the language, so that one can easily give a history of either a scientific or social development by simply identifying some linguistic evidences that go along with it. Take for example the World War II, new words came with new methods of warfare including air combat, so we have *air raid*. And we trace the history of certain words by simply studying the events and developments that brought them. Language also reflects how current people are with new developments and culture because when new words enter into a language people quickly learn them as a way of updating their knowledge and experience. These are what we have tried to prove in the history of English. In this sub-section we shall consider a few developments that impacted on the English language.

At about 1839, the words *photograph* or *photography* appeared signaling other related words such as *camera*, *film*, *enlargement*, *focus*, *aperture*, *shutter*, *lenses*, *negative* etc. and in the latter part of the 19th century words like *telephone*, *typewriter*, *apartment house*, *blue print*, *oilfield*, *motorcycle*, *feminist*, *fundamentalist*, *marathon* etc. appeared. These words were said to be the out come of the revival of the Olympic Games in Athens in 1896.

The 20th century has witnessed a rapid growth of vocabulary. Between 1906 and 1908, new words like *questionnaire*, *suffragette*, *raincoat*, *thermos*, *free verse*, came into English. This was also the period when many words in aviation and aeronautics were introduced e.g. *aircraft*, *airplane*, *hydroplane*, *dirigible* etc. 1910 came with terms like *futurist*, *post-expressionist (art)*, *Freudian (psychology)* *intelligentsia (superior culture)* and *profiteer*. At about 1933 came *deep-freezer*, *air-conditioned*, *nylon*, and *transistor*. Expressions like *credit card*, *ecosystem*, and *existentialism* came around 1972.

We must mention here that a good number of words must have come out of individual's deliberate creation or coinage, borne out of ingenuity or imitation. A few of them like *Kodak*, (*a trade mark*), *Frigidaire*, *Kleenex*, *Xerox*, or *Zipper*, often treated as common nouns, are coinages that represent trade names. Some of these coinages are actually acronyms - words formed by joining few letters of two or more words. E.g. AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome); Radar (radio detecting and ranging) etc. Some are blend words or portmanteau words like *Interpol* (*international* + *police*) *travelogue* (*travel* + *dialogue*); while some are simple clipped words e.g. *fax* (*facsimile*) *phone* (*telephone*), *lab* (*laboratory*). In many cases, the blend or clipped words gain more popularity and patronage than the original word. As new developments keep taking place, we expect new words to express them.

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Explain the relationship between new developments and old vocabulary.
2. Can you identify some recent words in the vocabulary of Nigerian English?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Scientific and social developments are major factors in the enrichment of English vocabulary. As new things take place, the need naturally arises for the appropriate words to express them. Words that already exist in the language are not usually sufficient to represent new experiences. So as society grows, all its aspects grow, so language,

especially vocabulary grows. And we expect more stock of words in English as we witness new inventions and more technological breakthroughs.

5.0 SUMMARY

The rapid growth of English vocabulary from the 19th century upwards, has been sequel to the growth and development of science and medicine, communication and Broadcasting, Information technology and Computing. Others are Journalism and the World Wars, within the same period. We have also observed that the development of vocabulary is an on-going process because as the world witnesses new developments, new words and expressions are bound to evolve as part of those development processes. And people must learn those new terms to update their knowledge and express their experience, as well as benefit maximally from the emerging developments and technologies.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. List at least ten (10) words you consider to be new developments in the English in Nigeria.
2. Discuss five (5) factors that directly influenced the development of English vocabulary of the 19th century and after.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Baugh A.C, and Cable .T. (2001). *A History of the English Language*, 5th Ed. London: Routledge.

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UNIT 5 SOURCES OF NEW WORDS; THE OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY; SPELLING REFORM; FUNCTIONAL VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Sources of New Words
 - 3.2 The Oxford English Dictionary
 - 3.3 Spelling Reform
 - 3.4 Functional Varieties of English
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We are still studying the features of late Modern English, i.e., from 1900 to the present time. In this Unit we shall be considering the extent to which new words entered (and are still entering) Modern English and their sources. Secondly, we shall be looking at the emergence and contribution of the Oxford English Dictionary and the question of Spelling Reform. Lastly, we shall examine the functional varieties and dialects of Modern English.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- describe the sources of lexicon of modern English
- explain the contributions of oxford English dictionary
- identify some functional varieties of English
- describe the contributions of the spelling reform.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Sources of New Words

You will recall that the greatest radical changes in the history of English have taken place in the vocabulary. The events and developments in Europe and England are usually reflected in the English language by the

number of new words that are introduced following the events. Can you remember any Old English words that came with the Anglo-Saxon invasion or words that were introduced as a result of the Danish invasion, or French words that the Normans brought with them as they conquered England in 1066?

In the Modern periods new words that came into the English lexicon did not come with military conquest, rather they came from common sources such as borrowings from other modern European languages; creation of words through self-explaining compounds, prefixes and suffixes; coinages; forming of words from Greek and Latin elements; common words from proper names; slang and old words that assumed new meanings. We shall discuss each of these briefly:

- (i) **Borrowings from Modern European Languages.** The English language has further extended its vocabulary with new words like *aperitif, chauffeur, garage etc* (French), *ciao, vendetta etc* (Italian), *bonanza, canyon, cantina etc* (Spanish) *feschrift, angst, etc* (German), *troika, vodka, glasnost, perestroika* (Russia), *robot, (Czech), loot, thug etc* (India), *pygamas* (Persia), *sake, yen, soy etc* (Japan). Most of these words have been adopted the way they are, with the same meaning that they designate in their original languages.
- (ii) **Forming Words through Self-Explaining Compounds.** Compound words such as *fire-extinguisher, finger-print etc.* (often with hyphens) represent the old method of creating words in English language. In the 20th century, it continued to provide cheap method of forming new words. Words such as *know-how, lip-stick, streamline, hitchhike, e-mail, babysitter, life style, greenhouse effect, acid rain etc.* are familiar examples. You can see that the words explain themselves without having to consult the dictionary.
- (iii) **Compounds from Greek and Latin Elements.** Latin and Greek are familiar classical languages whose elements have been in the English language for a long time. In modern times, they remain a favourite source of scientific terms in the language. The word *genetics* for example is formed from two Greek roots which stands for *well* and *to be born*. Genetics is the study of heredity - about natural traits, abilities or illnesses of parents pass on to their children. The suffix *scope* in *telescope, stethoscope, etc.* is from the Greek word meaning *water*, while 'tele' in *telescope, telephone, television etc.*, is adopted from Greek element meaning *far*. The word *automobile* is from both Greek and Latin. *Auto* in Greek represents *self* while *mobile* is Latin *mobilis*

meaning moveable. Many scientific words in the English language can actually be traceable this way with their roots in Greek or Latin.

- (iv) **Prefixes and Suffixes.** Another method for forming words has been by adding familiar prefixes and suffixes to existing words. Thus in the Modern period, words such as *transatlantic*, *transcontinental*, *transformer*, *transmarine*, *post classical*, *postgraduate*, *prenatal*, *preschool*, *preview*, *counterattack*, *superman*, *neoclassical*, *stardom*, *gangster*, *profiteer* etc came into the language.
- (v) **Coinages.** Some new words in the language are as a result of deliberate coinages during this period. Many of such words came from the media and advertising. Words like *Xerox*, *Frigidaire* and *Kodak* were initially used as trademarks, but today you can hear someone saying “I would like to Xerox the whole paper”. Acronym is another method through which new words were invented. We often refer to OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Countries) ECOWAS (Economic Community of West African States) UNICEF (United Nations Children’s fund) without having to bother about their full meaning. In some coinages it is easy to guess the combination that is made, either an element with an existing word in the language or some familiar element. Examples are *travelogue* (travel and dialogue), *Dictaphone* (dictate and telephone), *electrocute* (electricity and execute) etc. Words like *travelogue* and *electrocute* are called *blends* or *portmanteau*.
- (vi) **Words from Proper Names.** Some words in the language are actually adopted from proper names with which the idea expressed by the words is associated. *Sandwich* for example is attributable to the Earl of Sandwich who on one occasion was said to put slices of meat between pieces of bread. *Limousine* is a name of a province in France. Names like *Mercedes*, *Ford*, or *Volkswagen* are cars named after their inventors. The word *boycott* was derived from the experience of captain Boycott -an agent of a house owner who refused to accept rent offered by tenants. His life was threatened, his servants were forced to desert him and his figure was burnt in effigy. This was in 1880 in Ireland. Since then the word *boycott* evolved meaning to force something to happen, by refusing to do something. We have more of such words in English language.

- (vii) **Slang.** Slang could be said to be common words or expressions that do not belong to the standard variety but are generally used in some informal contexts, with some special meaning. Earlier in the history of the English language slang was rejected as vulgar, or 'vagabond'. But in modern times, many slang words like *joke*, *boom*, *slum*, *fad*, *scram*, *buzz*, *put-down*, *vamoose* etc are finding their way into formal writing.
- (viii) **Old Words with New Meanings.** The process of extending the vocabulary of a language also involves attaching new meanings to old-familiar words. Words like *mouse*, *boot*, *click*, *navigate* as used today in computing are examples of old words with new meanings. *Skyline* initially meant the horizon, now it refers to *sky-scrapers*. A *record* no longer refers to music, but other things from bookkeeping to documentation. Phrasal verbs like *sign-off* or *stand-by* are now mainly used in the media, like *take-off* (in a plane) *kick-off* (in football) and *call-up* (in telephone). Some words are now better interpreted in the content of users and situations, than their dictionary meaning. Skyscrapers

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. List at least six (6) sources of lexicon in Modern English.
2. Discuss four (4) contributions of these sources.

3.2 The Oxford English Dictionary

It was around 1850 that the inadequacy of existing dictionaries of the English language began to be felt very seriously. With the increasing amount of new words entering into the language the Johnson's dictionary for example became far below standard to meet the intellectual needs of the modern reader. The British Philological Society in 1857 appointed a committee to collect words that were not in the dictionaries, with an aim of publishing a supplement to them. It later decided to produce an entirely new English dictionary, in order to record every word that could be found in the language from around the year 1000. The dictionary was also to show the history of each word, its spellings and its usage, past and present. A call for volunteers in the project attracted numerous materials from hundred of readers from all over the world. By 1879, a formal agreement had been reached with the Oxford University Press, to publish and finance the philological society's dictionary. Work on the dictionary was finished around 1895 and was originally known as *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles*, but was later called *The Oxford English Dictionary*. The completed work was in 10 volumes, with 240,165 main words. A supplementary volume was published in 1933 containing additions and corrections. The

2nd edition of the dictionary contained 290, 500 entries, about 38,000 more than the 1993 supplement. Three volumes were published between 1993 and 1997. The dictionary is said to be the biggest of any language in the world. It provided some data that has helped to answer questions relating to the history of the English language. It has also influenced the attitude of many people favourably towards the English language by exhibiting the history of words and idioms, their forms and their different levels of usage, and a guide to their pronunciation.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

In what ways do you think the Oxford English Dictionary has aided the growth of the English language?

3.3 Spelling Reform

You will again recall that spelling has been one of the teething problems of the English language right from the beginning. This problem continued to plague the language through the time of Shakespeare, to the early part of the 19th century. Interest was once again renewed in it, and this led to the formation of Spelling Reform Associations in Britain and American. These associations did not achieve much. In 1898 the British National Education Association formally adopted twelve simplified spellings for use in its publications. They are *tho*, *altho*, *thoro*, *thorofare*, *thru*, *throughout*, *program*, *catalog*, *prolog*, *decalog*, *demagog*, and *pedagog*. While some of these have come into general use, many of them did not get public acceptance. In 1906 a *Simplified Spelling Board* emerged in the United States which aimed at publishing 300 words, for which different spellings were used e.g. (*metre*, *meter*, *judgment*, *judgement*, *encyclopeadia*, *encyclopedia* etc.) and to recommend the simpler form. Again this was not well received. The print media and book publishers continued to use the traditional spelling.

Though these Reform attempts did not achieve much result, they indeed stimulated public interest to the need to achieve a permanent solution to the spelling problem. But most people believed that a radical change of spelling would not favour many people who were already used to the traditional spelling. And to many people the written word is as important as the spoken word. A radical change in spelling would certainly affect meaning to many people. Popular opinion was that if spelling was ever to be reformed, it must be approached gradually.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. Was the idea for Spelling Reform successful?
2. What was the popular attitude towards the Spelling Reform?

3.4 Functional Varieties of English

In any community where people use a particular language, there are bound to be differences in speech. Speech variations are often due to levels of education, differences in culture, professions, status and regional backgrounds of people that have come from different places. Also, varieties are due to contexts in which language is used, as in formal or informal, or to varieties influenced by local or class dialects. So it is easy to distinguish between the standard and non-standard varieties. Slang for example is a form of non-standard variety used mostly in informal contexts.

Modern English has developed a lot of varieties, which we can associate with different classes of people or social groups. There is the *spoken standard*, which is the conversational language of educated people. This variety is marked by conformity to the rules of grammar and pronunciation. There is also the *written standard*, which is the language of books and other forms of academic writing. We can distinguish between spoken and written varieties because spoken standard is often used in informal situations and often characterized by words like *trip*, *daddy*, *hols* etc as against the formal written forms - *journey*, *father* and *holiday*. Then we have the *popular standard* of uneducated people which is characterized by slang, pidgin, and coinages. This variety does not generally conform to the rules of correctness. But with the movement of English across the world much of this variety also known as vernacular English has evolved in many second language countries.

In Britain the Spoken Standard is known as *Received Pronunciation* (RP). This standard varies in different parts of English speaking countries. It is the type associated with educated people with a high degree of conformity to rules. It is more of a class variety than regional dialect. Standard variety is determined by its acceptability and intelligibility (i.e. sense or meaningfulness) among speakers of English across the world. In addition to the educated standard, there are regional dialects of English among the English-speaking world. This is discussed in details in Units 16 and 17. In Britain regional dialects of English developed right from the old English. Today we have modern dialects like Welsh, Scot, Irish etc. each having its several sub-regional varieties, like British English, English English, BBC English, Norn, Scottish English, Welsh English etc.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

1. Can you identify the differences between written and spoken English?
2. Why do we say that a variety of English is Standard and another non-standard?
3. What is the difference between social dialect and regional dialect?

4.0 CONCLUSION

We can see that Modern English is characterized by further enlargement of its vocabulary through different sources. And that old dictionaries became inadequate to meet the needs of modern scholarship, hence, the development of the Oxford English dictionary. Attempts at spelling Reforms failed because publishers and academics remain loyal to traditional spelling. Modern English is characterized by functional varieties and regional dialects.

5.0 SUMMARY

Sources of new words include borrowings, self-explaining compounds, Greek and Latin elements, prefixes and suffixes, coinages, proper names, slang and old words that assumed new meaning. The Oxford English dictionary was able to provide a more comprehensive inventory of old and new words, as well as idioms in English and provided a guide to their spellings, pronunciation, meanings and usages.

Attempts at a spelling reform failed due to poor response of people to the proposal. Writers and publishers continued to use the traditional spelling. And as English continued to grow, varieties of usages naturally emerged. We can identify distinct spoken and written varieties, standard and non-standard varieties. As it was the case with old English, regional dialects of English became more complex.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe at least five (5) sources of New English Words.
2. Why is a variety of English said to be “non-standard” give examples?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Baugh A.C, and Cable .T. (2001). *A History of the English Language*, 5th Ed. London: Routledge.

Crystal (2002). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of English Language*, 2nd Ed. Cambridge: CUP.

MODULE 4

Unit 1	Varieties of Modern English
Unit 2	English across the World
Unit 3	Reasons for the Growth of English as a World Language
Unit 4	American English
Unit 5	English in Nigeria

UNIT 1 VARIETIES OF MODERN ENGLISH

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Australia; New Zealand; South Africa
3.2	East and West Africa
3.3	South-East Asia and the Pacific
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The English language continued to grow during the modern period both in the enlargement of its vocabulary and in its spread. The first signs of the progress of English as a world language began to manifest towards the latter part of the 16th century. At that time, the number of mother-tongue English speakers in the world was estimated at between five and seven million, all living within Great Britain. In the period between the end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1603) and the beginning of the reign of Queen Elizabeth II (1950), the number of English speakers rose to between one and half billion to two billion, spread throughout almost all the countries of the world. Presently there are approximately 75 territories where English is spoken either as the first language, L1 (mother-tongue) or as an official language, L2 (second language). Countries where English is spoken as a native language (first language) are mainly the UK, USA, Australia, New Zealand and South-Africa.

The dispersals (or diasporas) of English are of two types, first is the first Diaspora involving the migration of about 25,000 people from the South and East of England to America and Australia, resulting in new mother tongue varieties of English. The second Diaspora, involving the colonization of Africa and Asia, led to the development of a number of

second language varieties, often referred to as “New Englishes” a table of statistics on world English usage and the country population figures is given in Unit 2 of Module 4. In this unit we shall be considering varieties of English in Australia, New Zealand, Africa and Asia.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- describe the features of Australian and New Zealand English
- distinguish between South African English and some varieties of English in West Africa
- identify some general features of English in south-east Asia i.e., Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines, and Hong Kong.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 English in Australia, New Zealand and South Africa

(a) English in Australia

You were told in the introduction to this Unit that English came to Australia when some English immigrants landed in Australia and America in the 18th century. The first presence of Britain in Australia was in 1770 when James Cook visited the territory. In 1788 the first fleet of British settlers including about 130,020 prisoners settled in Sidney, Australia. From then on immigrants increased rapidly. By 1850 the population of Australia had risen to about 400,000 and by 1900, nearly 4 million. As at 2001, the population stood at 19million. Britain has the highest number of settlers in Australia that is why they have the greater influence on the language than any other. Many of the convicts or prisoners transported to Australia were from London, and Ireland.

English in Australia is not only characterized by differences in vocabulary but also in pronunciation, with features of Cockney and Irish English. In fact, many of the words in Australian English may not be understood in England or America today. Some are old words that have acquired new meanings in a new environment. The Australian *Kangaroo* and *boomerang* for example have become general English words but not *Wombat* which is an Australian animal. The American *ranch* (where cattle are reared) is the Australian *station*. The term *robin* in Australia applies to some birds that are unknown in Europe and not just a particular bird as we know it here. Several words however that are thought to be Australian actually started in Britain, and may still be heard in local British dialects. Australian accent as we said earlier sounds very much like one of the British dialects known as Cockney,

especially in the quality of the vowels and diphthongs. A word pronounced as *hay* in Australian English may sound as *high* to an American, or *basin* as *bison* (Baugh & Cable 2002).

(b) English in New Zealand

New Zealand and Australia are neighbours. The New Zealand natives are called the *Maori*. With the British presence in Australia in 1770, European traders began to settle in New Zealand in the 1790s. Christian missionary work began among the Maori from 1814. But official British occupation was in 1840 following the treaty of Waitangi between the Maori chiefs and the British crown. European immigration grew from 2000 in 1840 to 25,000 by 1850. And by 1900, it had risen to about 750,000. The total population as at 2001 was 3.8 million. Three factors in the New Zealand social history have had some linguistic consequences in New Zealand English in the 20th century. First is that New Zealand has had a stronger sense of historical relationship with Britain compared to Australia. They had imbibed more of British cultures and values, including the British accent. Secondly, New Zealand had developed a deep sense of national identity which had motivated a distinctive New Zealand vocabulary and thirdly, there has been an increase awareness and use of Maori words in New Zealand English arising from the need to recognize the rights of Maori people who constitute about 13% of the entire population.

Studies in New Zealand English show that the British Received Pronunciation (RP) is still the most highly rated in education while the local accent is more preferred in social communication and solidarity.

(c) South African English

South Africa was colonized by the Dutch in 1650's but the British arrived the country at about 1795 when they colonized the Cape coast, and did not begin to settle in large numbers until 1820. The majority of the Cape settlers came from Southern England, though there were some sizeable number from Ireland and Scotland. In the 1850 further settlements occurred in the Natal region, from Yorkshire and Lancaster, still in Britain. From 1822 when English was declared the official language, it was also learnt as a second language by the black natives. The native language is called *Afrikaans*. The English language vocabulary has got some elements from Afrikaans and Dutch influences which are passed to general use today. For example, *apartheid*, *commando*, *commandeer*, and *trek* are used today in such a way that one hardly recognizes their South African origin. As in Australian English a number of English words are used in new senses. The history of apartheid in South Africa has given new meanings to *location* (where

black Africans were required to live) *lands* (those locations required for farming alone), divide (water shade) up country etc. In pronunciation, the South African English has been much influenced by the pronunciation of Afrikaans, where we have ‘pen’ for *pin* or ‘ceb’ for *cab*. The South African shares with the American English in some general ways especially with pronunciation of /r/. The mainstream South Africa English however, does not have /r/ after vowels but this consonant is often pronounced by speakers with an Afrikaans back ground. The South African variety of English refers to English used by those who speak English as their mother tongue.

SELFASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Distinguish between the Australian English and the New Zealand English.
2. Describe some features of South African English.

3.2 East and West Africa

(a) English in East Africa

East African countries were colonized by the British from the 1850s, following the expeditions of British explorers such as David Livingstone and Richard Burton. English was the language of administration, education and law. Most of the countries gained independence from the early 1960s but English remained the official language in Uganda, Zambia, Malawi, and Kenya although Swahili was used as *lingua franca* in Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. Because of the large numbers of British emigrants that settled in these areas, British English model was introduced early in schools, re-enforcing the Standard English brought by the missionaries. The result was a mother-tongue variety which was similar to the Australian or South-African English. The influence of British English in East African countries gave them a strong model to learn a second language. Secondly there was little motivation for the development of pidgin varieties following the widespread of Standard English. It may be difficult to discuss some distinct features of the varieties of English that may have emerged in these countries over the years in this short sub-heading. But Baugh and Cable (2002) have observed certain general features of lexis and grammar in some of these East African countries including Kenya, Tanzania Uganda, Malawi and Ethiopia which are quite noticeable. For example, some phrasal verbs in British lose their adverbial particles; *pick up* for instance is simply ‘pick’, *drop off* is used as ‘drop’ while *crop up* is simply ‘crop’. Some nouns in Kenyan and Tanzanian colloquial speech have some plural forms that are treated as Singulars; e.g. *behaviours*, *minds*, *laps*, *noses*, and *popcorns*.

(b) English in West Africa

English in West Africa is linked with colonization and slave trade and the development of pidgin and Creole languages. From the late 15th century upwards British traders had visited various coastal areas in West Africa including Nigeria, Ghana, Gambia, Sierra Leone and Cameroon. There were no strong British settlements in these territories, but with British colonial administration, English became the lingua franca (or the official language), in these countries. Pidgin and creoles which developed from English contact were now spoken by many people along with hundreds of local languages. Right now the English spoken by many of these countries have developed certain features which make it possible to identify such varieties of *Nigerian English*, *Ghanaian English* or *Gambian English*. However it is difficult to say whether some features that are distinct to some countries are also available in others. But one thing is clear; distinct features of these varieties can be found mainly on the amount of loan-words from local languages and some coinages that identify national institutions and practices. But in many cases standard West African English varieties are similar to British Standard English especially in grammar and speech sounds. And standard is also to be found in the lexicon except in cases where English words assume new meanings to reflect the local context. Interestingly some words are used in two or three countries mentioned above, with exactly the same form and meaning examples are ‘chop’, meaning food in Sierra Leone, Ghana, and The Gambia. In the Nigerian pidgin it is also used as *eat* (verb). *Kola* is used as fruit for stimulant, traditional symbol of unity, and bribery, especially in Ghana and Nigeria. *Stranger* is used for guest in Sierra Leone and in non-standard Nigeria English. Aunt (aunt) is used to address any woman older than you are, or a friend of your parent in Nigeria. Danfo (minibus), globe (bulb), machine/okada (motor-cycle), yellow-fever (traffic warden) cash-madam (wealthy woman), area-boys (street urchins), go-slow (traffic jam) in Nigeria; rentage (rent) in Sierra Leone; slowly-slowly in Ghana etc. All these comparisons show us that countries have developed full-fledged varieties that explain the influence of the environment and culture on the language. However it will be difficult to identify particular West African standard varieties since varieties differ from country to country. We shall look more closely at the Nigerian English in Unit 5 of Module 4.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Describe the differences between East African English and West African English.
2. Do you agree that there is a West African Variety of English?

3.3 English in South-East Asia and the Pacific

Countries in this region include Brunei, Cambodia, Fiji Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. But we shall briefly look at some varieties of English in Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines, and Hong Kong.

(a) English in Singapore

Singapore was a part of Malaysia which was a British colony from the early 19th century until 1957 when it gained its independence. Singapore became a separate state two years later and has experienced some economic and social growth during the 20th century. English was an important language of government business and education. It was in the 1950s that a bilingual educational system was introduced and English was used as a neutral, unifying language alongside local languages such as Chinese, Malay, Tamil and Mandarin. Since 1975 the use of English in Singapore has increased steadily among the general population. However key government bodies, including the founder of the independent state of Singapore, Lee Kuan Yew had expressed concern over the loss of Asian cultures and values and had begun to promote the use of local languages, especially Mandarin, a popular local language. The majority of the Singaporean population is Chinese while Malays are their natural neighbours. This different cultural settings no doubt affected the history of English in the region. Due to the widespread interest in the English language, it may not be surprising that a local variety, which may be called Singaporean English, has emerged. According to Baugh and Cable (2002), some specific features of English in Singapore and Malaysia resemble some English-based Creole or vernacular in other parts of the world. For example the omission of *be* as an operator e.g. 'the man-healthy,' omitting *is* or as an auxiliary (the work - going on fine; instead of 'the work is going on fine'). No doubt lexical items that do not have direct English equivalents would have found their way into the Singaporean English; there may also have been some direct borrowings from the local languages.

(b) English in Malaysia

The situation is different in Malaysia following the Malaysian independence in 1957. The local language Bahasa Malaysia was adopted as the national language and the use of English declined. By the middle of the 1980's the local national language had helped in unifying the different ethnic population but it had also restricted many Malaysians from reading English or scientific publications. There are about 80 languages spoken in Malaysia. English is still being offered at school and the traditional prestige attached to it still exists, but its use is more

for international purpose rather than national. The users are mainly the educated elite who often code switch between English and Malay. The presence of the vocabulary of Malay in English is gradually becoming a feature of Malaysian English. Like the Singaporean English, Malaysian English grammar is slightly different from that of the Standard English. A Malaysian would say: *may I know how do I get there?* Rather than *May I know how to get there;* or *May I ask where does the cab stop?* Than *May I ask where the cab stops* etc.

(c) **Hong Kong English**

We are singling out Hong Kong from among its East Asian neighbours like China, Japan, Korea, and Taiwan because it is a country where English is an official language due to its colonial history. Chinese is the mother-tongue of over 98% of the population. In recent years however, say 1992, it was estimated that about a quarter of the population speak English. English and Chinese have joint official status but Chinese predominates in most speech situations, often with code-switching. During the British colonial administrations, from 1847 till 1997, British and Chinese communities led separate lives due to language barriers, racial prejudice and cultural differences. When they made business contacts communications was mainly in Pidgin English. During this period English was largely restricted to colonial use as the language of government, law and education. But during the 20th century, Western-educated Chinese elite began to get involved in business and the professions, and English ceased to be colonial language to a language of wider communication in Hong Kong regions.

However, Hong Kong English has not yet been accepted as an autonomous variety of English. Its existence is acknowledged but it is not a variety which the Hong Kong English speakers will aspire. As a result, majority of speakers including English teachers still recommend British English as the Standard in terms of grammar. Like other varieties of modern English the Hong Kong English has its peculiar accent, and lexis. Bolton (2000) for example provides some Hong Kong English items such as abbreviations; English words with new meaning and borrowed words from Chinese. *ABC* for instance stands for (Australian/American-born-Chinese); *canto-speak* (speaker of the Cantonese language), *astronaut* (a senior public servant), *bo lei* (a variety of strong black tea) *big brother* an eldest male sibling in a family; *chit* (bill) etc. (See Jenkins, 2003).

(d) **English in The Philippines**

The Philippines gained political independence from the United States in 1946 and has retained a strong influence of the American

English. English is the second language of the Philippines, while Filipino is the official Lingual Franca. Both English and Filipino are the language of education, but English serves as the language of wider communication.

The Philippines English variety has been identified since the late 1980, with its peculiar pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. A considerable difference also exists between the English of the older and younger generations, along with variations in use among proficient English users ranging from informal usage to standard Philippines English for speech and writing (with code switching). Code switching is when a speaker switches between two languages at once. About 37 million people in Philippines speak English with same reasonable level of competence.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. Describe some general features of English in South-East Asia.
2. Compare and contrast English in Malaysia with English in Singapore.
3. Identify some features of Hong Kong English.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The spread of English as a result of the migration of native speakers of English from England to the Australia and the New World (USA) gave rise to emergence of new mother-tongue varieties of English. While the British colonization of Asia and Africa resulted in the growth of new modern Englishes. In South East Asia and Africa, English has assumed the status of second language with a considerable number of the population having recognizable skills in spoken and written English. English in these countries has since developed native varieties which form the world Englishes.

5.0 SUMMARY

The growth of English as a world language can be seen from the rapidly growing varieties of English across the world, with the number of speakers having reached over 2 billion in the 20th century. Countries where English is the mother-tongue are Britain, USA, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. English in East and West Africa, South- East Asia and the Pacific serves as the official or national language. All the varieties of English (native and non-native) have their peculiar features ranging from differences in accent and pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. This is due to differences in environments, cultures and experience.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Why is the British linguistic culture more evident in the New Zealand English than in Australian English?
2. Compare and contrast between English in East and West Africa with English in South-East Asia?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 2 ENGLISH ACROSS THE WORLD

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 South Africa
 - 3.2 The Caribbean
 - 3.3 Canada
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This Unit is a continuation of Unit 1 of Module 4 in which we began to examine the spread of the English language across the world with distinct modern second language varieties known as “new Englishes.” In the previous unit we saw the varieties of English in South-East Asia and the Pacific Islands, specifically Malaysia, Singapore, the Philippines and Hong Kong. In this Unit we shall be examining the South Asian variety of English, alongside Canada and the Caribbean. We are interested in some specific countries because of the direct British influence through colonization.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- describe some general features of south-Asian English
- distinguish between Canadian English and Caribbean English.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 English in South-Asia

South Asian English refers to varieties in Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Together they account for about a fifth of the world population. Within this group only Indian and Lankan Englishes are well developed and well documented. We shall concentrate only on Indian English. Unlike Bangladesh and Pakistan where English is used mainly for official purposes, English in **India** performs a neutral unifying role like in Nigeria, serving as a language of communication across a people of diverse cultures. India was colonized by Britain from

1765 until independence in 1947. During this period English was the language of administration and education. The earliest English language policy was contained in Macaulay's famous 'minute' passed shortly after his arrival in Calcutta as the British head of the Indian Supreme Council in 1834. Thomas Macaulay served in India as the British Representative for four years. His 'minute' (i.e. bill) presented the case for a new English subculture in the region. When the Universities of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras were founded in 1857, English became the primary medium of instruction thereby establishing its status and steady growth during the next century. Today English in India performs both public and private functions in a variety that has developed its own sound system, grammatical structure and vocabulary. English is recognised as the next official language after Hindi following the 1950 Constitution of India which declared Hindi the official national language, and English was made the 'associate' official language by the 1967 Official Language (Amendment) Act. This means that English would continue to be used alongside Hindi in all official matters at the national level.

In adapting to local cultures and environment, Indian English has evolved its own characteristics through the interaction of Indian languages and social behaviours with those of English. For speakers of Hindi for instance, English words that begin with *sk*, *st* or *sp* is usually pronounced with an initial vowel, since Hindi does not permit, *sk* or *st* at the beginning of words. So an Hindi speaker would pronounce a word like 'standard' – 'istandard'; 'skim' would be 'iskim'. And in some varieties of Indian English /v/ and /w/ sounds are not usually differentiated. Words like 'vet' and 'wet' for instance would sound the same way. Greetings and remarks showing politeness in English are something like *kindly please advise me; invite your kind attention; bow my forehead; blessed my hovel with the good dust of your feet* etc. Modes of address are often like *king of pearls; policewala* etc. Compliments include *helloji, thank youji, doctorji* etc. The additional suffix is probably an item from the Hindi. (See Baugh & Cable 2002; Jenkins, 2003). Indian English is also characterised by a great deal of code switching or code mixing.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Describe some features of Indian English.
2. Why is the Indian variety of English more developed than those of Bangladesh and Pakistan?

3.2 Caribbean English

English in the Caribbean countries like Jamaica, Barbados, Trinidad and Tobago, Cuba, Haiti etc. are characterised by the use of Pidgin and the English based Creole. Creole is pidgin that has native speakers with fairly stable features. Creole like pidgin is a combination of an European language (e.g. English) and other languages. In most of the Anglophone Caribbean islands, the language contacts are those of West Africa and the African languages spoken by the slaves brought to the Caribbean during the slave trade. Rather than describe this variety as “English Creole” some scholars prefer to describe it as “Caribbean Creole” or West Indian Creole.

However a variety of Standard English exists in the Caribbean countries as an official means of communication among the educated minority. The American variety of English is preferred even by the mass media due to an increasing influence of USA in the local economies. Each of the English-speaking countries in the region has to some extent developed its own variety of standard language through variations in accent and vocabulary to reflect indigenous cultural practices. Some of these English-based varieties show some contact with other languages such as French, Spanish, Portuguese and Dutch. But it is clear that the varieties of the Caribbean have much in common due to the shared history and linguistic heritage of the people. No wonder, the concept of Standard West Indian English has begun to emerge.

A shared feature of Caribbean English is the West Indian accent which sounds much like the West African tone language feature. Syllables tend to be equally stressed. Consequently, unstressed syllables in most English accents are given prominence. The schwa /ə/ is usually stressed so that a word like *Peter* /pitə/ would sound like /pi:ta/; *bigger* /biga/; *photo* /fəto/ will sound like /foto/ etc. This often causes intelligibility problem with those not familiar with the style of speech. Vowels like /a/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/ merge, so that words like *God*, *pot* and *caught* are pronounced the same. Words like *teeth* are pronounced /tit/, *father* /fada/ and *think* /tink/.

There are few prominent differences in grammar in the standard varieties of Caribbean English but some features mark them off as Creole English. An example is the problem with differentiating between the uses of *will* and *would*, *shall* and *should* etc. which is a problem common with most learners of English in West African countries. The Caribbean English however has added some new vocabulary to Standard English. Most of these loan words reflect the Caribbean environment, the people's traditional behaviour and religious customs. Those that have entered into Standard English include *reggae*, *calypso*, *dreadlocks*,

Rasta, etc. Some of the words are restricted to the regions they belong. Words like *duppy* (ghost) *ganja* (weed) *susumba* (a type of plant), *watchy* (watchman) belongs to Jamaican English while words like *boar-hog* (boar) *roti* (a type of bread), and *congolala* (a type of medicinal plant) are found in Trinidad and Tobago English. A large number of words in Caribbean English can also be traced to African languages.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Describe some general features of Caribbean English.
2. Identify at least five (5) words that Caribbean English has contributed to Standard English.

3.3 English in Canada

Earlier settlers in Canada were from the United States, so the American English has had the strongest influence in Canadian English. However, features of British pronunciation and spelling are observable on the Canadian variety. English and French are the two official languages in Canada, again creating a possible influence between the two languages. Both British and American English no doubt have supplied Canadian English with features with American influence dominating. The use of linguistic features from British English (BrE) or American (AmE) however varies from person to person depending on age, education, sex, occupation and location. For instance the AmE is more popular with young people throughout Canada than with elderly people. Some features originate in Canada and are peculiarly Canadian, while some are BrE, AmE and French. Words like *aboiteau* (dam), *creditiste* (member of the Social Credit Party), *salt-chuck* (ocean), *skookum* (powerful) etc. are Canadian. A word like *Prime Minister* is used at the federal level while *Premier* is regional. Some cultural or political institutions in Quebec for example are called *bloc Quebecois* or *Caisse Populaire*, which are words of French origin. Canadian English (CaE) spelling incorporates both British and American. The British 'tyre' is often spelt 'tire' in CaE while the American 'center' is spelt the British 'centre,' showing that CaE cannot be identified completely with either the AmE or BrE. Similarly, both AmE and BrE varieties provide sources of vocabulary to the CaE. The British *tap* (AmE faucet), *railway* (AmE railroad), AmE *gas* (BrE Petrol), *sidewalk* (BrE pavement) etc are used side by side though usages vary from place to place. Pronunciation lean more towards the British model. However, some general impression about English in Canada is that one hardly differentiates between what is Canadian and what is American.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. Describe the Canadian English.
2. Why does the American variety tend to have the greater influence on the Canadian English?

4.0 CONCLUSION

English in South Asian countries, together with West Indian English is among modern varieties of English known as new world Englishes. English became the official of these regions through British colonial influences in Asia, and the slave trade in Africa between the 16th and 19th centuries. The American earliest settlement in Canada contributed a great deal to the influence of the American English on the Canadian English.

5.0 SUMMARY

Among the South Asian Countries, India and Sri Lanka have the most developed and documented varieties of new world Englishes. India's long history of British Colonial influence gave it a strong backing to adopt a national language policy that favoured the growth and spread of English in the country. Today about 350 million Indians speak English as their first language.

Though a variety of Standard English exists in the Caribbean as the official medium of communication among a few educated people, the Caribbean English is more of English-based Pidgin and Creole. All the Caribbean varieties share a common feature of pronunciation but different use of vocabularies, which serves as a pointer to the region that supplies some particular words. The Caribbean English is significantly influenced by languages of the West coast of Africa including Hausa, Efik, Igbo, Yoruba and Twi. Lastly, you have seen that Canadian English is largely influenced by the American English, British English and French. However some lexical items are peculiarly Canadian.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe some general features of the Indian English.
2. Differentiate between the Caribbean English and the Canadian English.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 3 THE GROWTH OF ENGLISH AS A WORLD LANGUAGE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Reasons for the Growth of English as a World Language
 - 3.2 Data of World English
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 4 of Module 3, we looked at some influences on Modern English. And in that study, we identified the contributions of Science and Medicine, Information Technology, Engineering and the Mass Media to the enrichment of the English vocabulary. In this unit we shall consider how some of these factors among others have aided the growth and spread of English as a world language. In the last two units, we saw how English moved from its native shores in Britain with about seven million speakers in the early part of the 17th century to almost every part of the world with more than 2 billion speakers, most of the speakers being those whom English is not their mother tongue. In most of the countries where English functions as a second official language, different standard and non-standard varieties have developed with features that are peculiar to regions and cultural practices. What reasons are responsible for this astronomical growth of the English Language? We shall attempt to answer this question in this unit. We shall also provide a data showing the state of World English in terms of the countries and number of speakers as at 2001.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss factors that are responsible for the growth of English as a world language
- suggest what the future of English may look like.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Reasons for the Growth of English as a World Language

The dispersal of English around the world can be linked with some factors, the most important ones being the expansion of British colonial powers and the emergence of the USA as a leading economic power of the 20th century. Let us look at them more closely:

(a) British Colonial Influences

The movement of English around the world began with the British colonial powers in America, Asia and Africa. English was essentially the language of administration, law, education and religion. In most of the colonies, English was made compulsory in school and became a major requirement for social advancement or privileges. Individuals had no choice but learn English if they wanted to make any social progress. Upon the attainment of independence the 20th century many of the former British colonies adopted English as their official or semi-official language. English is now represented in all the continents of the world in over 70 territories.

(b) Emergence of the United States as a World Economic Power

The USA's ever rising and dominant economic position in the world acts as a major attraction to international trade and allied businesses. Individuals and organizations wishing to conduct business or develop international links with the USA are thus under considerable pressure to either learn English or work with it. Tourism and advertising for instance are particularly dependent on English while any multi-national business would want to establish offices in major English-speaking countries and particularly in the United States.

(c) Internal Political Reasons

Whether a country had been a former British colony or not, it is clear that English may have a role in providing a neutral means of communication, among its different ethnic groups. A distinctive local variety may stand as a symbol of national unity.

(d) Some Practical Reasons

English is the language of international air traffic control, policing and emergency services. It is the major language of international business and academic conferences and the leading language of international tourism.

(e) Language of the United Nations (UN)

English is an official language of the UN, before French. Most businesses of the UN or its Agencies are conducted in English, and member countries of the UN are again under pressure to learn English.

(f) Intellectual Reasons

Because of its versatile nature, English has become the language of science and technology, which is able to transmit scientific and educational information across the world. Over 80% of all information which is stored in electronic (computer) retrieval systems is in English. Scholars, who wish to have access to information relating to the arts, philosophy, religion, literature or history at a global level, do so through the medium of English. In most parts of the world, the only way by which people have access to classical writing on a range of subjects is to look for their English translations.

(g) The Language of International Media Communication

English is the main language of Satellite Broadcasting. International news on CNN, BBC or VOA is transmitted in English and the influence of international communication on the local mass media is a very strong one. English has become the language of local newspapers, televisions, radio and advertising in many countries of the world.

(h) The Language of Entertainment

English is the main language of popular music and performing arts. It is also the language of home computers, video games and entertainment programmes in the mass media.

These reasons and many others which you may be familiar with are very strong in propelling English to its present status of a world language.

3.2 World English

Country	Pop (2001)	Total L1	Total L2
American Samoa	67,000	2,000	65,000
Australia	18,972,000	14,987,000	3,500,000
Bahamas	298,000	260,000	28,000
Bangladesh	131,270,000		3,500,000
Barbados	275,000	262,000	13,000
Bermuda	63,000	63,000	
Botswana	1,586,000		630,000
British Virgin Is.	20,800	20,000	
Brunei	344,000	10,000	134,000
Cameroon	15,900,000		7,700,000
Canada	31,600,000	20,000,000	7,000,000
Dominica	70,000	3,000	60,000
Fiji	850,000	6,000	170,000
Gambia	1,411,000		40,000
Gibraltar	31,000	28,000	2,000
Grenada	100,000	100,000	
Guyana	700,000	650,000	30,000
Hong Kong	7,210,000	150,000	2,200,000
India	1,029,991,000	350,000	200,000,000
Ireland	3,850,000	3,750,000	100,000
Jamaica	2,665,000	2,600,000	50,000
Kenya	30,766,000		2,700,000
Lesotho	2,177,000		500,000
Liberia	3,226,000	600,000	2,500,000
Malawi	10,548,000		540,000
Malaysia	22,230,000	380,000	7,000,000
Malta	395,000	13,000	95,000
Mauritius	1,190,000	2,000	200,000
Namibia	1,800,000	14,000	300,000
New Zealand	3,864,000	3,700,000	150,000
Nigeria	126,636,000		60,000,000
Pakistan	145,000,000		17,000,000
Papua New Guinea	5,000,000	150,000	3,000,000
Philippines	83,000,000	20,000	40,000,000
Puerto Rico	3,937,000	100,000	1,840,000
Rwanda	7,313,000		20,000
St. Lucia	158,000	31,000	40,000
Samoa	180,000	1,000	93,000
Seychelles	80,000	3,000	30,000
Sierra Leone	5,427,000	500,000	4,400,000
Singapore	4,300,000	350,000	2,000,000

South Africa	43,586,000	3,700,000	10,000,000
Sri Lanka	19,400,000	10,000	1,900,000
Suriname	434,000	260,000	150,000
Swaziland	1,140,000		50,000
Tanzania	36,232,000		4,000,000
Trinidad & Tobago	1,170,000	1,145,000	
Uganda	23,986,000		2,500,000
United Kingdom	59,648,000	58,100,000	1,500,000
United States	278,059,000	215,424,000	25,600,000
Zambia	9,770,000	110,000	1,800,000
Zimbabwe	11,365,000	25,000	15,000

Source: Crystal (2002)

* L1 stands for speakers of English as their first language

* L2 stands for speakers of English as their second language

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion therefore, we can say that English did not just jump into its present world prominence. Historical, political, economic and intellectual reasons have been responsible. But you may ask, what is the future of English? Is it still going to remain a world language in the next one hundred years? Some scholars have tried to suggest answers by trying to answer the question of what makes a language a world language (as we have discussed above) and what had been responsible for the decline of previous world languages like Latin or French.

Rather than decline, some scholars are optimistic that English will develop a larger number of local varieties across the world because presently, English has shifted from being a foreign language of many countries to being a second language. And more people are learning English almost on a daily basis. In many countries, English language programmes are run in schools and institutions of higher learning. And as it continues to serve as a main medium of international communication, it is likely to sustain greater mutual intelligibility and common standards. And because it encourages the development of local varieties, it may continue to act as a language of identify for many people across the world. Other factors such as number of young speakers and the rate of urbanization in different countries, the rate of development in countries, such as literacy and education provision, the population of native speakers who are literate and capable generating intellectual resources in English must also be considered in order to be sure that English will retain its present world status.

5.0 SUMMARY

English is a world language today because of its historical advantage as a colonial language. And being the first language of the USA, again due to British influence, the rise in the status of the country as the world leading economic power, has naturally promoted the growth of the language. English is the language of international communication and education; science and technology, and general knowledge. It is also the language of the United Nations, the language of air traffic control, policing, advertising and entertainment.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss five (5) factors that are responsible for the growth of English as a world language.
2. Do you think English will remain a world language in the next 50 years?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 4 AMERICAN ENGLISH

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 English in America
 - 3.2 Features of the American English (AmE)
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We have already noted in Unit 3 of Module 4 that the rise of the United States of America as a world social and economic power is one of the primary factors that gave the English language its present status as a world language. And the American English (AmE) being one of the new mother tongue varieties that has had some influence on a number of world Englishes, it is important to look more closely at its features. First, you will be introduced to how English came to America to begin with and how it developed features that distinguish it from the British English (BrE).

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- narrate briefly the history of the American English
- describe the features of the AmE
- distinguish between the AmE and British English (BrE).

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 English in America

The first British expedition to America was in 1584 led by Walter Raleigh. The explorers came from the west and east of England and landed in North Carolina, near Roanoke Island. This group of explorers could not settle permanently there due to some conflict with the native Indian population. However they came back and eventually settled permanently in 1607 at Chesapeake Bay and called their settlement Jamestown (after James 1). The area where they occupied they named Virginia (after the “virgin Queen” Elizabeth). Subsequent settlements

followed. In 1620 some missionaries arrived but being unable to reach Virginia, they landed further north and settled at what is now known as Plymouth, Massachusetts in New England. Both settlements spread rapidly and attracted other immigrants. Because of the different linguistic backgrounds of these people, certain differences in their accents of the English language became glaring. The settlers in Virginia came from the west of England spoke their peculiar accent with its voicing of 'r' and 's' after vowels. So that in a word like 'far', the 'r' sounds. Those that settled in Massachusetts were mainly from the east of England and did not have this accent.

During the 17th century more immigrants, with English backgrounds came to America and settled in places like Pennsylvania and New York, thus people speaking various varieties of English began to live side by side. During this period too, slave trade flourished and slaves were transported from West Africa to the United States and the Caribbean. The Englishes that developed among the slaves were initially pidgin, but with their use as mother tongue following the birth of a new generation, Creole developed. In the 18th century there was a mass migration of people from Ireland to America which started from 1600. Many of them settled in the coastal areas of Philadelphia and southern part of California. By the time of American independence in 1776 about 15% of the population was Scot Irish. The accent that emerged is mostly associated with the present-day American speech.

The Quest for Growth of the American English

The growth of English and literary culture in America was not as rapid as it was in England. America was intellectually dependent on Britain and American presses were said to be printing and publishing mainly British books and magazines. American scholars began to feel that the dearth of books by recognized American writers was responsible for the lack of lexical growth of the American English. Thousands of new words were being created all over America but they were not reaching the wider population through literatures. So the issue of language development which had preoccupied British intellectuals during the 18th century was to engage the attention of American scholars in the 19th century. Noah Webster was one of such scholars. He wrote the *Dissertations on the English* (1789) and proposed the institution of "American Standard" and argued that as a newly independent nation, America deserved an independent system, including language. Spelling reform was to be a major step in this direction which would mark a distinct American orthography. Webster himself did not implement a radical spelling reform in his *A Compendious Dictionary of the English Language* (1806) but it was a great achievement which took the development of the American English to a new unique level. A vast

variety of innovations began to appear in the emerging literary works of Americans of the 19th century. By 1860's the American spelling system had become fully established. Not only in spelling, some grammatical forms and vocabulary which could be identified as clearly American began to emerge as well.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Explain the process of the movement of English to the American soil.
2. Discuss the contributions of Noah Webster to the development of the American English.

3.2 Features of the American English

In order to properly see the extent of deviation or difference from the British English, we shall look at the uniqueness of the AmE by comparing it with the BrE. And we shall do this at the levels of spelling, vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. The list of examples we shall provide is in no wide exhaustive.

(i) Differences in Spelling

AmE (<i>or</i>)	BrE (<i>our</i>)
color	colour
favor	favour
honor	honour etc.
(<i>dgment</i>)	(<i>dgement</i>)
acknowledgment	acknowledgement
judgment	judgement etc.
(<i>o</i>)	(<i>ou</i>)
mold	mould
smolder	smoulder etc
(<i>er</i>)	(<i>re</i>)
center	centre
liter	litre
theater	theatre etc

<i>(e)</i>	<i>(ae/oe)</i>
fetus	foetus
medieval	mediaeval
maneuver	manoeuvre
<i>(se)</i>	<i>(ce)</i>
defense	defence
license	licence
offense	offence
<i>(in)</i>	<i>(en)</i>
indorse	endorse
insure	ensure etc
<i>(single consonant)</i>	<i>(double consonants)</i>
counselor	counsellor
libelous	libellous
quarreling	quarelling
<i>(double consonants)</i>	<i>(single consonant)</i>
fulfillment	fulfilment
installment	instalement
skillful	skilful

Others Spelling Differences

Check	cheque
Draft	draught
Gage	gauge
Mustache	moustache
Plow	plough
Program	programme
Story	storey
Sulfur	sulphur
Tire	tyre
Whisky	whiskey etc.

Differences in Vocabulary

AmE	BrE
Faucet	tap
Muffler	silencer
Candy	sweets
Driver's license	driving license
Generator	dynamo
Zero	nought, nil
Line	queue
To ring	to call
Game	match
Soccer	football
Gas	petrol
Airplane	aeroplane
Casket	coffin
Cookie	biscuit
Corn	maize
Diaper	nappy
Drapes	curtains
Bookstore	bookshop
Living room	sitting room
Smock	overall
Bill	bank note
Flash light	touch tight
Headlamp	headlight
Candidature	candidacy
Centennial	centenary
Cook	cookery
Racist, racism	racialist, racialism
Transportation	transport etc.

Differences in Grammar

AmE	BrE
I'll see you at the weekend	I'll see you during the weekend
It's twenty after four	it's twenty past four
I haven't seen her in ages	I haven't seen her for ages
Monday through Friday	Monday to Friday inclusive
Sundays we go to church	On Sundays we go to church
I looked out the window	I looked out of the window
Half the cash goes for clothes	Half the cash goes on clothes
They live on Broad street	They live in Broad street
I moved toward the car	I moved towards the car
Do you have the time?	Have you got the time?

The house was burned down	The house was burnt down
It's a half hour	It's half an hour
We shall see in the future	We shall see in future
She is still in the hospital	She is still in hospital
The government is democratic	The government are democratic
I'll go momentarily	I'll go in a moment
I feel real good	I feel really good etc.

Differences in Pronunciation

<i>Item</i>	<i>AmE</i>	<i>BrE (RP)</i>
Asthma	'azma	'asma
Chassis	tʃasi:s	'ʃasi:s
Clerk	klɜrk	kla:k
Clique	klik	kli:k
Data	deɪtə	da:tə
Leisure	'lɪzə	'lezə
Medicine	'medɪsɪn	'medsɪn
Erase	i'reɪs	i'reɪz
Missile	'mɪsəl	'mɪsəl
Lieutenant	lu:'tenənt	lef'tenənt
Schedule	'skedʒuəl	'ʃedʒu:l
Z	zi:	zed etc.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Describe some features of American grammar.
2. Different between AmE spelling from BrE spelling.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The Americans have established for themselves a language culture and uniqueness that is peculiar to their environment. It is one mother tongue variety of the English that has influenced other varieties including the Canadian and the British English itself. Today the AmE is noticeable in many new Englishes in Asia, and Africa.

5.0 SUMMARY

English came to America in the 17th century following the first British settlement in Virginia in 1620. Some later groups landed in Massachusetts, Philadelphia, New York and some other parts of the United States. English was then established as the colonial language of administration and social communication. Different settlers with different linguistic backgrounds also meant distinct varieties and accents

of English. Pidgin and Creole developed in Caribbean following the transportation of black slaves to the new world. This was the beginning of new Englishes in the United States. Concern for linguistic and literary development was rather slow in America. With the scholarly efforts and writings of American scholars like Noah Webster, a new-awakening for purely American linguistic identity was born. America had obtained its political independence in 1776, and this new feeling and hunger for a new nation aided the emergence of what is today known as American English. The uniqueness of the American variety can be seen in its distinct spelling, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Compare and contrast the American English spelling with that of the British.
2. Write at least fifteen (15) words that are American and give their British equivalents.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Crystal (2002). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of English Language*, 2nd Ed. Cambridge: CUP.

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UNIT 5 ENGLISH IN NIGERIA

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 How English Came to Nigeria
 - 3.2 English in Nigeria Today
 - 3.3 Varieties of the Nigerian English
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You will agree with me that the English language in Nigeria today no longer functions as a colonial language. It is rather a neutral language of wider communication among the various ethnic groups and cultures in Nigeria. And as the first official language, it has been the language of political administration, law, education, commerce and industry etc. Because of the multilingual and multicultural nature of the Nigerian society most Nigerian speakers of English operate within a variety of the Nigerian English as the language responds to factors of the environment in which it finds itself. In this unit, we shall briefly consider the history of English in Nigeria,, the emergence of the Nigerian English and varieties of English in Nigeria today.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- narrate briefly the history of English in Nigeria
- explain what is known as the ‘Nigerian English’
- describe the varieties of English in Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 How English Came to Nigeria

English did not come to Nigeria with colonialism; it came before it. Though the exact date was not recorded, historians believe that English was spoken in old Calabar as a result of about 400 years of cultural and trade contact with Europe. In his *Christian Missions in Nigeria* (1965) Ajayi says that English was the only European language spoken by

Calabar traders and that Hope Waddel did find intelligent journals of the affairs of the region in English, as far back as 1767.

Nigeria's earliest contact with Europe particularly the Portuguese was in the 15th century in places like Warri, Brass and Calabar before the slave trade. Communication between the natives and the Portuguese merchants was initially very difficult. The result was an emergence of a Pidgin English which was a mixture of the indigenous language and the Portuguese dialect of the English language. The new pidgin soon became influential and eventually displaced Portuguese as the language of commerce. Further trade contacts with English traders and sea captains made the Pidgin English the chief coastal trade language of the earliest times.

The coming of professional interpreters to Nigeria is another fundamental factor that implanted English in Nigeria. The interpreters or clerks were freed slaves from Monrovia and Freetown. Since they could speak English due to their many years in England, USA and the Caribbean, the abolition of the slave trade in the early 19th century meant a new life for them. Many of them came to Nigeria to work as clerks in government and interpreters between European traders and the indigenous people. Some Nigerian freed slaves in Freetown also came back to their original homes in Lagos, Badagry and Abeokuta and this meant a stronger influence of English in Nigeria.

The abolition of the slave trade in 1807-1808 in Britain and United States forced European slave traders to seek alternative source of trade in the interiors taking the English language further into the rural areas. It was already on record that Mungo Park in 1795 discovered that River Niger flowed eastwards and that trade was possible between the eastern regions and the west.

Missionary activities also contributed to the establishing of English in Nigeria. The coming of Rev. Thomas Freeman to Badagry in 1842, Rev. Hope Waddel of the Church of Scotland to Calabar in 1846 and Rev. Samuel Edgerly and others to Duke Town, Calabar in 1854 began the phase of formal acquisition of English in Nigeria. The missionaries established schools and taught their converts in Standard English. The Church Missionary Society (CMS) founded two schools in Badagry and a station in Abeokuta in 1846. The Methodist Church founded the Methodist Boys High School, Lagos in 1876, while Hope Waddel Institute, Calabar was established in 1895. The first Christian mission was also opened in Zaria in 1902. The English Language was taught in these schools. Samuel Edgerly and Townsend opened the first printing press in Nigeria in 1852. Wherever the missionaries went they taught their converts in English, thus English became the language of

civilization and Christianity. Christian education is therefore an important medium through which Standard English gained access to the local population in the early 19th century.

British interest in Nigeria changed from mere commercial capitalism to outright colonization in 1861 when Lagos was invaded and annexed as a British colony. Subsequent consolidation of the British colonial administration in Nigerian in the years that followed empowered a more organized education and emphasis in the learning of English. In fact government grants to schools then depended largely on the effective learning and teaching of the English Language. People who could write and speak English enjoyed special privileges with regards to jobs and social amenities by the colonial government. English Language became a passport to good living and everyone was invariably forced to learn and spread the language.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. How did English come to Nigeria?
2. What roles did the colonial administration play in establishing English in Nigeria?
3. Discuss the contributions of Christianity to the planting of English in Nigeria.

3.2 English in Nigeria Today

The English language has become part of our social and cultural life. And being a language that easily accommodates new ways of expressing meaning, it has been pulled to different directions by the Nigerian user, who must express meanings that are peculiarly Nigerian. Many times English has had to assume what language scholars call “local flavour” in order to respond appropriately to the Nigerian social environment and multi cultures, especially when there are no English equivalents for local thoughts. This has led to the development of the Nigerian variety of English, known as “Nigerian English” (NE) – the English spoken in Nigeria, by Nigerians and often for Nigerians. Abiodun Adetugbo, a foremost Nigerian Linguist says that NE is “the brand of English spoken by Nigerians, just as American English is that type of English spoken by Americans.” So Nigerian English is one of the new Englishes that has been truly integrated into our socio-cultural system and performs the function of an official language.

There have been series of arguments among Nigerian linguists about what really the features of NE are. But the argument that Nigerian English is a pidgin variety or a non-standard variety of the British

English has been laid to rest, by simply identifying the varieties of English in Nigeria. This is discussed below.

One of the features of Nigerian English according to linguists is that it has restricted registers – you do not have many registers to choose from. Secondly, it is ‘bookish’ in the sense that its lexical forms and grammar are the types you find in books – usually formal, like that of Indian English (See Module 4 unit 2). But we can agree that these forms are part of the influences of the 19th century English novels and also the fact that most Nigerians acquire English from formal classroom situations. Certainly NE is not errors or non-standard English. What may people see as “on-standard” in spoken Nigerian English for example are simply the elements of transfer of some of the features of the mother tongue into English which is characteristic of most primary school leavers and a few educated Nigerians. This brings us to the fact that there is standard Nigerian English and non-standard Nigerian English according to the levels of education and experiences of the speakers. Below are some Adetugbo’s examples of Nigerian English expressions:

NE	BrE
(i) I ride in a bus	I ride on a bus
(ii) I get down from a bus	I get off a bus
(iii) I ask for a lift	I hitch a ride
(iv) Ask from the teacher	Ask the teacher
(v) May I follow you home	May I come home with you
(vi) I will escort you	I’ll see you off
(vii) My wife has taken in	My wife is pregnant
(viii) He is not on seat	He is not immediately available
(ix) Don’t move with bad people	Don’t associate with bad people
(x) She reached here safely	She got here safely
(xi) These are my invitees	These are my guests
(xii) This is my junior brother	This is my younger brother etc.
(xiii) He has long leg	He is a man of great influence

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. What is Nigerian English?
2. What functions does English language perform in Nigeria today?

3.4 Varieties of English in Nigeria

We are using “varieties” in the context of this study to mean “types”. As we already mentioned in the preceding subsection, varieties of a language are bound to develop as long as there are people of different

classes, levels of education, cultures, social exposures and experiences using the language. In Nigeria there are over 400 languages spoken by people of different cultures who have had to learn and speak English. Many of these people speak their mother tongues at home and speak English at work, school or places of business. These people belong to the various social classes and use the brand of English available to them. Some of them are merely primary school leavers, some attended just the secondary school while some never attended any school at all. In the type of English spoken by these people, it is not uncommon to find some element of mother tongue transfers to English, either in the pronunciation of English words or in the choice of words the people use. Some of them simply ignore some rules of grammar. All these gave rise to the different varieties of English we have in Nigeria today. Some Nigerian linguists have identified some varieties of English and classified them in groups. We shall look at three (3) classifications by three linguists. The first one is by Brosnaham who identified four varieties of English in Nigeria.

- (i) The variety spoken by people with no formal education, i.e. the pidgin English
- (ii) The variety spoken by people with only primary education
- (iii) The variety spoken by secondary school leavers, which is marked by some great deal of fluency.
- (iv) The variety spoken by people with university or high education

The next one is by Ayo Banjo. He also identified four varieties namely:

- (i) The variety spoken by semi-illiterate Nigerians and those with elementary school education
- (ii) The variety characterized by fewer negative transfers from mother tongue, intelligible to the great majority and is accepted locally but lacks international intelligibility.
- (iii) The variety spoken by secondary school leavers. This is both nationally and internationally intelligible but has error in pronunciations.
- (iv) The variety close to the standard British accent. This variety carries higher international acceptance but is locally rejected as fake or foreign.

Last is the classification by Mobolaji Adegunle. He identified three varieties.

- (i) The Near-Native variety – the variety by well-educated Nigerians, which is almost the same as the British Standard English

- (ii) The Local Colour Variety - the “Nigerianised” variety of English that reflects the Nigerian environment - its local customs and cultures.
- (iii) The Incipient Bilingual Variety – this is characterized by deviations from English grammatical structures, and is marked by translations of the native language. It is very close to the Pidgin English.

All these linguists and many others we have not been able to mention, agree that varieties of English exist in Nigeria. If you look at the groups carefully you will discover that you can easily identify some members of one group in another group, based on speakers’ backgrounds and education.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. Identify three varieties of English in Nigeria.
2. Compare Adekunle’s group of varieties with that of Banjo. Are there any similarities?
3. What variety do you think you speak?

4.0 CONCLUSION

We can conclude that English language has come to stay in Nigeria. And as a neutral language of communication that bridges the communication gap between people of the Nigerian multi-lingual and multi-ethnic groups, it is likely to continue to play this role in generations to come. The different varieties we see of English today, is expected because language is naturally sensitive to its environment and socio-cultural context.

5.0 SUMMARY

English came to Nigeria many years before the British colonial rule, through trade contacts between Europe and West coast of Africa. Other factors include the abolition of slave trade and the contributions of professional interpreters, missionary activities and colonialism. As an official language of Nigeria ahead of French, and functions as the neutral language of communication, it has developed local colours that identify the Nigerian English. It has also developed varieties that explain the nature of its new home, as well as the social and educational levels of the Nigerian users.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the factors that gave rise to the planting of English in Nigeria.
2. What is Nigerian English? Identify some varieties of English in Nigeria.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Jowitt, D. (1991). *Nigerian English Usage: An Introduction*. Ikeja: Longman.

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NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

COURSE CODE: ENG226

ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

ENG226

COURSE GUIDE



ENG226
ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

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CONTENTS

Introduction	1
Course Description	1
Course Aims	1
Course Objectives	2
Working through this Course	2
Course Materials	2
Study Unit	2
Course Marking Scheme	3
Course Overview	4
Summary	4

Introduction

ENG226 is a one-semester-two-credit-units 200 level course. It is designed for students, whose major discipline is English. The course has twelve units which encompass detailed study of word formation processes in English. The material will be of immense benefit to students because examples and illustrations therein are domesticated to cater for Nigerian students.

This course guide tells you briefly what the course is about, what course materials you will be using and how to work your way through these materials. It suggests some general guidelines for the amount of time you are likely to spend on each unit of the course. It also gives you some guidance on your tutor-marked assignments. You are advised to attend the tutorial classes to discuss your difficulties with your tutors.

Course Description

Detailed study of word formation processes; internal structure of English words and morpheme structure; inflectional morphology, identification of lexical categories and grammatical categories; nature and types of morphemes- affixation (derivational and inflectional); phonological and syntactic influences on affixation; word formation processes in English: derivation, compounding, invention, clipping, acronym, blending, back formation, reduplication etc.

Course Aims

The course is designed to introduce you to morphology, which is the study of word formation in English. Its goal is to:

- Allow you to have a general view and understanding of morphology and its relations to other levels of grammar.
- Introduce you to the nature of morpheme, word, and its various formation processes in English.
- Help you to acquire analytical skills for all forms of word formation processes in English and other languages.
- Enable you to achieve, through comprehension and practice, skills and aptitude in analyzing different types of word structures, not only in English, but also in other languages.

Course Objectives

There are objectives to be achieved in each unit of the course. You should read them before studying each unit. It is expected that by the time you have finished studying this course you should be able to:

- understand the peculiar nature of morphology
- expound different types of morphemes in English
- explain the constituent structures of syllables, phonemes, morphemes and words.
- state the various types of word formation processes that exist in English
- the relationship between morphology and other levels of grammar, i.e. phonology, semantics and syntax.
- apply the knowledge acquired in this course to analyze other forms of genres that you meet in the course of this course.

Working through this Course

To complete this course, you are advised to read the study units, read recommended books and other materials provided by NOUN. Each unit contains self assessment exercises, and at points in the course you are required to submit assignments for assessment purposes. At the end of the course, there is a final examination. The course should take you about twenty weeks to complete. You will find all the components of the course listed below. You have to allocate your time to each unit in order to complete the course successfully and on time.

Course Materials

The major components of the course are:

- 1 Study units
- 2 Textbooks
- 3 Assignment File
- 4 Presentation schedule

Study Unit

Module 1 Morphology: Meaning and Nature

- | | |
|--------|--|
| Unit 1 | Definition and Nature of Morphology |
| Unit 2 | Meaning(s), Characteristics and Types of Morphemes |
| Unit 3 | Morphemes and Other Grammatical Units |
| Unit 4 | Morpheme and Word |
| Unit 5 | Morpheme, Lexis, Vocabulary and Lexeme |
| Unit 6 | Morpheme in Relation to Word Paradigms |

ii Unit 2: (i) The Place of the Morpheme on the Rankscale

(ii) Meaning(s) of Morpheme

- (iii) Characteristics of Morpheme
- (iv) Types of morpheme
 - a) Free morphemes vs Bound morphemes
 - b) Derivational vs inflectional morphemes
- v) Defining Allomorph
- v) The concepts of Root and Stem

Module 2 Morphology, Phonology, Syntax and Lexis

Unit 1	Morphology, Its Environment, English Plural Morpheme and Past Tense Morpheme
Unit 2	Morphology and Syntax
Unit 3	Morphophonemic Rules
Unit 4	The Question of Word and Lexical Meaning
Unit 5	Classifying English Lexis into Types
Unit 6	Morphological Parsing and the Lexicon

Module 3 Morphological Processes

Unit 1	Major Morphological Processes: Affixation, Compounding, Conversion and Borrowing
Unit 2:	<u>Minor Morphological Processes:</u> Blending, Clipping, Back-formation, Acronymy, coinage and Reduplication.

Module 1 introduces you to the sub-field of linguistics, called morphology, its meaning, nature and problem. It also examines various definitions of morpheme, characteristics, types, morphemes and its relationship with other grammatical units of grammar which are the word, the group, the clause and the sentence. Module 2 examines the relationship between morphology, phonology and syntax and lexis. Module 3 examines various morphological processes in the language. There are 14 study units in this course. Each study unit consists of one week's work and includes specific objectives, directions for study, reading materials and self-assessment exercises. Together with tutor-marked assignments, these exercises will assist you in achieving the stated learning objectives of the individual units and of the course.

Commented [AT1]: I am of the opinion that you cannot include nominalization under morphology; it is strictly a syntactic concept. Also, stress shift can be covered under Conversion. For instance, whether words like import and export are nouns or verbs depends on which syllable carries the primary stress. If the stress appears on the first syllable, such a word is a noun and when it appears on the second syllable, it is a verb. This is what conversion in morphology deals with: shift in the category or part of speech a word belongs to as a result of a shift in the context of use.

Commented [AT2]: Delete lexis, vocabulary and lexeme as they are not units of grammar. From the Halliday Systemic Linguistic perspective, there are five units of grammar and they are: the morpheme, the word, the group, the clause and the sentence.

Commented [AT3]: Consider the additions I have made.

Course Marking Scheme

The following table lays out how the actual course marking is broken down.

Assessment	Marks
Assignments 1-4 (the best three of all the assignments submitted)	Three assignments, marked out of 10% Totalling 30%
Final examination	70% of overall course marks
Total	100% of course marks

Course Overview

Unit	Title of Work	Week Activity	Tutor Marked Assignment
	Course Guide	1	
Module 1			
1	Definition and Nature of Morphology	2	
2	Characteristics and Types of Morphemes	3	
3	Morphemes and other grammatical units	4	TMA 1
4	Morpheme and word	5	
5	Morpheme, lexis, vocabulary and lexeme	6	TMA 2
Module 2			
1	Morphology, its Environment, English Plural Morpheme & Past Tense Morpheme	7	
2	Morphology and Syntax	8	
3	The Question of Word and Lexical Meaning	9	
4	Classifying English Lexis into Types	10	
5	Morphological parsing and the lexicon	11	TMA 3
Module 3			
1	Affixation, Compounding, Conversion, and Borrowing.	12	
2	Blending, Clipping, Back-Formation, Coinage, Acronymy and Reduplication	13	TMA 4
	Revision	14	
	Examination	15	
	Total	15	

Summary

The aim of ENG226 is to equip you with analytical skills for examining the nature of morphology and the various ways of forming words in the English language. Upon completing the course you should be equipped with various types of morphemes, its variants and the relationship with other levels of grammar. You should be able to explain the relationships between morphology, phonology and syntax. You should also be able to distinguish between morpheme, allomorph and word. At the end of the course, you should be able to name and explain the various types of word formation processes that we have in the English language. Some of these include affixation, compounding, conversion, borrowing, blending, and acronymy.

Commented [AT4]: Consider deleting these.

Commented [AT5]: Any time you use the word "include" or "such as", you do not list all items.

ENG226

ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

Course Code ENG226
Course Title English Morphology

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CONTENTS	PAGE
Module 1 Morphology: Meaning and Nature	1
Unit 1 Definition and Nature of Morphology	1
Unit 2 Characteristics and Types of Morphemes	8
Unit 3 Morphemes and Other Grammatical Units	16
Unit 4 Morpheme and Word	33
Unit 5 Morpheme, Lexis, Vocabulary and Lexeme	50
Module 2 Morphology, Phonology, Syntax and Lexis	62
Unit 1 Morphology, Its Environment, English Plural Morpheme and Past Tense Morpheme	62
Unit 2 Morphology and Syntax	73
Unit 3 The Question of Word and Lexical Meaning	83
Unit 4 Classifying English Lexis into Types	91
Unit 5 Morphological Parsing and the Lexicon	98
Module 3 Morphological Processes	104
Unit 1 Clipping, Affixation, Borrowing, Blending and Stress Shift	104
Unit 2 Conversion, Compounding, Back-Formation, Coinage, Acronym Reduplication and Nominalization	124

MODULE 1 MORPHOLOGY: MEANING AND NATURE

Unit 1	Definition and Nature of Morphology
Unit 2	Characteristics and Types of Morphemes
Unit 3	Morphemes and other grammatical units
Unit 4	Morpheme and word
Unit 5	Morpheme, lexis, vocabulary and lexeme

UNIT 1 DEFINITION AND NATURE OF MORPHOLOGY

Different scholars have defined morphology at different levels of linguistic studies. Prominent among these are grammar, phonology and semantics. This section offers a detailed submission of these definitions. It also examines the nature of morphemes. The unit is arranged as follows:

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Structural Approach
3.2	Phonological Approach
3.3	Semantic Approach
3.4	The Interface between them
3.5	Morpheme as an Indivisible Unit
3.6	Morpheme as a Relational Unit
3.7	Morpheme as a Phonological Feature
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Although opinions vary as to the precise definition of the scope and area of morphology over the years, most scholars agree to the status of the subject as an aspect of language study that concerns itself with the forms of words themselves different from syntax which concerns itself with how words are arranged into constructions such as the group/phrase and the sentence. The study of morphology must have been prompted by the nineteenth century interest in classifying language families across the world.

This has led to other study of how languages were differently structured both in broader and narrower ways, from the general laws of structure

to the study of significant elements such as prefixes and inflections. This was later built upon to include the study of the internal structure of words in the twentieth century.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to define the concept of morphology according to:

- its placement among other units of grammar
- its phonological placement
- its semantic category
- the way it operates.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Structural Approach

Across board, all linguists agree that, within words, meaningful parts can be perceived; any exercise that is aimed at studying those meaningful elements within a word is said to be termed morphology. Morphology therefore is the study of the meaningful parts of words. The word 'teacher' for instance comprises two components namely *teach* (verb) and *-er* (suffix). This is what morphology seeks to explain.

Oloruntoba-Oju (1994:71) defines morpheme in terms of its placement among other units of grammar as "the smallest meaning-bearing unit in a word". Ayodele (2001:75) defines it as "the smallest unit, which exhibits an internal structure and meaning of its own but which cannot be further broken up". An attempt to analyze the structure of this component part leads to morphology. Morphology thus deals with the internal structure of word-forms. Lyons (1974:81) quoted in Odebunmi (2006:39) views morphemes as "minimal units of grammatical analysis, the units of lowest rank out of which words, the unit of next 'higher' rank are composed". Bello (2001:92) coming from the perspective of the status of morpheme in the units of grammar defines it as "the smallest meaningful unit in the structure of a language". By smallest meaningful unit, she meant the unit which cannot be further broken up without destroying or drastically altering its meaning. For example, though the word *reality* can be further broken down into *real* and *-ity* (making two morphemes), it cannot be further broken down without altering its meaning. This shows the common difference between *reality* and *realities*: an attempt to further break down the former results into producing an entirely different meaning in the plural sense.

One may also not be able to add a morpheme to an utterance without altering the meaning of such utterance. For example, adding *un-* to *known* changes it to *unknown* and so alters the meaning of the former. Bloomfield (1933:24) quoted in Nida (1974:6) corroborates this description by defining it as “a linguistic form which bears no parallel phonetic-semantic resemblance to any form”.

3.2 Semantic Approach

Crystal (1976:193) defines a morpheme as “the smallest bit of language which has a meaning”. As the smallest meaningful unit of the grammar of a language, it cannot be broken down into any other meaningful unit. It is the minimal unit used in building words in a language which cannot be further split without altering its meaning. For example, “if you add a morpheme to an utterance, or take away, by definition you alter the meaning of the utterance”. For example, adding *-tion* to *locate* changes it to *location* which with *-s* becomes *locations*. In attempting to classify morphemes into types, Odebunmi (ibid) opines that the forms and the formations of *passes* and *disregarded* can only be understood when defined in terms of their meaning relations. In these two examples, *pass* and *regard* will be said to be free morphemes for without them, *-es*, *dis-*, and *-ed*, are not capable of making any sense.

3.3 Phonological Approach

Bello (ibid: 93) describes morpheme in terms of its phonological properties. In this sense, a morpheme could be said to make up just a phoneme. For instance, each of the plural markers in English (e.g. *-s* as in *boy – boys*) could be considered as a morpheme. Thus, the */z/* in *boys* counts as a morpheme. She stresses that if morphemes are the smallest meaningful unit of any language and are made up of either single phonemes and or more than one phoneme as the case may be, then a combination of phonemes must conform to certain rules or possess given characteristics to qualify as morphemes.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Discuss three different approaches of defining a morpheme.

3.4 The Interface between the Approaches

Crystal (1976:193) agglutinates the three criteria for defining morpheme. He believes it can be viewed from three major angles. Firstly, it is a formal or physical unit; it has a phonetic shape. Secondly, it has a meaning, and thirdly, it has a syntactic role to play in the

construction of a larger grammatical unit. We can illustrate this with the following example:

These bad boys wanted the room

These, *bad*, *the*, *room* are all minimal, meaningful, syntactically relevant units. 'Boys' and 'wanted' have two morphemes each; remove -s from *boy* and we get a distinct meaningful unit *boy* – in other words, the -s carries the number (singular/plural) difference – and similarly, the -ed can be removed from *wanted* to change the past tense into present.

Commented [AT6]: These = this + a plural marker. So, it has two morphemes and it is liked *boys* and *wanted*.

It is noteworthy, however, that not all occurrences or examples of morphemes are as straightforward. For example, how do we characterize the -s in *pots*, *kegs* and *buses*? This morpheme, known as the plural morpheme, though has three distinct pronunciations phonetically, clearly has identical meaning in each case (plurality). The grammatical function of the -s is equally constant. It would be inappropriate, therefore, to assign each occurrence of -s to different morphemes only on account of the influence of the sound that precedes them. At least, these variants can be described as allomorphs of the same morpheme. Suffice it to say, the process of identifying morphemes ought to ensure that different occurrences of a morpheme should be recognized as an example of the same morpheme.

Also, sequences of roots can also be homophonous with single morphemes in sentences. Consider these:

- (a) He *rows* the boat
- (b) They stood in *rows*
- (c) That flower is a *rose*

All the italicised morphemes though realized the same way /rə vɜ:/ have different meanings. A morpheme is, therefore, the smallest unit in the expression system that can be correlated directly with any part of the content.

Commented [AT7]: Note that most of these can be explained by reading Nida's parameters for Identification of morphemes. The summary can be found in Olu Tomoti

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

State the possible interrelationship between the different definitions of the morpheme.

3.5 Morpheme as an Indivisible Unit

The morpheme may be conceived as the smallest unit in the expression system that can be correlated directly with any part of the content system. This feature of the morpheme in some other way expresses the

fact that the morpheme, no matter the number of syllables it contains or the resemblance of parts of its components with some other segments in the language, cannot be broken up without rendering it meaningless. The words *neighbour* and *labour* are whole morphemes in their respective linguistic state though they have the syllable *-bour* being identical in both. If divided into parts we will only have fragments such as *la* + *bour* all of which are meaningless.

However, *neighbourhood* is not a single morpheme though it does have meaning. We could from the word derive *neighbour* and *hood*. The meaning of the word is related to the meanings of the two parts. Morphemes thus share some relationship with some other elements in the structure.

3.6 Morpheme as a Relational Unit

Morphemes may have demonstrable relationships with other morphemes in a text. Indeed, our understanding of the distribution of the morpheme as the sum of all the contexts in which it can occur in contrast to where it cannot occur helps our full understanding of a morpheme as it includes our knowing its meaning and distribution. A comprehensive dictionary, for instance, does not only give the meaning of items but also specify how and where they could be used in meaningful contexts. By this, we mean that morphemes may have demonstrable relationships with other morphemes in discourse. For example, prepositions, in the language, normally, precede nouns or nominal groups while verbs will occur after nouns in complete thoughts/expressions other than the questions (Bello 2001:94). It is in this sense that we talk about the relationship that morphemes have with their components as well as other components around them. Thus we explain morphological process as the structural relationship that exists between different morphemes when in combination. Morphemes enter into relationship on the basis of addition, substitution and subtraction (Ayodele 2001:78). In other words, a morpheme 'free' or 'bound' may be added to another in order to produce a word, e.g. *un* + *bend* produces *unbend*; *man* + *hood* results in *adulthood*. This type of addition is called affixation.

Also, morphemes can be generally classified into certain classes each with a characteristic distribution. The structure of utterances in the language can then be stated in terms of these classes of morphemes – lexis such as *admire*, *abuse*, *allow*, *permit*, form an extensive class of morphemes in the English language. In like vein, *(s)*, *(-ed)* and *(-ing)* form a smaller class. The later can occur only immediately following one of the former (or some equivalent construction).

3.7 Morpheme as a Phonological Feature

Inflectional morphemes carry grammatical properties which prepare them for the syntactic roles they play. In performing these roles, some morphemes come under the strict influence of sounds which surround them in particular environment in which they operate thereby resulting in their being realized in different phonetic shapes. For example, the plural morpheme *-s* has three different realizations depending on the phoneme(s) that precede it. When preceded by a voiceless sound, it manifest phonemically as /s/ e.g. *bats*_s, *parks*_s, *raps*_s. In the environment of a voiced sound, the *-s* morphemes become /z/ e.g. *cool*_s, *pad*_s, *rag*_s. It is realized as /ɪz/ when it follows the morphemes /s/ e.g. *bus* + *-es* (buses). It is this type of phonologically determined alternant that is referred to as an allomorph.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Give three prominent features of a morpheme.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The above approaches can always be integrated - a grammatical definition for example leads to meaning deduction. Levin and Hovav (2001:248) for example, have posited that since morphology is the study of structure and derivation of complex signs, attention could be focused on the semantic side and the structural and the relation between them. In addition, I have considered the roles of morphemes in the unit of grammar. As the smallest indivisible unit of grammar, it cannot be further broken down without encountering changes of its meaning. As a relational unit, it shares boundary with other components of grammar vis-à-vis lexis and word to project meaningful utterance. It can also share boundary with variants of its forms. Lastly, we learnt that the environment where a morpheme appears can affect the way it is pronounced.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the following:

- various approaches to the definition of morphemes namely, structural, grammatical and semantic; and
- you have also learnt the relationship between them and their intertwining nature.
- its placement in the units of grammar;
- its structural role; and
- its phonological realizations.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is morphology?
2. Explain various approaches to the definition of morpheme.
3. Briefly define morpheme in terms of its placement among the units of grammar.
4. Briefly describe the structural relationship that exists between various forms of morpheme as well as the relationship that exists between morpheme and the word.
5. Briefly define morpheme in terms of its phonological realizations.

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Commented [AT8]: Check this title again

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UNIT 2 TYPES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF MORPHEMES

Morphemes, as elements which constitute a word, are usually defined as the smallest grammatical unit. They are also said to be so small that their constituents are referred to as elements, better put, linguistic elements. In this unit, we shall attempt to consider some types and characteristics of morphemes, and I shall give examples as well.

The unit is thus arranged as follows:-

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Free Morpheme
 - 3.2 Bound Morpheme
 - 3.2.1 Inflectional Bound Morpheme
 - 3.2.2 Derivational Bound Morpheme
 - 3.2.3 Affixation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The study of morphemes is an interesting endeavour in the sense that it is an attempt to study how humans come about word usage which is the foundation of any human language. It is also very interesting to note that morphemes form the foundation of words even though they themselves do not tell us meaning, but they have a way of contributing to meaning when they are used in specific contexts. This is because they are made up of phonemes which in turn combine to give words. Words have, for example, been said to be the bricks upon which languages are founded. And not to have the basic knowledge of such a foundation amounts to lack of interest in an important tool used by humans for communication.

In this unit, I shall attempt to examine the types and characteristics of morphemes and give copious examples. Since this course is English Morphology, most of our examples will be drawn from the English Language. However, we will draw examples from relevant languages. First, we must understand that the role of the language in the country cannot be quantified. It is, for example, the second language of the

country as well as the official language. Hence, knowing it well is a plus for most Nigerians.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state what free morphemes are, and how they can be identified
- state what bound morphemes are, and how they can be identified
- identify inflectional and derivational bound morphemes and their roles in morphology
- explain the difference between inflectional and derivational bound morphemes.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Free Morphemes

Words are made up of morphemes either free or bound. The free morpheme is the core part which usually **sits** anywhere within a word. On its own, it can function as an independent word, that is, a word that can stand on its own because it carries meaning. The following words are free morphemes: school, church, boy, girl, teach, courage, examine, e.t.c. Another name for the free morpheme is **the base or stem or root**. As the base or core, it can accept other elements either before it or after it. But whether the free morpheme or base or core is attached to another element or not, it can stand on its own. It is a meaning carrying unit. Some linguists also refer to the free morpheme as a full morpheme or mono-morphemic words. Most free morphemes are content or lexical words.

Commented [AT9]: Add 's' to 'sit'

Commented [AT10]: Delete the stem. It is correct to say that a free morpheme can be the base or the root but it is not always right to regard such as a stem. A root/base is defined as that part of a word that signals the core meaning of the word, it is the part of a word to which other bound morphemes can be attached. However, a stem is the part of a word to which the last morpheme is added. As an illustration, consider the word IMPOSSIBILITIES. The root or the base of this word is "possible". However, because the last morpheme is a plural marker "s", the stem is "impossibility"

3.2 Bound Morphemes

A bound morpheme is that morpheme that cannot stand or occur as an independent word. It has to be attached to a free morpheme or word to have a clear meaning. Examples of bound morphemes are *-ment*, *-en*, *-ing*, *-ed*, *-ness*, *-ful*, *mis-*, *-anti*, *-less*, etc in the following free morphemes or words. 'government', 'encouragement', 'dancing', 'accepted', 'happiness', 'hopeless' etc. Another name for the bound morpheme is empty morphemes. They can also be called grammatical indicators because they have the tendency to affect grammar. For example, this sentence.

- The lecturer glad praised God. The omission of *-ly* in *glad* renders the sentence ungrammatical. Grammatically, the sentence should read, "the lecturer gladly praised God". Most

bound morphemes are grammatical or functional elements in language.

Bound morphemes are of two types. Some bound morphemes have the ability of changing word class or forming or generating new words while others only inflect the word they are added to. This takes us to another segment in this discussion.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Discuss what you think free and bound morphemes are.

3.2.1 Inflectional Bound Morphemes

A major division in morpheme is free and bound. A free morpheme has been referred to as an independent word. The bound morpheme is of two types: inflectional and derivational. An inflectional morpheme, which is a type of a bound morpheme, is defined by linguists as a mere grammatical indicator or marker. An inflectional morpheme cannot generate or create new words nor can it affect the grammatical class of a word.

An inflectional morpheme plays **three grammatical roles in English:**

1. **It indicates tense** – Tense relates to a verb. It then means that to indicate tense, it affects verb. A verb is affected in the following ways.

come	come + s, come + ing,
walk	walk + s, walking, walk + ed
write	walk + s, write + ing, (writing), write + en (written) 's' is the third person singular marker, 'ed' is the past tense marker while 'ing' is the continuous tense marker.

2. **It indicates number** – plurality. Plurality deals with nouns. Nouns are affected by number. Nouns are subdivided into singular and plural. Plural nouns are indicated with 's'. Thus,

boy + s	boys
school + s	schools
table + s	tables

The 's' above is a plural marker and it is an additive morpheme. It indicates that the morpheme carrying it is 'more than one'.

Commented [AT11]: This is wrong. See examples in Comment 15 below. There are eight inflectional morphemes in English and each has its own grammatical context.

Commented [AT12]: This ordering is not pedagogically helpful. I think it should be ordered as follows:
 1) S1 that indicates number – plurality (boys, children, boxes etc)
 2) S2 that indicates genitive or possessive marker – Ade's car, men's wears etc
 3) S3 that indicates concord – He goes everyday; She tells good stories every time.
 4) -ing that indicates present participle: She is writing. We are joking.
 5) -ed1 that indicates past tense: He killed the goat yesterday; She went to Ibadan last week.
 6) -ed2 that indicates past participle: She has killed the goat; She has just gone to Ibadan.
 7) -er for comparative: big – bigger; short – shorter
 8) -est for superlative: biggest; shortest; tallest

3. **It indicates comparison.** Adjectives are used to compare. Thus, this third part affects adjectives. Adjectives have comparative (for two people) and superlative (more than two people) forms.

fat + 'er'	fatter	+ 'est' to fattest
fast + 'er',	est	faster, fastest

The 'er' and 'est' morphemes are used to indicate comparative superlative forms of the adjectives fat and fast above.

3.2.2 Derivational Bound Morphemes

A derivational morpheme which is also called a derived morpheme is a type of bound morpheme which generates or creates new words by either changing the class or the meaning of words to which they are attached.

This change in word class, caused by the addition of a derivational bound morpheme, is not restricted to a particular class of words. It affects all classes of words. This transformation does not, however, affect the lexical meaning of the base forms of the free morpheme. That is, the lexical meanings of the core or base or free morpheme remain unchanged.

These examples are common in the English language:

a. Nouns from verbs	word class	
Derivational suffix	verb	Noun
-age	break	breakage
-al	revive	revival
-ation	explore	exploration
-ment	govern	government
-ee	pay	payee
-ant	inform	informant

b. Adjectives from nouns

Suffix	Noun	Adjective
-ful	care	careful
-less	fruit	fruitless
-n	Nigeria	Nigerian
-able	love	lovable
-ly	friend	friendly
-ous	desire	desirous
-y	library	librarian

c. Nouns from Adjectives

Suffix	Adjective	Noun
- ity	rapid	rapidity
- ness	kind	kindness
- ce	fragrant	fragrance
- ity	humble	humility

d. Verbs from Adjective

Suffix	Adjective	Verb
- en	weak	weaken
- ize	liquid	liquidize
- fy	solid	solidify

e. Adjectives from verbs

Suffix	Verb	Adjective
- able	wash	washable
- ive	digest	digestive
- tory	satisfy	satisfactory

f. Verbs from nouns

Suffix	Nouns	Verbs
-ize	special	specialize

Derivational bound morphemes, thus, have the following features:-

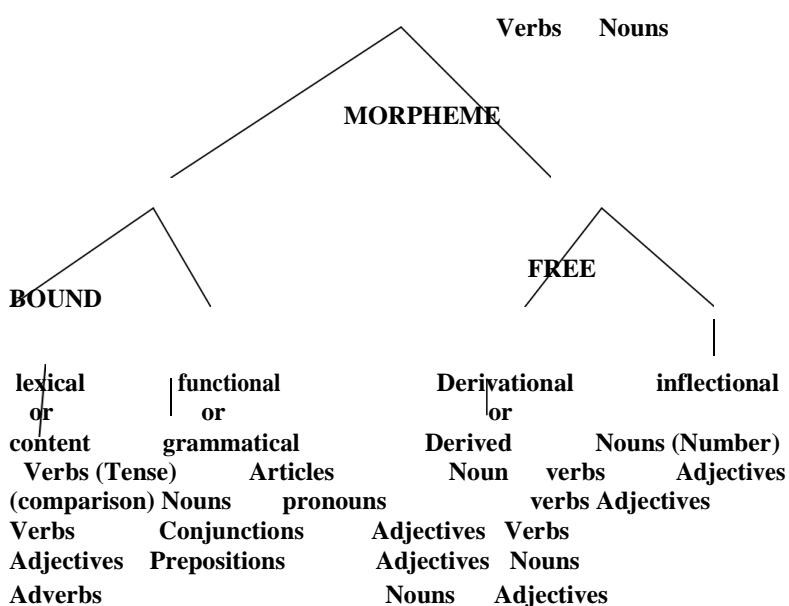
1. They change the meaning or word class e.g govern + ment *government*.
2. They indicate semantic relations in words e.g the morpheme – *ful* in *hopeful* does not relate to any other word in the language except the free morpheme *hopeful*.
3. It operates a close circuit kind of relationship. For example, some bound morphemes like ‘hood’ carefully choose their root; they do not collocate with every other word in the language.
4. It occurs before the inflectional bound morphemes they should

co-occur. For example, teach + er teacher + s teachers (verb) (bound morpheme) (a new word) inflectional Thus, ‘er’ comes before ‘s’.

Commented [AT13]: All the examples of derivational morphemes you have given are those that change the class. You need to have a list of those that can change the meaning. Here are some examples:
 Im + possible = impossible
 dis + honest = dishonest
 a + moral = amoral
 mal + function = malfunction
 etc

In the examples given above, the derivational morphemes resulted in a change from one word class to the other. This is what derivational morphology is all about.

DIAGRAM



The above is a diagrammatical illustration of the types of morphemes and their subdivisions.

3.2.3 Affixation

The term affixation can be defined as a morphological process of attaching an element usually called an affix to the root or base of a word. For example 'courage' is a root of a word; when *-en* is added to it, it becomes encourage, and when *-ment* is added to it, it becomes encouragement. Both *-en* and *-ment* are affixes. But while *-en* is a prefix (an element added to the beginning of a word), *-ment* is a suffix (an element added to the end of a word). Thus, the structural formula of a word is (P) B(S) where P and S and prefix and suffix respectively and they are both optional, B is base and it is mandatory.

Hence, B is the free morpheme that can stand on its own. Other examples include:-

Un + comfort + able
(P) B (S)

un + educate + d
(P) B (S)

dis + establish + ment
(P) B (S)

We shall have an elaborate discussion on affixation in morphological or word formation processes in subsequently.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify and explain the roles of inflectional and derivative morpheme in English.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have discussed types of morphemes, thereby looking at free and bound morphemes. We also looked at the sub-types of the bound morpheme – inflectional and derivational morphemes with the characteristic features displayed by each of them. We also looked in an affixation as an aspect of bound morpheme, though with more of it to come under morphological processes or word formation processes. We gave a diagrammatic illustration of the break down of morphemes and its types. We ended the unit with a structural formula for word which we put as (P) B (S) where (P) is Prefix and it is optional, B is the base and it is mandatory, (S) is suffix, and it is also optional.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt:

- Free and bound morphemes
- Inflectional and derivational types of bound morphemes
- Affixation at the elementary stage.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain with examples free and bound morphemes.
2. Explain with examples inflectional and derivational morphemes.
3. With examples, explain what is meant by structural formula for word.
4. Briefly describe what affixation is in relation to this section.

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UNIT 3 MORPHEMES AND OTHER GRAMMATICAL UNITS

In this unit, we shall discuss the morpheme in relation to other grammatical units of words, groups, clauses and sentence. We shall, however, emphasize more on the relationships that exist among each of these units with special reference to the morpheme, that is, the interplay among the various grammatical units of English.

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Word
 - 3.2 Group
 - 3.3 Clause
 - 3.4 Sentence
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

Commented [AT14]: I found this section irrelevant as these are things that should be taught under syntax, and not morphology. Morphology does not cover units above the word.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we discussed types of morphemes and we gave a diagrammatic illustration to further drive home our point. In this unit, we shall discuss the relationships that exist between the morphemes and other grammatical units in the English language. The morpheme, as we are aware, is the smallest grammatical unit in English, and as the smallest, it is only composed of elements which, when further broken, results in meaning destruction.

However, even though it is the smallest grammatical unit, one or more of it gives us a word. Thus, in essence, there is hierarchy among the grammatical units to the extent that one or more of a unit below produces a unit higher.

In this unit, we shall look at these relationships and see what role(s) the morpheme plays in all of this.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain what words and word classes are

- define group and discuss the various groups and their functions in English
- define clauses and the different clauses in English and their functions
- define sentence and the different types according to structure and functions.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Word

The word and morpheme are important concepts in morphology. This is because one or more morphemes make a word. The dictionary defines a word as a single unit of language which has meaning and can either be spoken or written. It is also a lexical item that becomes meaningful when used in a context or in discourse where it now has some grammatical properties.

The word is a most fundamental unit of grammar of a language. It is an independent linguistic unit that has identifiable meaning and grammatical function with some emphasis on phonological shape. For example, the forms sing, sings, singing, sang and sung are all forms of a single word sing. Each of these forms has a unique environment it can occur in, as well as the verbs (auxiliary) that they can occur with.

Word, especially in the English language has the following characteristics or features.

1. **Syntactic information** – Every word has its word- class, that is, it has information as to whether the word is a noun, an adjective, an adverb or a verb. This helps us to know the appropriate environment for the word.
2. **Semantic information** – Every word has a meaning whether integral or contextual. This semantic meaning helps us to know, for example, whether we have been abused or commended.
3. **Phonological information** – Every word has its unique way of being pronounced by the native speakers. Whether borrowed into the English language or not, whether anglicized or not, the phonological information aids pronunciation.
4. **Pragmatic information** – Every word has a particular context of usage. This is also referred to as situational usage of words.

5. **Morphological information** – Every word has its own peculiar internal structure or shape. This has to do with the way phonemes and morphemes in the language are arranged. It assists us in knowing what combinations of items are permissible which ones are not.

Commented [AT15]: add 's'

Functionally, words are classified into classes according to their features and the roles they play in building up other units of grammar. In all, there are eight word-classes of nouns, verbs, pronouns, adverbs, adjectives, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. Thus, a noun names e.g. Lagos, Nigeria, Joy etc.

A pronoun is used in place of a noun e.g. He, She, they

A verb asserts e.g. go, dance, run, etc.

An adjective describes a noun e.g. happy, beautiful, etc

An adverb modifies a verb e.g. well, beautifully, etc.

A preposition shows relation e.g. on, over, above, etc.

A conjunction joins e.g. and, but or etc.

An interjection expresses emotion e.g. oh! etc.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain what you understand by words and their classes

3.2 Group

The group is the unit next in rank above the word. It is made up of one or more words. This is called phrase by transformational generative grammarians as well as traditional grammarians. It is defined as a group of words that usually lacks a verb and which does not make complete sense. Hence, to make sense, it has to be attached to another element that makes sense of has the potentials of making full sense. Every group has an optional modifier, a mandatory headword and an optional qualifier. Hence, the structural formula for the group is (M) H (Q).

The English language identifies five groups and these are:-

1. **Nominal word group (also called nominal group (NWG) or (NG).** Since this is a nominal group, a noun must be the headword. A non-noun like a verb or an adjective can play this role provided of it has been nominalised – that is, made to become a noun to fit into this new role, and it has become a gerundial or verbal noun. For example,

The man is a thief can be analysed as:-

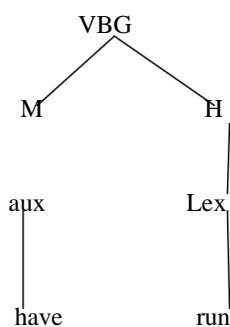
The man (NMG) 'The and a' are modifiers while
 Is (VBG) man and thief are headword respectively.
 A thief (NMG) Thus, there are two groups in the sentence above,
 five words, and five morphemes.

The nominal group plays these roles:

1. Subject of a sentence or verb e.g. The man
 2. Object of a sentence or verb e.g. a thief
 3. Subject complement or complement of the subject e.g., I myself, did the assignment. 'Myself' refers back to 'I' which is the subject of the sentence.
 4. Object complement or complement of the object e.g.; they give him a bottle of coke. 'Him' is the object of the sentence, and 'a bottle of coke' is received by 'him'. Thus, 'a bottle of coke' is the complement of the object 'him'.
2. **Verbal group:** This is a group that is headed by a verb. The auxiliary verbs, in most case, serve as the modifier while the functional lexical, whether lexical or auxiliary plays the role of a headword. For example, the thieves have run away.

The thieves	Nominal group (NMG)	
have run	Verbal Group (VBG)	
away	adverbial group (AdvG)	Three groups

Thus,



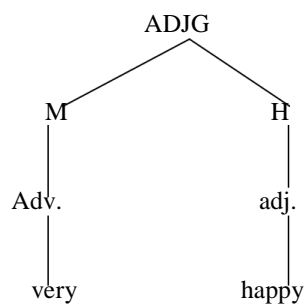
3. **Adjectival group:** This is a group that is headed by an adjective.

For example,

The woman is very happy

The woman M H (NMG)
 H (VBG)
 Very happy M H (ADJG) = three groups

Thus,

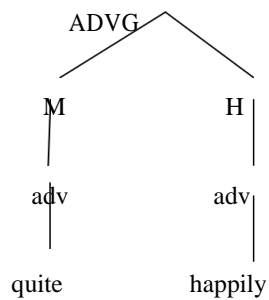


- 4. Adverbial group:** This is a group that is headed by an adverb.
 For example:

He did the job quite happily.

He - H (NMG)
 did - H (VBG)
 the job M H (NMG)
 quite happily M H (AdvG) = three groups

Thus,



- 5. Prepositional group:** This is a group headed by a preposition.

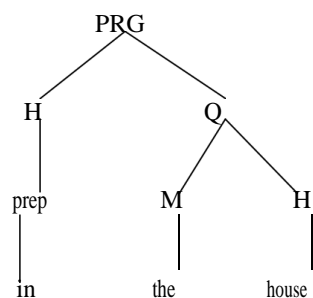
For example:

I met my father in the house

I H (NMG)
met H (VBG)

My father M H (NMG)
In the house H Q (PRG)

Thus,



Thus, a group represents an important level of syntactic analysis and it possesses four significant features. These are:

- It has an internal syntactic and semantic cohesion
- It is an identifiable single unit.
- It expresses a thought (though not complete)
- It is named after its headword.

Groups have the characteristics of being widely distributed in clauses / sentences. For instance:

The old man / in this compound / was killed / late last year,

The old man M M H (NMG)

In this compound H Q (PRG)

was killed M H (VBG)

late last year. M M H (NMG).

Thus, in the sentence above, there are three groups with the Nominal group appearing two times.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

State and discuss four important features of a group.

3.3 Clause

This is the unit next in rank above the group. It is made up of one or more groups. It is defined as a group of words that has a verb and may or may not make sense. It has the following characteristics.

1. It has a subject
2. It has a verb
3. It is a single thought unit
4. It can occur in different parts of the sentence
5. It is named after its headword except for a relative clause.

The English language identifies basically two types of clauses; independent and dependent. The independent clause, or insubordinate or alpha as the name goes can stand on its own while the dependent or subordinated or beta clause cannot. For example: if it rains tomorrow, I will not come to school – dependent + independent.

The followings are the subtypes of the dependent clause.

1. Nominal clause: it is usually headed by a noun.
2. Adjectival clause: it is usually headed by an adjective
3. Adverbial clause: it is introduced by a relative pronoun like who, whose, which, that, how, e.t.c.

General examples of clauses are

1. //When / the girls / gets / home // they / usually / visit / their friends / in the hostel ///

In the above sentence, there are two clauses – dependent and independent with three groups and some groups have double or triple appearances.

/// When	H	(AdvG)1	
the girls	M H	(NMG)2	
get	H	(VBG) 3	dependent
home //	H	(AdvG)	subordinate
they	H	(NMG)	
usually	N	(AdvG)	independent
visit	H	(VBG)	insubordinate
their friends ///	M H	(NMG)	
her ///		H (NMG)	insubordinate clause

2. /// If I had seen my mother // I would have greeted her ///// If
 H (AdvG) I H (NMG) dependent
 Had seen M H (VBG) subordinate clause
 My mother // M H (NMG) I H (NMG) would
 have greeted M M H (VBG) independent or

The sentence above has three groups with some groups having double or triple appearances.

3. /// The lecturer didn't know // what the students were planning for him ///

The lecturer M H (NMG) independent
 What M H (VBG)
 the students M H (NMG) dependent
 were planning M H (VBG)
 for him H Q (PRG)

The sentence above contains two clauses and three groups, though some groups appeared more than once.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Discuss three types of dependent clause.

3.5 Sentence

This is the largest grammatical unit. It is made up of one or more clauses. It has the following features.

1. It can stand on its own, that is, it is independent
2. It embeds all other units
3. It has a subject and a verb (predicator)
4. It cannot be subsumed by other units.
5. It begins with a capital letter and ends with either a full stop mark, question mark, or an exclamation mark. For example,
 1. The students are waiting eagerly
 2. The earth is spherical
 3. Will you see me tomorrow?
 4. You must be joking!
 5. Nigeria plays Tunisia on Sunday.
 6. Who wins the next world cup in South Africa?
 7. The man is happily married
 8. If it rains tomorrow, many students will not come for lecture.
 9. Whenever the chips are down, true champions always emerge.

10. Which of them do you like.
11. I prefer rice to beans
12. We are the apple of God's eyes
13. She is the most beautiful student in this class.
14. I had finished eating before my father came in.
15. What is your maiden name?

Functional Delineation of Sentences

Sentences are classified according to their function and structure. Functionally, there are four types of sentence, and they are:

1. Declarative
2. Interrogative
3. Imperative and
4. Exclamatory

1. **Declarative sentence:** A sentence is said to be declarative when it expresses a statement or declaration. In other words, any sentence that affirms is a declarative sentence. To affirms means to state experiences, facts or opinion in any given matter. Some examples of declarative sentence are listed below:-

My wife is a good cook
 Bola died early last year
 The journey of life is not rosy
 The gate will be locked at 11.pm.
 Those children are a pleasure to be with
 I don't care about being hated.

2. **Interrogative sentence:** A sentence is said to be an interrogative sentence if it asks a question and thus usually end with a question mark. There are basically three types of an interrogative sentence. They are

- (a) Yes or No question
- (b) Wh - questions
- (c) Taq questions (would you mind.....)

(a) Yes or No question – This type of interrogative sentence requires 'yes' or 'No' for an answer. For example,
 Have you eaten?
 Yes, I have No, I haven't

The explanation of the above is that, the question expects the listener to either affirm the statement or refute it. Hence, yes, is an affirmation (or confirmation) while No, is a refutation. More examples

Do you want me to believe you?

Yes, I do

No, I don't

Did she eventually meet the man

Yes, she did

No, she didn't

Is the lecturer telling us the truth?

Yes, he is

No, he isn't

(b) wh – question: A wh-question requires a sentence answer rather than yes or no. It starts with an interrogative pronoun. For example, what is your name?

* Yes

* No

Yes or No will not be accepted, as an answer to a wh-question. The question, 'what is your name? Can either be as follows:-

John or

My name is John. Other examples are:

Why is she crying?

Answer: she is crying because she is hungry

Who is the African footballer of the year for 2008

Answer: Emmanuel Seyi Adebayor is African footballer of the year for 2008.

(c) Tag question: A tag question is a kind of interrogative sentence which has three parts:

(i) Statement

(ii) Question and

(iii) Answer

For example,

He is a brilliant student – (statement)

Isn't he?

Yes, he is **or**

No, he isn't Answer

She will become the next beauty queen
 Won't she?
 Yes, she will **or**
 No, she won't

Tag questions have the following features

1. If the statement is in the positive, the question must be in the negative, for example

I have seen you today (positive)
Haven't I?

2. If the statement is in the negative, the question must be in the positive. For example,

He <u>will not</u> marry her	(negative)
<u>Will</u> he?	(positive)

Please, note that positivity and negativity denote that the verb either takes 'not' (for negative) or does not take not (for positive, that is,
 verb + not = negative e.g will not
 verb – not = positive e.g will, can

3. The pronoun in the statement is used in the question and answer parts for example, she has prayed for the country

Hasn't she?
 Yes, she has **or**
 No, she hasn't

They will make it in life
 Won't they?
 Yes, they will **or**

No, they won't

4. When lexical or main verbs are used in the statement, the form of the primary auxiliary verb 'do' is used. This agrees in number, tense and person with the form of the lexical verb used in the statement. For example,

Jide likes his wife
Doesn't he?
 Yes, he does **or**
 No, he doesn't

5. When a noun is the subject of the statement, the person pronoun must agree in gender with the noun used in the statement. For example,

Mary visited us yesterday

Didn't she

Yes, she did **or**

No, she didn't

There is a particular kind of tag question that changes the general and common notion held about tag questions. Remember, we said that 'yes' means agreement and 'No' means disagreement. In this kind of specially structured tag question the reverse is the case. For example,

Would you mind talking with me?

Yes, I do - disagreement

No, I don't - agreement that is, 'yes' I do means, I don't want to talk with you while 'No', I don't means, I want to talk with you.

3. **Imperative sentence:** A sentence is said to be an imperative sentence if it commands, or orders, or makes a request. In other words, an imperative sentence makes people carry out an action or instruction. In some cases too, an imperative sentence directs and suggests. For example,

Will you do as I say?

Obey the last order

Would you be kind enough to dust the table?

Come here immediately

Shut the door

To prepare fruit salad, slice the fruits, boil water and allow to cool, et.c.

4. **Exclamatory sentence:** A sentence is said to be an exclamatory sentence if it expresses emotional feelings like sorrow, surprise, shock, wonder, gratitude, et.c. In most cases, an exclamatory sentence ends with an exclamation mark. For example,

That's a snake!

My God, what is happening!

What a big shame!

How dare you do that!

How wonderful of you!

Who do we have here!

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

Discuss 4 functional types of sentences, giving 2 examples for each.

Structural Delineation of Sentences

Structurally, there are five types of sentences, these are:

1. Simple sentence
2. Compound sentence
3. Complex sentence
4. Compound complex
5. Multiple sentence

1. **Simple sentence:** a sentence is said to be simple if it contains just one independent clause. Hence, a simple sentence can also be called an independent or an in subordinate clause. For example,

That was a good one
Can you lend me your torch?
John was here yesterday
This lecturer teaches with ease
Students are supposed to write well
She will soon get married
Who is the lucky man!

2. **Compound sentence:** A sentence is said to be a compound sentence if it contains at least two independent clauses which are linked by a coordinating conjunction. This type of conjunction is also called a linker. For example,

That was a good one, please, you should keep it up.

John was here yesterday but he did not meet my father at home.
Should I come in or wait for you downstairs
James came yesterday and ate the food on the table.

3. **Complex sentence:** A sentence is said to be a complex sentence if it contains at least one independent clause and at least one dependent clause which should be linked by a subordinating conjunction. This type of conjunction that links two clauses of unequal power or status or rank is called a binder. Hence, a dependent clause is bound to an independent clause to have meaning. For example,

If it rains today, the streets will be flooded.

NB: *If it rains today* is a dependent clause while *the streets will be flooded* is an independent clause.

The dog ate the food when the students forgot to lock the door.

NB: *The dog ate the food* is an independent clause while *when the students forgot to lock the door* is a dependent clause.

Whenever it seems there is no way forward, remember someone loves you.

NB: *whenever it seems there is no way forward* is a dependent clause, while *I remember someone loves you* is an independent clause.

Students don't do well in their examination because they don't work hard.

NB *Students don't do well in their examination* is an independent clause, while *because they don't work hard* is a dependent clause.

4. **Compound – complex sentence:** A sentence is said to be a compound – complex sentence if it contains two or more independent clauses and two or more dependent clauses. In this case, there is a combination of both coordinating and subordinating conjunctions. In other words, we make use of both linkers and binders to join or connect the various clauses. For example,

If Deborah refuses to listen to us, we would not hesitate to take her back to Igbogila where she came from, or we would send her to Aiyetoro to continue her studies.

Analysis

NB: If Deborah refuses to listen to us – dependent

We would not hesitate to take her back to Igbogila – independent clause.
Where she came from – dependent

We would send her to Aiyetoro to continue her studies – independent clause.

Note: 2 independent clauses

And 2 dependent clauses

Before I resigned as a secondary school teacher, I was engaged by Jubilee College for a peanut, afterwards, I dusted by books and went back to school for my masters degree but only to be disappointed because I chose a wrong school and I didn't plan for that.

NB Analysis

Before I resigned as a secondary school teacher – dependent clause
I was engaged by Jubilee College for a peanut – independent clause.
Afterward, I dusted by books – dependent clause
And went back to school for my masters degree – independent clause
but only to be disappointed – dependent clause because I choose a wrong school – dependent clause and I didn't plan for that – independent clauses.

Note = 4 dependent clauses

3 independent clauses.

- 5. Multiple Sentence:** A sentence is said to be a multiple sentence if it contains three or more independent clauses that are linked or connected by a coordinating conjunction. This coordinating conjunction is also called a linker. For example,

I came to school this morning, had a fine discussion with my friends, but I did not remember to say goodbye to them, or I said it in a hurry.

Mary woke up yesterday, she had her bath, prepared for a nice day at work but the day turned out to be a bad one and she became disappointed.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5

Explain with the aid of examples the following:

- (a) declarative sentence
- (b) simple sentence
- (c) tag questions
- (d) multiple sentence
- (e) imperative sentence

5.0 SUMMARY

Sentences are classified according to function and according to structure. Functionally, there are four types of sentence and they are:

- 1. Declarative
- 2. Interrogative

3. Imperative and
4. Exclamatory

Structurally, we have the following types of sentence.

1. Simple
2. Compound
3. Complex
4. Multiple and
5. Compound-Complex

Thus, the sentence, 'The students are waiting eagerly' can be analysed as follows:-

The students (NMG) The + student + S
are waiting (VBG) are + wait + ing
eagerly (ADVG) eager + ly

In all, there is one sentence (simple and declarative), one clause (independent), three groups (NMG, VBG and ADVG), five words (article, noun, auxiliary and lexical verb and adverb), and eight morphemes (The, -'S', -ing and -ly are bound, while student, wait and eager are free).

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain, with the aid of examples, the following:
 - (a) Phrases
 - (b) Clauses
2. Explain the relationships that exist among all the grammatical units with these sentences.
 - (a) The lecturers are on strike
 - (b) Uneasy lies the head that wears the crown
 - (c) The oldest men planted trees everyday.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Adejare, R.A. & Adejare, O. (1996). *Tertiary English Grammar*. Lagos: Difamo Books.
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UNIT 4 MORPHEME AND WORD

In this unit, we shall look at the morpheme and the word. These are two important elements or items in the grammatical units of English.

The unit is arranged as follows:-

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Characteristics of the Morpheme
 - 3.2 The Word in English
 - 3.3 Word Classes in English
 - 3.3.1 Nouns
 - 3.3.2 Verbs
 - 3.3.3 Adjectives
 - 3.3.4 Adverbs
 - 3.3.5 Prepositions
 - 3.3.6 Pronouns
 - 3.3.7 Conjunctions
 - 3.3.8 Interjections/Exclamations
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The morpheme, in Unit 2, was defined as the smallest meaningful element into which words can be analysed. This nature of morpheme, among other things, is the interest of morphology.

In this unit, we shall attempt to do some analyses of the morpheme and the word.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify and explain what is meant by the morpheme
- identify and explain what is meant by the word
- differentiate between a morpheme and a word.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Characteristics of the Morpheme

The morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit in English. One or more morpheme gives us a word. Examples are listed below:-

Manage + ment = management
Intend + ing = intending

More examples on morphemes

dis + locat + ion = dislocation
in + depend + ent + ly = independently
un + gramma + tic + al = ungrammatical
im + perish + able = imperishable
mis + represent + ed = misrepresented
commend + able = commendable
endow + ment = endowment
mis + appropriat + ion = misappropriation
un + educat + ed = uneducated
commit + ment = commitment

Morphemes could either be free or bound. A free morpheme has a dictionary meaning. Content words are examples of free morpheme. Bound morphemes do not have any meaning independently except being attached to a free morpheme.

For more on morphemes, check Units 1 and 2.

3.2 The Word in English

The word is defined in the dictionary as a single unit of language that has meaning and can be spoken or written. Words are classified as a certain word – class – noun, adjective, verb, adjective, adverb, article, preposition or pronoun as a result of the role it plays in context. Though traditionally, word – classes have roles but these roles change in function. For example, ‘man’ is traditionally a noun but it can be also be used as a verb.

He is a man (noun)
He will man the post for the team (verb)

Words have some characteristics which have been discussed at length in Unit 3.

Each word in the English language has a particular position which it can operate in. Though this assumption is gradually giving way in the English language as function plays prominent role these days. That is, emphasis is now more on how a word behaves in a sentence.

Morpheme / word relationship can be illustrated with this diagram.

W I W
m m m m

where w stands for word and m stands for morpheme.

Examples

Dis + approv + al = disapproval (a word made of 3 morphemes meaning + ful + ness = meaningfulness (a word made up of 3 morphemes).

A major difference between the morpheme and the word is the fact that the morpheme is the unit immediately below the word while the word is the unit next in rank on hierarchy to the morpheme.

Another difference between the morpheme and the word is that the word cannot be embedded into the morpheme but rather the morpheme is embedded into the word.

Also, meaning in the language starts with the unit called 'word' whereas the morpheme maintains non-meaningfulness except for the free morpheme which also qualifies to be called a word.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

State clearly the relationship between the word and the morpheme.

3.3 Word Classes in English

Words are classified as parts of speech in traditional grammar because of the role they play in a sentence. But, traditional parts of speech in modern grammar are now called word classes or classes of words. However, we must understand that, these days in English, prominence is given to function (that is, what the particular word is doing in the sentence) more than mere classification. This is because the same word may serve several grammatical functions, that is, play many roles in different sentences. For example, the word 'round' in these sentences:

- a. The boxer was defeated in the third round (Noun).
- b. The bus driver rounded the corner at 12 noon (Verb)
- c. The earth has been proved to be round (Adjective)
- d. He showed the president round the two teams (Adverb)
- e. The old woman tied a girdle round her waist. (Preposition)

From the examples above, the word 'round' in example:

- 1. is used as a noun
- 2. is used as a verb
- 3. is used as an adjective
- 4. is used as an adverb
- 5. is used as a preposition. This proves that a word is a particular word-class in the context in which it is used.

3.3.1 Nouns

A noun is the name of any word that can stand as the subject or object of any sentence. There are basically four types of nouns. These are:

- a. **Common Noun:** This is the name of any class of persons, places or even things. For example, man, room, table, Kanji Dam, etc.
- b. **Proper Noun:** This is the name of a particular thing or person. For example, Jide, Mary, Lagos, Benin, Kaduna, etc.
- c. **Abstract Noun:** This type of noun denotes qualities or concepts. For example, Joy, goodness, cowardice, beauty, e.t.c.
- d. **Collective Noun:** This type of noun names a group of things, a whole set or a collection of people or things. Their membership is by the common features displayed. For example, staff, congregation, crowd, electorate, e.t.c.

3.3.2 Verb

A verb is that part of a sentence which indicates an action or a state of being carried out by the subject. It is the most important element in the clause structure. This is because it gives meaning to the sentence, and it is mandatory in a sentence. Examples of verbs include come, go, dance, play, jump, e.t.c.

There are two major types of verbs and they are:

- a. Lexical or main verbs
- b. Auxiliary verbs

(a) **Lexical verbs:** These are also called main verbs or full verbs because they carry lexical meanings. All lexical verbs are capable of going through the six forms of a verb. These forms are:-

1. base or base infinitive form e.g. go, dance, sing
2. third person sing. Form (-es) goes, dances, sings
3. continuous form (-ing) going, dancing, singing
4. past tense form (-ed) went, dance, sang
5. participle form (-en) gone, danced, sung
6. to infinitive form (to + base) to go, to dance, to sing

From the verbal conjugation above, 'dance' is an example of a regular verb because it has the same form for the past tense (-ed) and past participle (-en). We can say that it forms its past tense by taking (-ed). The acceptance of (-ed) makes the verb 'dance' a regular verb. Other examples of regular verbs are:

Jump,	jumped,	jumped	
work,	worked,	worked	
walk,	walked,	walked	
hiss,	hissed,	hissed	
stop,	stopped,	stopped	
form,	formed,	formed	e.t.c

Another revelation made from the verbal conjugation above is that some verbs like 'go' and 'sing' do not need the (-ed) morpheme to form their past tense. These verbs are referred to as irregular verbs. An irregular verb changes form (or goes through morphological transformation which is conditioned by phonological rules) to form its past tense and past participle. (We treated phonological rules in module 5).

Other examples of irregular verbs are:

ring,	rang,	rung	
lake,	took,	taken	
give,	gave,	given	
forget,	forgot,	forgotten	
write,	wrote,	written	e.t.c.

(b) Auxiliary verbs

Verbs called auxiliary verbs are so named because they need the presence of lexical verbs to operate in a sentence. By their name, they are supporting or helping verb. There are two major types of auxiliary verbs: primary and modal auxiliary verbs.

- (i) **Primary auxiliary verbs:** these are three and they are: BE, HAVE and DO; the three of them have their sub-forms.

	BE	HAVE	DO
Finite forms	am, is, are was, were	has, here had	do, does did
Non-finite forms	be, being, Been	have, having	

Adapted from Adejare and Adejare (1996).

- (c) **Modal Auxiliary Verbs:** They are also known as secondary and they reflect or indicate the mood of the speaker in a sentence.

For examples:

can	-	I can drive	(ability)
will	-	I will drive	(intention)
may	-	You may drive	(permission)
must	-	He must drive	(compulsion)

Other examples of modal auxiliary verbs and their 'past tense' forms are listed below:-

Will	-	would
can	-	could
shall	-	should
may	-	might
ought	-	No past tense form
ought		"
dare		"
need		"

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

With 2 examples for each, identify 2 types of noun and verb that you know.

3.3.3 Adjective

An adjective is a word that describes, qualifies or tells us more about a noun or pronoun.

Examples are beautiful, interesting, big, small, round, new, e.t.c.

Adjectives are attributive when they come before the nouns they describe e.g.

Shade has a beautiful dress
 The brown bag has been stolen
 That fat boy is naughty
 The young girl sings well.

And predicative when they come after the nouns they describes as in these examples:

Shade's dress is beautiful
 That leather bag is brown
 Michael Jackson died young
 The naughty boy is fat.

3.3.4 Adverb

An adverb is a word class that modifies a verb. In other words, it offers more information about a verb or the action expressed by the verb. This is the reason it is called modifier of the verb. It is also possible for an adverb to modify an adjective, another adverb, a phrase e.t.c. The modifying role of function of an adverb is done by supplying vital information such as telling us place, time, manner, degree, condition, result, purpose, reason etc about the verb.

The underlined words in the following sentences are adverbs:-

- a. The girl runs fast (modifies runs).
- b. He danced well yesterday (modifies danced)
- c. The lecturer often teaches (modifies teaches)
- d. It always rains in July (modifies rains)
- e. That was beautifully done (modifies done)
- f. He defeated the wrestler easily (modifies defeated)

Morphologically, adverbs can be formed from adjectives by adding (-ly) to such adjectives.

For example,

Adjective		Adverb
(a) beautiful	= ly	beautifully
(b) easy	= + ly	easily
(c) careful	= + ly	carefully

(d)	quick + ly	=	quickly
(e)	happy + ly	=	happily
(f)	rapid + ly	=	rapidly
(g)	wrong + ly	=	wrongly
(h)	high + ly	=	highly
(i)	handsome + ly	=	handsomely
(j)	faithful + ly	=	faithfully
(k)	near + ly	=	nearly
(l)	legal + ly	=	legally
(m)	social + ly	=	socially
(n)	political + ly	=	politically e.t.c.

There are several kinds of adverbs though some are not morphologically marked. The most common ones among them are listed below:-

Adverb of place: This kind of adverb tells us where an action takes place. Hence, it answers the question where? For example,
I saw him there (where did I see him?)
The man searched everywhere (where did the man search?)

The thief hid the money somewhere. (where did the thief hide the money?)

3.3.4.2 Adverb of Time

This type of adverb tells us when an action takes place. Thus, it answers the question when? For example,

The match will end soon. (When will the match end?)
My father traveled today (when did my father travel?)
The plane leaves for Abuja tomorrow (when will the plane leave for Abuja?)

3.3.4.3 Adverb of Manner

This type of adverb modifies a verb by telling us how the action of the verb was carried out. For example, The girl sang sonorously (how did the girl sing?)

The team played well (how did the team play?)

The students politely greeted their president (how did the students greet their president?)

3.3.4.4 Adverb of Frequency

This type of adverb only indicates the rate of occurrence or the frequency of the occurrence of an action. For example,

Jide usually goes to school late
 Politicians always tell lies
 Lazy students scarcely succeed in life.

3.3.4.5 Adverbs of Degree

This type of adverb only intensifies or de-intensifies the action of the verb it modifies. For example,

This food is so delicious that he ate two plates
 That load is too heavy for you to carry.
 I almost forgot to say my prayers.

Some adverbs are compared in the same way with adjectives is that they take the morphemes –er or -est, and more or most comparison.

(a) (-er) and (-est)

Adverb	Comparative	Superlative
Soon	sooner	soonest
Late	later	latest
Fast	faster	fastest etc.

(b) (more) and most

Adverb	Comparative	Superlative
Diligently	more diligently	most diligently
Quickly	more quickly	most quickly
Carefully	more carefully	most carefully
Gracefully	more gracefully	most gracefully
Kindly	more kindly	most kindly
Leisurely	more leisurely	most leisurely
Generously	more generously	most generously

Some adverbs cannot be compared at all. They include these:

so, ever, never, now, then, too, e.t.c. and some have a peculiar way of being compared

For example:

Adverb	Comparative	Superlative
badly	worse	worst
little	less	least
old	older	older
old	elder	eldest
well	better	best
much	more	most

Old, older and oldest are used for general age. For example, He is old; I am older; He is the oldest of us all; while old, older and eldest is used among siblings or family relationships. For example, I am old; He is my elder brother; He is my eldest brother.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Two classes of words tend to give more information about other words – identify and discuss the words, with examples.

3.3.4 Pronoun

A pronoun is a word used to replace a noun earlier mentioned in a sentence. This is done to avoid unnecessary repetition of nouns in a sentence. For example,

Jide is a young graduate
 Jide will get married to Yinka soon
 Yinka is a graduate of the University of Lagos.
 The University of Lagos is located in Akoka.
 Jide and Yinka will live happily thereafter.
 The continuous mentioning of Jide, Yinka and University of Lagos make the sentence monotonous and repetitive. The sentence will be better appreciated like this:
 Jide is a young graduate
 He will get married to Yinka soon

She is a graduate of the University of Lagos.
 It is located in Akoka

They will live happily thereafter. The following changes have taken place:

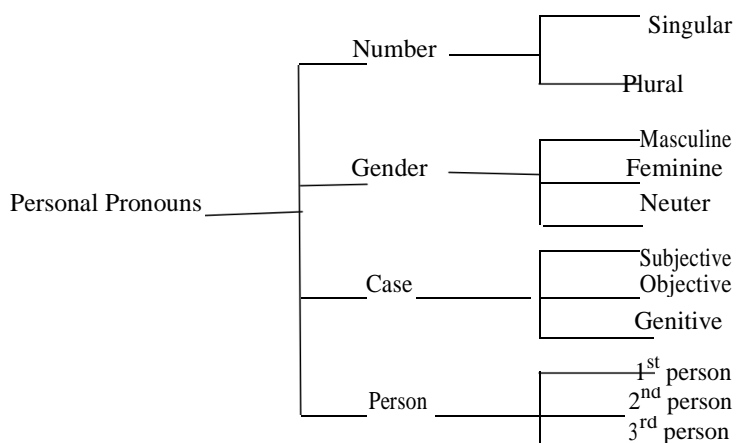
Jide	He
Yinka	She
University of Lagos	It
Jide and Yinka	They

There are many types of pronouns depending on the role(s) played in a sentence as can be seen below:

3.3.5.1 Personal Pronouns

They are about the most important subclass of pronouns. They exhibit four features namely:-

- (a) Number
 - (b) Gender
 - (c) Case
 - (d) Person
- (a) **Number:** Number subdivides personal pronouns into two: singular, that is, singular pronouns He, I, it e.t.c. and plurality, that is, plural pronouns they, we e.t.c.
- (b) **Gender:** - This subdivides personal pronouns into three: masculine pronouns for male – He; feminine pronouns for female – she; and neuter pronouns for non-living things and non humans – it.
- (c) **Case** – This subdivides personal pronouns into three: subjective for subjects; e.g. I, we, etc; objective for objects; e.g. us, her etc. and genitive which subdivides into two – adjective e.g. my, our etc, and possessive e.g. mine, hers, ours etc.
- (d) **Person:** - This subdivides personal pronouns into three: 1 person – the speaker(s); e.g. I we 2nd person – the person spoken to or the listener e.g. you, and 3rd person – the person or thing referred to or spoken about. We may use this diagram to illustrate more clearly:



Everything that has been said about personal pronouns can be captured in this larger diagram.

	Subjective	Objective	Adjectival Genitive	Possessive
1 st	I	me	my	mine
2 nd	you	you	your	yours
3 rd	He/She /It	him/her/it	his/her/its	his/hers/its
1 st	we	us	our	ours
2 nd	you	you	your	yours
3 rd	They	them	their	theirs

3.3.5.2 Indefinite Pronouns

They do not refer to particular things or persons. In other words, they refer to an indefinite number of people or things. They include, someone, nobody, anything, anybody, everybody, many, few, either, neither, all, e.t.c.

Most indefinite pronouns are used in the singular number. For example,

Everybody is invited to my birthday party

No one knows tomorrow except God

Anything you offer me is good

Someone is not telling the truth in this matter

Each of the players is a champion

Someone should tell this woman to shut up

These days, however, because of sexism and caution on sexist language, these indefinite pronouns now take plural verbs though they sound somewhat ungrammatical. For example,

Someone has left their pen on the floor
Everybody keeps their problems to themselves
 If anyone is in doubt, they should consult me
Everyone should mind their business here

3.3.5.3 Reflexive Pronouns

They are so named because they refer to another element (pronoun or noun) earlier mentioned within the clause. In most cases, personal pronouns + self (for singular) and + selves (plural) give us reflexive pronouns.

These personal pronouns must, however, be in their adjectival case before they can take up this extra duty.

This is called co-referentiality in text linguistics. For example,
 The boy killed himself

The students carried out the assignment themselves
 Can't you solve that riddle yourself
 Nigerian politicians destroyed democracy themselves

3.3.5.4 Relative Pronouns

These usually link adjectival or relative clauses or rankshifted clauses to their antecedents. The antecedent of a relative pronoun is the noun that comes before it. They include who, whom, that, which, whose, what

- ü This is the man whose daughter eloped with a man
- ü The bag that was stolen has been found by the police
- ü The old man who was rushed to the hospital is Mary's grandfather
- ü The bag which you gave me has lost its value.
- ü The man whom we mistook for the Pastor is the Pastor's friend

3.3.5.5 Interrogative Pronouns

These are pronouns that we use to ask questions. They include:- who, whom, why, when, where, which, what, whose. They usually start interrogative sentences, and these sentences end with a question mark.

For example,
 What is your name?

Who stole my bag?
Where are you now?
Whose are those pairs of shoes?
Which of the items is yours?
Why did you do it?

3.3.5.6 Demonstrative Pronouns

They are pronouns that point out the location of what they represent. They are, 'this' for singular and near object, with 'these' as the plural; and 'that' for singular and far objects with 'those' as the plural.

Examples are as follow:-

This is my house
These are my houses
That is a duster
Those are fine cars.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

Discuss 6 types of English pronouns you know, giving two examples of each.

3.3.6 Preposition

A preposition is a word that has the responsibility of showing the relationship that exists between two elements, especially, nominals in a sentence. They include in, on, for, from, to, under, around, about, with, by, below, e.t.c. For example these sentences:-

The bird is on the tree
We boarded the bus at Agboju bus stop
The match will kick off at 4pm.
You have the honour of choosing between the two oranges
He has lived in America for four years.
The ball went over the bar
I met him by the gate this morning etc.

3.3.7 Conjunction

A conjunction is a word that joins or links words, phrases, groups, clauses and even sentences. There are four types: coordinating conjunction, subordinating conjunction, correlative conjunction and semi-coordinating conjunction.

3.3.7.1 Coordinating Conjunctions

They join elements of equal grammatical status or rank. That is, two independent clauses. For example,

Janet and James are sibling
She or he will watch the match live
I will see my mother and I will also see a few friends.

3.3.7.2 Correlative Conjunctions

They come in pairs, and are used to join structural elements. For example,

Both food and money were made available
Neither the teacher nor the students are to be held
responsible Either you leave now or I lock you up.

3.3.7.3 Semi-Coordinating Conjunctions

They include as well as, as much as, along with, rather than, e.t.c. for example,

she dances as well as plays football
The principal, along with the students, was honoured.

3.3.7.4 Subordinating Conjunctions

They connect clauses of unequal value or status, that is, an independent and a dependent clause. For example,

If it rains, I will stay indoors

The carpenter could not work on the roof because there was a patient in the hospital.
She was eating when I entered.

3.3.8 Interjections

This is a word that is used to show emotions or feelings of joy, anger, surprise, shock, e.t.c. They are accompanied by exclamation mark (!). For example,

Wow! I was almost robbed
Oh! It's good to be home.
Oh dear! You saved my life.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5

Discuss the main function prepositions and conjunctions perform in sentences.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have looked at the morpheme and the word with emphasis on their differences. For more on this, please check modules 1 and 2 above.

In this unit, we looked at the morpheme and word. We noted that meaning starts in the language with word. We went on to discuss word classes – Nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns and interjections. We also attempted to look at the different kinds or subclasses of word classes, with copious examples.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 6

1. With suitable examples, discuss the following:

- (a) Adverb of time
- (b) Adverb of manner
- (c) Conjunctions and its types

2. With the aid of suitable examples, discuss the following:-

- (a) Personal pronouns
- (b) Indefinite pronouns
- (c) Reflexive pronouns

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have studied:

- more about the morpheme;
- more about the word;
- the difference(s) between the morpheme and the word;
- word classes; and
- types of word classes and their subdivisions.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Mention two similarities between the morpheme and the word.
2. Explain two major differences between the morpheme and the word.
3. Discuss verbs and types of verbs known to you.
4. Differentiate between attributive and predicative adjectives.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 MORPHEME AND LEXIS, VOCABULARY AND LEXEME

In this unit, we shall look at the relationship between morpheme, lexis, vocabulary and lexeme. For example, we have known what the morpheme is, how we can identify it, how we can break it down, that is, break a word down to its morphemic components, and the relationship the morpheme has with some other grammatical units in English. Moreover, the knowledge of the vocabulary of English will no doubt enhance the retention of words and precision in their use. This is very vital in the study of vocabulary in English.

The term lexis has been used to define all the words of a language while the lexicon is said to be a collection of all the words in a language which are recorded in a dictionary. Besides, we must understand that the study of vocabulary has not been taken seriously in linguistics, and thus has been taken for granted. However, in the 70s, things changed and since then genuine interest in the field has surfaced. It is this interest that has made it possible to research into the area and discoveries have been monumental. Attempt will also be made in this unit to discuss vocabulary in English as well as lexeme.

The unit is arranged as follows:-

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 What is Lexis?
 - 3.2 Characteristics of the English Lexis
 - 3.3 Why is Lexis Different from Grammar?
 - 3.4 Why is Lexis Different from Morpheme?
 - 3.5 Lexical Units in English
 - 3.6 What is Vocabulary?
 - 3.7 How is it Organized in the English Language?
 - 3.8 Definition of Lexeme
 - 3.9 Examples of Lexemes
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we discussed the morpheme and the word. We also looked at the differences that exist between the morpheme and the word. For example, we emphasized that one or more morphemes give us a word being the unit immediately above it. In this unit, emphasis shifts to the technical items called lexis, vocabulary and lexeme.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify lexis in a stretch of utterance
- mention some of the characteristics of the English lexis
- mention the difference(s) between morpheme and lexis
- mention the difference(s) between lexis and grammar
- identify how the vocabulary in English is organized
- interpret vocabulary in English
- mention the difference between the morpheme and vocabulary
- identify lexeme in English with examples.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Lexis?

The lexis could be defined as all the items in a language which a dictionary attempts to list giving their meanings in an alphabetical order. We could go on to say that all the operational words or items in a language are the lexes of that language. For example, the item 'school' is a lexis in English. The dictionary defines a 'school' as a 'place where children are taught'. Hence this question is appropriate, 'which school do you go to'?

The meaning of the above is that what we erroneously refer to as words are not words in the real sense, but lexes. This is because any item that can be found listed in the dictionary with its meaning, pronunciation, origin, word-class, usage; etc is referred to as lexis (singular and lexes plural). It also carries semantic meaning. For instance, the item 'charlatan' is defined as 'someone who pretends to have special skills or knowledge'. It is pronounced as / ʃɑ:lətən /. The usage is 'The man is a complete charlatan, only in it for the money.' It is a noun. All the above are the dictionary entry for the item 'charlatan', thus, the item 'charlatan' is a lexis in the English language.

A distinction is made between lexical words and functional words. Lexical words are also called content words, and they have meaning in isolation, whereas functional words which are also called grammatical words only become meaningful when they are attached to or used with content words in discourse.

In the lexes of the English language, Nouns, Verbs, Adverbs and Adjectives are classified as content or lexical words because they carry meanings. Examples of such lexical or content word are drawn from content or lexical categories as follows:-

1. *run* / rʌ n /, (verb) past tense; *ran* / ræn/, past participle *run* / rʌ n/ means to move quickly on foot by moving your legs more quickly than when you are walking.
2. *story* /stɔ ri/, (noun); means a description of how something happened, that is intended to entertain people, and may be true or imaginary.
3. *room* / ru:m /, (noun); means a part of the inside of a building that has its own walls, floor and ceiling.
4. *rest* /rest/, (verb); means to stop working or doing an activity for a time and sit down or lie down to relax.
5. *rest* /rest /, (noun); means a period of time when you are not doing anything tiring and you can relax or sleep.

3.2 Characteristics of the English Lexes

The English lexis has the following distinct characteristics.

1. It usually has a pronounceable or graphic form. This means that every lexis has a way it is pronounced as supplied in the English dictionary. For example, the following lexes have the following pronunciation and graphic forms:

(a)	come	/kʌ m/
(b)	brother	/ brʌ ðə(r)/
(c)	bank	/ bæŋk /
(d)	mat	/ mæt /
(e)	go	/gəv/

2. It fulfils a grammatical role in a sentence

All English lexis have a grammatical role to play in a sentence and even in isolation. For instance, the underlined lexis are members, verbs, nouns, articles adjectives, adverbs in the following examples:

- (a) He comes to school regularly (verb)
- (b) Jide is a good friend of mine (Noun)
- (c) The National Open University of Nigeria (Noun)
has many campuses (Article)
- (d) It is interesting to be a lecturer (Adjective)
- (e) The lady sings beautifully (Adverb)

3. It carries semantic meaning

The English lexis especially content or lexical ones have meaning. Their meanings are always listed in the dictionary. For examples, the following lexes have their dictionary meanings written by their sides.

- (a) Chamber – an enclosed space, especially in one’s body or inside a machine; a room used for a special purpose especially an unpleasant one.
- (b) Glad pleased and happy about something.
- (c) Obscure to make something difficult to know or understand
- (d) Pen an instrument for writing or drawing with ink
- (e) penchant a liking for something, especially something that is slightly disapproved of by other people.

3.3 Why is Lexis Different from Grammar?

It is important to note that lexical studies is different from grammatical studies. We would be making a mistake if we continue to erroneously believe that they are the same thing. There could be an overlap though, but they are distinct subfield. For example, where the units of grammar are morpheme, word, group, clause and sentence (in an ascending order), the units of lexis are collocation, phrasal items, complex items compound items and simple items (in an descending order).

The grammar of the English language is a distinct field in linguistics which can be adequately described using the grammatical units. Also, the lexes of the English language that are listed in the dictionary are describable on their own merits. However, they can co-extend. For example, lexical items could relate to items identified as morpheme in these examples teach(er), brother (hood) e.t.c. where the first items in the combination are lexis in the language. Co-extension can also take place in even large units like ‘the exception that proves the rule’, ‘be a shadow of your former self’. While in some cases, there is no correlation.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain the term 'lexis'. Discuss some characteristics of the English lexis.

3.4 Why is Lexis Different from Morpheme?

The English lexis is different from morphemes in a number of ways. While the morpheme is defined as the smallest in the grammatical units of English, lexis stands as a subfield that has its describable units in the language.

Commented [AT16]: add 's'

The morpheme of English is divided into two:

Free and bound, the lexes of English have distinct units like; collocation, phrasal items, complex items, compound items and simple items.

From the above, it therefore becomes impossible for morpheme and lexis to be the same. Lexis, because of its describable components, can be studied and this is what the field, lexical studies in English, is about.

Morphology deals with the structure or shape of words, lexicology is said to be the branch of linguistics that studies and analyses the vocabulary items of a language. It also takes care of their meanings and origin.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

State two major differences between morpheme and lexis?

3.5 Lexical Units in English

Having identified lexicology (lexical studies) as a branch of linguistics, it is important to identify lexical units. Lexical units could be simple, compound, complex, phrasal or clausal (which is also called collocation span by Halliday (1996). They are explained as following from the smallest (simple lexical items) to the largest (clausal or collocational span).

1. **Simple lexical items:** They are made up of one free morpheme, and meaning does not have to be dependent on any other morphemes. Examples of simple lexical items are rat, table, school etc.

2. **Compound lexical items:** They are lexes that are derived by joining two free morphemes together. For example, free morphemes from different word classes may be joined to have a compound lexical item. Hence, we could have a combination of (i) a verb and a noun, that is,

verb + noun as in:

play + boy	=	playboy
call + girl	=	call girl,
woman + doctor	=	woman doctor

- (ii) an adjective and a noun, that is, adjective + noun as in:

hot + dog = hotdog

hot + pants = hot pants etc.; it is important to note that the meaning of the derived word may not be deduced from the component parts. For example, the compound lexis hotdog has no reference to dog or the state of being hot. It refers to a cooked sausage in a long round piece of bread.

3. **Complex lexical items:** They are made up of more than two free morphemes which are either written together or hyphenated to connote an idea. In some cases, they could be a single lexis as a synonym. Examples include, the complex items 'newspaperman' which also means a newspaper 'vendor'. Other examples include 'down-to-earth' serious or important; 'an eye for an eye' which is revenge; 'housemanship' training, 'house of prayer' or 'house of worship' church, e.t.c.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Discuss, with examples, 4 lexical units you know.

Commented [AT17]: All these cannot come under morphology. As a grammarian, my knowledge of the field tells me that they belong to syntax

3.6 What is Vocabulary?

Technically, the vocabulary is said to be all the lexical items used by a particular person or all the items that exist in a subject. This can also be referred to as lexicon. Thus, lexicon and vocabulary are synonyms.

Language is not only dynamic but equally enriches itself by borrowing. The assumption, therefore, is that it is difficult if not impossible for a speaker of a given language to know all lexes in any given language. In that instance, we say the number of all the lexes he knows constitute his vocabulary. Thus speaker A may have a richer and distinct vocabulary when compared to another speaker B.

With given disciplines, however, vocabulary refers to all the specialized words found in the register. The vocabulary found in medicine for example certainly differs from those found in the legal register. With a list of lexical items, therefore, one could identify what lexical items of the list will collocate in each of the registers. Vocabulary could also be words used in a particular subject or the list of words with explanation of their meanings in a book for learning foreign languages.

3.7 How is Vocabulary Organized in English

The content of the English lexis is words.. In other words, the term lexis is used to refer to all the words in any given language. This discussion takes us back to **WORDS**. Words have been adequately discussed in unit 1 of this module. You may have to go back to unit 1 to read up on words.

However, we need to emphasise here that the meaning field of a particular thing, concept, notion or activity is constituted by all the words that relate or can relate specifically to the thing, concept, notion or activity. Hence, the lexicon of fields consists of word classes which have been discussed extensively in unit 1.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

State clearly your understanding of vocabulary and how it is organised in English.

3.8 Definition of Lexeme

Ajulo (1994:104) defines a lexeme as “A name given by some linguists to a basic unit of the vocabulary of a language, as opposed to a grammatical unit such as the morpheme and a semantic unit such as the sememe. From this definition, the word, basically implies that different

“grammatical lexes” (i.e. lexes which have taken up some grammatical properties in discourse thus becoming words) will be considered different forms of the same lexeme, their different shapes notwithstanding. Thus, the underlined words in the sentences below constitute several forms of the lexeme, **WORK**:

1. I work very hard.
2. She works with the leading insurance company.
3. Bola is working.
4. Mrs Aina has worked for 26 years.

Thus, ‘work’, ‘works’, ‘working’, and ‘worked’ are forms of the lexeme ‘work’. Lexeme therefore, is a new term suggested for the basic unit from which several words having different shapes but the same referents are derived. It is a term introduced by Whorf (1939 cited in Ajulo 1994:51).

Fundamentally, lexeme could be likened to other units identified at different levels of linguistic analysis (i.e. the phoneme, morpheme and sememe). The term ‘bank’, from our examples will have as many distinct lexemes as there are its different meanings.

3.9 Examples of Lexemes

Copious examples of lexemes are given below

Lexeme ‘Write’ ----- write, writes, writing, wrote, written

I will write a letter tomorrow.
 She writes a letter daily.
 He is writing a note.
 The teacher wrote on the board.
 My father would have written a memo by this afternoon.

Lexeme ‘Sing’----- sing, sings, singing, sang, sung.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5

1. Mention two features of the English lexis.
2. What do you understand by collocation span or clausal lexical items?
3. Mention two units each in the grammatical and lexical units or levels in English in their ascending order.
4. Do you agree that lexical studies is a distinct branch in linguistics? Give reasons for your answer.

5. What do you understand by vocabulary?
6. Mention three examples of lexemes and give examples of other forms.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have looked at the meaning of the technical term *lexis*, and we said that it is a distinct branch of linguistics which has to be studied on its own merit. We also looked at the characteristics of the English *lexis*. Among other things, we said that the English *lexis* has a pronounceable or graphic form; that it fulfils a grammatical role in a sentence since it belongs to a particular word – class; and that it carries a semantic meaning. We demonstrated that every *lexis* in English has a dictionary meaning, origin and other valuable features. We have also studied vocabulary; how it is organized in English, vocabulary and meaning relations; vocabulary and sense relations, and some registers in English. Some of these were done with diagrams where necessary so as to paint a vivid picture of the topic of discussion. We also looked at the *lexeme* with examples.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have studied:

- What *lexes* are in English
- The characteristics of the English *lexis*
- The difference(s) between the *lexis* and grammar
- The difference(s) between the *lexis* and the *morpheme*
- Lexical units or levels in English with copious examples.
- What vocabulary is
- How vocabulary is organized
- The relationship between vocabulary and *lexemes*
- What a *lexeme* is; and
- Examples of *lexemes* in the English language.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What do you understand by lexicology in English?
2. Explain the difference between phrasal lexical items and complex lexical items.
3. Give 5 examples each of:
 - (a) simple lexical items
 - (b) compound lexical items
 - (c) complex lexical items

4. Give the forms of the lexemes listed below:
- a. grace
 - b. jump
 - c. run
 - d. leave
 - e. ugly
 - f. bite
 - g. dig
5. What do you understand by lexeme in English?

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MODULE 2 MORPHOLOGY, PHONOLOGY, SYNTAX AND LEXIS

- Unit 1 Morphology, Its Environment, English Plural Morpheme & Past Tense Morpheme
- Unit 2 Morphology and Syntax
- Unit 3 The Question of Word and Lexical Meaning
- Unit 4 Classifying English Lexis into Types
- Unit 5 Morphological Parsing and the Lexicon

UNIT 1 MORPHOLOGY AND ENVIRONMENTS

In this unit, we shall discuss the relationships that exist between morphology and phonology. In other words, we are going into what linguists have called morphophonemics. We must understand that when pieces of morphological materials are strung together, they have a way of affecting each/one (an) other phonologically. We shall also examine the role phonology plays in determining how the plural marker /z/ is pronounced. We shall also attempt to state phonological rules with examples of morphemes that conform to such rules as well as the role phonology plays in determining how the English past tense morphemes are pronounced.

The unit is arranged as follows:-

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Environmental Effects
 - 3.2 Voiceless Consonants (Rule 1)
 - 3.3 Voiced Sounds (Rule 2)
 - 3.4 Sibilants (Rule 3)
 - 3.5 Vowel Change (Rule 4)
 - 3.6 No Change (Rule 5)
 - 3.7 Word Change (Rule 6)
 - 3.8 Voiceless Consonants (Rule 1)
 - 3.9 Voiced Sounds (Rule 2)
 - 3.10 Vowel Change (Rule 3)
 - 3.10.1 Vowel Change (1) (Rule 3.1)
 - 3.10.2 Vowel Change (2) (Rule 3.2)
 - 3.10.3 Vowel Change (3) (Rule 3.3)

3.11	No Change	(Rule 4)
3.12	With Stops	(Rule 5)
3.13	Stops or Plosives and English Past Tense Morpheme	(rule 6)
4.0	Conclusion	
5.0	Summary	
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment	
7.0	References/Further Reading	

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Linguistic branches – morphology, phonology, semantics and syntax are interwoven. They all have a way of affecting one another especially in a stretch of utterance. Thus, there are rules: syntactic, morphological, semantic and phonological which are dependent in certain environments which we shall see in this unit and other units in this module.

In this unit, therefore, we shall explain environmental constraints on morphological realization. In other words, we shall be looking at the effect of the environment on the pronunciation of morphemes. We shall further shift emphasis from mere postulation to exact demonstration of phonological rules with English words. Phonology affects morphology in two ways. These are in the way past tense morpheme is pronounced and how plural morpheme is pronounced. We shall conclude the section by looking at the interplay between morphology and phonology with special emphasis on phonology and the English past tense morpheme.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state the meaning of phonology
- identify the relationship that exists between phonology and morphology
- mention functions of phonological rules
- discuss how plural morphemes in voiceless consonants are pronounced
- discuss how plural morphemes in voiced sounds are pronounced
- discuss how plural morphemes in sibilants are pronounced
- explain what is meant by vowel change in words
- explain what is meant by no change in words
- explain what is meant by word change
- state how past tense morphemes in voiceless consonants are pronounced
- state how past tense morphemes in voiced sound are pronounced

- discuss what is meant by vowel change in past tense morphemes
- discuss what is meant by no change in past tense morphemes.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Environmental Effects

Knowing a language involves having the knowledge of the phonology or sound system of that language. This helps us in identifying the phonetic segments that occur in the language, and the ways in which they are patterned.

Phonology deals with the study of the occurrence, organization, distribution and pronunciation of speech sounds. It is also seen as the study of sound patterns in a language and the interrelatedness between sounds.

Phonology and morphology are related in that while morphology deals with morphemes, that is, word building, phonology deals with the understanding of sounds of languages and their relevance with respect to how they should be used appropriately in communication. The relevant connection between morphology and phonology therefore pertains to the ways in which certain morphemes are pronounced or articulated. Constraints of this sort can be found in both derivational and inflectional morphemes.

This is what morpho-phonemics is all about.

The major function of phonological rule in morphology is to provide the phonetic information necessary for the pronunciation of words. The application of rules in this way is called a derivation.

Some of these phonological rules affect either the plural markers /-s/, thereby making it to be realized as any of these

e.g. book + s = books / buks /
 e.g. bag + s = bags / bægz /
 e.g. box + es = boxes / bɒ ksɪ z /

and the regular past tense marker (-ed), thereby making it to be realized as any of these:

/d/ e.g. bag + ed = bagged / bægt /
 /t/ e.g. jump + ed = jumped / dʒʌ mpt /
 /ɪd/ e.g. want + ed = wanted / wɒ ntɪ d /

We have only given examples to show that truly morphology and phonology are interwoven in the way morphemes or words are pronounced. We are careful not to state the rules categorically because it is not part of our objectives. In the subsequent units, this will be taken care of adequately.

3.2 Voiceless Consonants and Morphemes (rule 1)

A consonant is said to be voiceless when during its production or pronunciation, the vocal cords are drawn apart and air is allowed to pass through without vibration. This state of non-vibration of the vocal cords is a voiceless state. These phonemes are thus said to be voiceless in English. /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /h/, /s/, /t/, etc.

The following realizations take place.

tap + s = taps /tæps/
 book + s = books /bʊks/
 state + s = states /steɪts/

From the above, this rule can be stated:

(-s) → /s/ voiceless consonants #)
 in words, the plural morpheme (-z) is realized as phoneme /s/ in an environment where a voiceless consonant precedes it.

3.3 Voiced Sounds and Morphemes (rule 2)

A sound is said to be voiced when during its articulation, the vocal cords come so close that air forces itself through it. This causes vibration and sounds accompanied by vibration are called voiced sound. All vowels are voiced in English.

These consonant phonemes are voiced:

/b/, /d/, /g/, /v/, /dʒ/, /z/, /dʒ/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, etc.

The following realizations take place

bag + s = bags /bægz/
 day + s = days /deɪz/
 comb + s = combs /kəʊmbz/

/
 father + s = fathers /fɑːðə(r)z/

From the above, this rule can be stated.

(-s) → /z/ (voiced sound)#)

Commented [AT18]: Wrong transcription: the sound /b/ is silent and should not be reflected.

In words, the plural morpheme (-s) is realized as /z/ in an environment where a voiced sound precedes it.

3.4 Sibilants and Morphemes (rule 3)

A sibilant sound is any of these sounds /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/. The following realizations take place.

Watch + es	=	watches	/ wɔʃtʃɪz /
punch + es	=	punches	/ pʌŋtʃɪz /
box + es	=	boxes	/ bɒksɪz /
bus + es	=	buses	/ bʌsɪz /

From the above, we can generate this rule:-

(-s) → /ɪz/ (sibilant) #)

In words, the plural morpheme (-s) is realized as /ɪz/ in an environment where a sibilant precedes it.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain 2 morphophonemic rules that govern plural morpheme realisation in words.

3.5 Vowel Change (rule 4)

Some words do not take an 's' to form their plural; they only go through inflexion. That is, they experience vowel change. For example,

man + s	=	men	/ men /
foot + s	=	feet	/ fi:t /
tooth + s	=	teeth	/ ti:θ /

From the above, this rule can be generated→

(-s) → (V1 → V2) /C – C #)

In words, the plural morpheme (-s) is realized as a vowel change in an environment where the vowel is between two consonants.

3.6 No Change in Vowel (rule 5)

Some words do not take as 's' to form their plural; they remain the way they are. For example:-

Sheep + s	=	sheep	/ ʃi:p /
Fish + s	=	fish	/ fɪʃ /

From the above, we can generate this rule

$(-s) \rightarrow (\emptyset)$

In words, the plural morpheme (-s) is realized as a zero morpheme.

3.7 Word Change (rule 6)

Some words form their plurals by changing to new words completely.

For example,

child + s	=	children	/ tʃɪldrən /
ox + s	=	oxen	/ ɔksn /

This is stated as a rule below:

$(-s) \rightarrow (w1 \quad w2)$

In words, the plural morpheme (-s) is realized as a total word change.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Discuss, with examples, 4 morphophonemic rules of English.

3.8 Voiceless Consonants and Past Tense Morphemes (rule 1)

Voiceless consonants, /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /s/, /tʃ/, etc display this behaviour with the English past tense

Morpheme (-ed). For example,

stop + ed	=	stopped	/ stɒpt /
dance + e	=	danced	/ dænst /
walk + ed	=	walked	/ wɔ:kt /
hiss + ed	=	hissed	/ hɪst /
watch + ed	=	watched	/ wɔtʃt /

From the above, we can generate this rule.

$(-ed) \rightarrow /t/$ (voiceless consonant.....#)

In words, the English past tense morpheme (-ed) is realized as /t/ in an environment where a voiceless consonant precedes it.

3.9 Voiced Sounds and English Past Tense Morpheme (rule 2)

English voiced consonants, /b/, /d/, /g/, /v/, /z/, /h/, /d/, /m/, /n/, e.t.c. and all English vowels (all English vowels are voiced) behave this way with the English past tense morpheme (-ed). For example,

play + ed = played /pleid/
 ban + ed = banned /bænd/
 judge + ed = judged /dʒʌdʒd/ e.t.c.

From the above, this rule can be generated.

(-ed) → /d/ (voiced sound#)

In words, the English past tense morpheme (-ed) is realized as /d/ in an environment where a voiced sound (whether consonant or vowel) precedes it.

3.10 Vowel Change (rule 3)

Some English words change their vowels to form their past tense.

They are of three categories.

take + ed = took /tu:k/
 run + ed = ran /ræn/
 come + ed = came /keim/
 will + ed = came /keim/

From this, we can generate this phonological rule:

(-ed) → (V1 V2) (C – C #)

3.10.1 Vowel Change (1) (Rule 3.1)

In words, the English past tense morpheme (-ed) is realized as a change in vowel in an environment where the vowel is between two consonants.

3.10.2 Vowel Change (2) (Rule 3.2)

Some English words change their vowel to form their past tense morpheme with the word starting with a consonant and ending with a vowel. For example:

see + ed = saw /sɔ:/

tear + ed = tore /tɔː/

From this, we can generate this phonological rule:

(-ed) → (V1 → V2) / (C __ #)

In words, the English past tense morpheme (-ed) is realized as a change in vowel where a consonant precedes the changing vowel.

3.10.3 Vowel Change (3) (Rule 3.3)

Some English words change their vowel to form their past tense morpheme with the word starting with a vowel and ending with a consonant. For example:

eat + ed = ate /eɪt/

Commented [AT19]: Check all your transcription pls

From the above, we can generate this rule.

(-ed) → (V1 → V2) (#- C#)

In words, the English past tense morpheme (-ed) is realized as a change in vowel in an environment where the changing vowel precedes the consonant which is in word final position.

3.11 No Change (rule 4)

Some English words retain their base or bare infinitive forms for their past tense form. For example

put + ed	=	put	/pʊt/
cut + ed	=	cut	/kʌt/
shut + ed	=	shut	/ʃʌt/
hurt + ed	=	hurt	/hɜːt/
beat + ed	=	beat	/bi:t/

From the above, this phonological rule can be generated.

(-ed) → [θ] (C / V, /).....#)

In words, the English past tense morpheme is realized as no change in the word or vowel (zero morpheme) in an environment where vowels /v/ or /v/ is between two consonants.

3.12 With Stops (Rule 5)

Some English words form their past tense morpheme by changing the morphological structure or shape. For example: (rule 5).

do + ed = did / dɪd /
go + ed = went / went /

(-ed) → (w1 → w2)

In words, the English past tense morpheme is realized as a word changing to another word or word one becomes word two.

3.13 Stops or Plosives and English Past Tense Morpheme (rule 6)

Stops or plosives are produced when there is total obstruction in the oral cavity; this leads to build up of air and then followed by a sudden release in the manner of a minor explosion. They have a way of affecting (-ed) morpheme as in these examples.

want + ed = wanted / wɒntɪd /
land + ed = landed / lændɪd /
need + ed = needed / niːdɪd /

From the above, this phonological rule can be generated.

(-ed) → /ɪd/ (stops or plosive)...#

In words, the English past tense morpheme (-ed) is realized as /ɪd/ in an environment where a stop or plosive sound precedes it.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

State, with 2 examples for each, 4 rules that affect the formation of past tense morphemes in English.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have tried to discuss the interesting relationship that exists between morphology and phonology. We also gave the function of phonological rules as well as cited some examples in our discussion. We have also used phonological rules to explain morphological realizations in words. We noted that some morphemes are phonologically marked because of the environment they found themselves, thus, buttressing the fact that phonological rules are important tools in morphology. Hence, we stated rules for how voiceless consonants affect morphemes; how voiced sounds affect

morphemes, how sibilants affect morphemes e.t.c. Lastly, we have used phonological rules to explain the English past tense morpheme. We also created rules and used our rules, in a number of ways, to explain how voiceless consonants affect English past tense morpheme, how voiced sounds affect English past tense morpheme e.t.c.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt:

- what is meant by phonology,
- how morphology and phonology interact,
- phonological rules of the past tense and plural markers at the introductory level.
- voiceless consonants and their effect on English plural morpheme.
- voiced sounds and their effect on English plural morpheme
- sibilants and their effects in English plural morpheme
- phonological rules governing the above statements.
- the effect of voiceless consonants on the English morpheme.
- the effect of voiced sounds on the English morpheme
- phonological rules governing sound of the statements made above.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain what is meant by phonological rule
2. What is the relationship between morphology and phonology?
3. Explain the following with the aid of examples.
 - a. Voiceless sounds
 - b. Voiced sounds
 - c. Sibilants
4. Explain voiced sounds and morphemes with some examples.
5. Write this rule in phonological statement 'the plural morpheme (-s) is realized as phoneme /s/ in an environment where a voiceless consonant precedes it.
6. Explain what is meant by stops or plosives
7. Write this rule in phonological statement. 'the English past tense morpheme is realized as a change in vowel in an environment where the vowel is between two consonants'.
8. State the phonological rule for the examples of the English past tense morphemes below:

see + ed	=	saw
tear + ed	=	tore

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX

Words are framed by combining morphemes and an attempt to analyze them in that manner leads to morphology. Furthermore, words may be grammatically examined with respect to the relationship they hold within phrases, clauses and sentences – this is referred to as syntax. Thus to establish a link for morphology and syntax is to project an affinity for a system of structure within the grammatical unit.. This unit hopes to clear the air on this subject of interrelationship between morphology and syntax.

The unit is arranged as follows:

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Field of Morphology
 - 3.2 Early Distinction of Syntax and Morphology
 - 3.3 Modern Distinction of Syntax and Morphology
 - 3.4 Is Morphology Independent of Syntax?
 - 3.5 Nature of Morpho-syntactic Agreement
 - 3.6 The Role of Morphology in syntax
 - 3.7 Morphology and Agreement Structure
 - 3.8 Morpholexical Operations
 - 3.9 Morpho-syntactic Operations
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall examine the connection between the ways morphemes are constituted vis-à-vis their operations in syntax. To achieve this, we shall probe into the early distinction established between syntax and morphology to test-run any connection between them. We shall also examine the nature and the role of morpheme in syntax. Our focus will also shift to Spencer and Sandler's (2001) distinction between two sorts of operation which affect valency (i.e., the distribution of the roles and functions of participants within utterances), namely: (1) morpholexical operations and (2) morpho-syntactic operations. This division corresponds to the traditional distinction

between derivation (lexeme-creating) and inflection (creation of distinct forms of a given lexeme).

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- trace the scope of the field of morphology
- explain what the early distinction between syntax and morphology is
- explain the modern distinction between syntax and morphology
- explain whether morphology can do without syntax or otherwise
- define and identify agreement within utterances
- relate parts of sentences in meaningful orders
- discuss the place of morphology in syntax
- choose your words (especially verbs) acceptably to effect desired meanings on different participants within your utterance. By 'participants', I mean, controller (subject) and the target (object/adjunct)
- identify different structures that manifest to alter (but not change) the semantic content of utterances.

3.0 CONTENT

3.1 The Field of Morphology

Indeed, morphology as a field lies between grammar and lexis (grammar itself being the theoretical analytical explanation for morphological and grammatical synthesis). According to the most usual division of subjects explicated in Ajulo (1994:27)), the field of morphology in general is divided into two major subfields; one is concerned with processes of inflection (for example, with the role of the English nominal endings *-s*, *-es* plural marking), and the other with what we usually refer to as processes of word-formation. This latter subfield of which one is concerned with process of derivation (for example, the derivation of the noun 'national' from 'nation', or the adjective 'advisory' from the verb 'advise') and the other with processes of composition or compounding (for example, the formation of the compounds *blackstar*, *sunbeam* from the simple *black*, *star*, *sun*, *beam* respectively. These processes combined explain the formation of lexemes (the 'lexical word').

3.2 Early Distinction of Syntax and Morphology

Positive linguistic wars have so far been fought on the need to explain the mode of interaction between syntax and word formation. As far back

as 1960s and early 1970s, disagreement involving the nature of the Word Formation (WF) component and the lexicon provided the background for the emergence of two radically different trends within generative grammar: Generative Semantics and Lexicalism. The contention lies in the appropriate constraining of the grammar, and whether an independent, list-like lexicon is more or less costly than an extremely powerful syntax in which transformations could derive varying syntactic and morphological structures from unique semantic representations..

This issue reemerged in the mid-1980s, albeit in a slightly different guise. The corpus of work done during that decade has resulted in important structural insights into the nature of word formation, thus strengthening the claim that morphology is an autonomous module, in consonance with the phonological and the syntactic modules, and that it should be understood in these terms. Several other works were later done during that same decade which resulted in the emergence of syntactic systems capable of handling word-formation operations in a more restricted way, therefore avoiding many of the pitfalls encountered by earlier, less constrained such work.

Chomsky (1957:32) viewed syntax as the grammatical sequences of morphemes of a language. Chomsky's morpheme-based theory of syntax has come to adopt, in its most recent development, a rather more traditional view of the complementarity of syntax and inflection than it did in its earlier versions. In particular, it now treats derivational morphology as something which is not handled by the central syntactic component of the grammar, but as relating to the structure of the vocabulary (or lexicon). In general, morphology was not held to be a separate field of study. Lees (1960/1963) is a key document of the approach that attempts to explain word-formation processes in terms of syntactic transformations. For example, a compound such as *manservant* was seen to incorporate the sentence *The servant is a man*; this sentence by transformation generates the compound. Such a description is naturally highly problematic, especially when confronted with the idiosyncrasies of derived and compound words. Perhaps, this may have prompted Lyons (2005:100) to submit that it is 'inflection', not 'morphology' that opposes 'syntax' in traditional grammar.

3.3 Modern Distinction of Syntax and Morphology

Early transformational grammarians continued the structuralist tradition of blurring the morphology/syntax division. Highlighting the original but relegated role of syntax in morphology, Adejare and Adejare (2006:16) refers to syntax as a description of word-order in which grammatical and lexical (morphological) units are treated together as in

Transformational model. The modern distinction of syntax and morphology, according to which syntax deals with the distribution of words (i.e. word-forms) and morphology with their internal grammatical structure is, at first sight, very similar to the traditional distinction of syntax and inflection. But it differs from it in two respects: (a) morphology includes not only inflection, but also derivation; (b) it handles both inflection and derivation by means of roles operating upon the same basic units – morphemes (Lyons *ibid*:103). For example, as the derivation form *teacher* is made up of the two more basic units *teach* and *-er*, so the inflection form *teaching* is made up of the two more basic units (morphemes) *teach* and *-ing*. Furthermore, it is the same process of **affixation**: i.e. of adding an **affix** (either a prefix or a suffix) to a base form in each case. Looked at from this point of view, morphemes – minimal forms – are seen as the basic units of grammatical structure; and a good deal of morphology can be brought within the scope of syntax by denoting the word from its traditional position of centrality in grammatical theory.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Distinguish between syntax and morphology, using a diachronic approach.

3.4 Is Morphology Independent of Syntax?

It is within this enhanced understanding of both syntax and word-formation that the same question is now raised: is word formation an independent module, subject to restrictions all of its own, or should it be subsumed under syntax, obeying syntactic restrictions which are independently motivated? If we assume that word-formation exists as an independent component, how is the interaction between such an independent word-formation component and the syntax be characterized?

Borer (2001:152) reviews very briefly some of the answers that have been given to these two questions in recent studies, pointing out the strengths as well as the weaknesses of these positions. In six segments, he surveyed a number of important issues that have emerged in an attempt to model the relationship between word-formation and syntax. He looks exclusively at syntactic and lexicalist models, surveying a number of issues that emerge in each. He shows that the lexical/syntactic distinction interacts with another and as well resolves the issue of isomorphism, which cuts across the lexical /syntactic distinction. He also looks at mixed systems, where solutions to the interaction between morphology and syntax are given in terms of partitioning the morphological component, allowing it to accomplish its

task in slightly different ways, depending on the way in which it interacts with the syntax. The obvious conclusion is that from the range of models and possibilities, issues concerning the interaction between word-formation and syntax are not resolved, and they remain sensitive to theoretical contributions to syntactic theory on the one hand, and to WF theory and phonology on the other.

3.5 Nature of Agreement

In order to be able to generalize about different types of agreement, Corbett (2001:191) introduces a set of terms. He calls the element which determines the agreement (say the subject noun phrase) the ‘controller’. The element whose form is determined by agreement is the ‘target’. The syntactic environment in which agreement occurs is the ‘domain’ of agreement. And the respect in which there is agreement (e.g. agreement in number) he refers to as ‘agreement features’.

Traditional accounts treat agreement as a matter of syntax. However, there are well-known cases where the information available to the syntax is inadequate to allow a full account without the aid of semantics. For example, the noun *police* will only be capable of selecting its appropriate verb agreement if meaning is explicit. Thus it is possible to derive two notions of agreement from *police* if meaning is considered as the case below:

The police has issued a warning to the terrorist.
The police have issued a warning to the terrorist.

3.6 The Role of Morphology in Syntax

The role of morphology in syntax is to mark the agreement information (whether of syntactic or semantic/pragmatic origin) on the element whose form is determined by agreement. Let us illustrate with example of an utterance with agreement that related to number.

I saw two boys

In the above sentence, the morphological role of the inflection *-s* in the morpheme *boy* is made explicit by the syntactic role of *two* in the noun phrase *two boys*.

Given the nature of agreement just discussed, this means that agreement morphology will mark on target information which relates primarily to ‘controllers’. Note especially that the morphological part of agreement need not mirror syntax: dependants may agree with their heads, mirroring the syntactic dependency; but, conversely, the syntactic head

may bear agreement morphology controlled by its syntactic dependent (Nichols 1985; Zwicky 1993: 293, 303-10).

In other words, the agreement ‘controller’ may be the syntactic dependent. In summary, it is worthwhile to establish that within the morphosyntactic structures of elements within the domain of agreement, different forms can be selected in the agreement process as exemplified below:

The apples and potatoes are ripe

Here we find noun phrases headed by nouns of the same gender, both plural, and the verb takes the same plural form. Now consider phrases headed by non-human plural nouns which are of different genders, but whose subject agreement forms happen to coincide:

The dogs and the plates are there.

The gender/number marker on the verb is that corresponding to all the plural genders. The regularity here is that if noun phrases headed by plural nouns which would take the same target gender form are conjoined, then that ‘target’ gender form will be the preferred form. For further discussion on agreement morphology see Spencer & Arnold (2001); Zwicky (1991); Gvozianovic (1991) and Carstairs – McCarthy (1992).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Describe the way agreement links syntax and morphology.

3.7 Morphology and Agreement Structure

In English, we can say (1a) or (1b):

- 1(a) The mother sang for the child.
- (b) The mother sang the child a song.

However, although we can say (2a), we can’t say (2b):

- 2(a) My mum put salt in the stew.
- (b) *My mum put the stew in the salt. And

while we can say (3b), we can’t say (3a):

- 3(a) *The boy filled water into his belly.
- (b) The boy filled his belly with water.

Further, we can say (4a) or (4b):

- 4(a) Sola broke the glass.
- (b) The glass broke.

Yet, although we can say (5a), we can't say (5b):

- 5(a) He fenced his house.
- (b) *His house fenced.

Examples such as these raise the question of how participants which are entailed by the lexical meaning of predicates are made explicit in the morpho-syntactic representation, and whether and under what conditions they may remain implicit: that is, issues of valency. In addition, they raise the question of alternations: that is, where two morphologically relate (or even identical) predicates differ in their lexical semantics and in the way participants are realized in the morpho-syntactic and, in particular, in morphology. This facet of the morphology – syntax interface has come to be referred to as 'argument structure'.

3.8 Morpholexical Operations

This is a 'meaning-changing' operation that alters the semantic content of predicates. It is the hybrid of morphology and lexical semantics. Let me exemplify this with the examples below:

- (a) The blacksmith hammered the metal.
- (b) The blacksmith hammered the metal flat.

This example illustrates an operation which is appropriate for verbs in certain semantic clues, and adds a semantic argument to a predicate. This argument expresses the resultant state, *flatness*, of the object, *metal*. Evidently, the resultative construction increases the syntactic valency of the predicate – in (8b), *hammer* in the resultative complex *hammer flat* has a surface syntactic valency of three. The claim that result predication is a semantic or morpholexical operation is based on the assumption that the syntactically bivalent predicate illustrated in (8a) expresses a relation between just two semantic arguments, without entailing an end result. That is, (8b) crucially means that the blacksmith flattened the metal by means of hammering activity. This can be further illustrated below:

They drank the teapot dry.

Since one cannot drink a teapot, the above utterance must be interpreted as 'they rendered the teapot dry by drinking (from it)'.

3.9 Morpho-syntactic Operations

This ‘meaning-preserving’ operation alters the syntactic manifestation of a given semantic representation, particularly the way that it is mapped on to grammatical relations.

Two constructs in English, dative shift and passive, are often taken to be examples of morpho-syntactic operations. These are illustrated in (10) and (11):

1. Dative Shift

- (a) Chuks gave some money to his mother.
- (b) Chuks gave his mother some money.

2. Passive

- (a) Chuks killed the goat
- (b) The goat was killed (by Chuks).

Each operation brings about an alteration in the morpho-syntactic manifestation of the semantic dependents of a predicate, but they do not alter the basic semantics of the predicate itself. The first of these alternations, dative shift, appears to involve a simple alternation between two different syntactic manifestations of the same semantic roles. In (1a), the direct object realizes the Theme role, and in (1b), it realizes the Recipient. Now, other things being equal, you might expect morpho-syntactic operations to be unconstrained by the semantics of the predicate. This is largely true of the passive in English for instance. On the other hand, dative shift is restricted in applicability to verbs of transfer respecting rather subtle semantic constraints.

Turning to the set of examples under passive constructions, it is common to treat passivisation as a morpho-syntactic operation involving the suppression of the external argument, or most prominent argument. If passive is a morpho-syntactic operation, you would expect that the semantics of the predicate would remain constraint across the voice alternation. A consequence of this in English and many other languages is that the Agent is available semantically, and enjoys a certain presence syntactically without necessarily being syntactically expressed. In many languages, this suppressed argument may be expressed as an oblique or an adjunct of some sort, as in the English optional *by* phrase in (2b). If the passivization process is simply one of syntactic suppression (as opposed to downright deletion), you would expect the first argument to be available for processes which are semantically rather than syntactically governed, and indeed this seems to be the case.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. State and discuss two morpho-syntactic operations you have learnt about in this course.
2. State a clear distinction between morpho-lexical and morpho-syntactic operations of words.

4.0 CONCLUSION

So far, we have traced the relationship between syntax and morphology. We have pinpointed the reformations that take place as well as established the gap that exists in terms of the extent of morphological dependency on syntax. An attempt is also made to clear the air on the subject of morphology and agreement. The process is steeped in our appreciation of the role of word-formation in making utterances appear correct and intelligible. It has been largely established that meaning cannot be divorced from syntax or else what will be left will only spell 'disagreement' among constituents of sentences. You have learnt that valency alternations can be of two distinct types: morpholexical operations at a semantic level and morpho-syntactic operations at a level of argument structure. The morpholexical operations are likely to be semantically or lexically restricted, and to bring with them semantic changes which cannot always be predicted from the valency shift as such.

Morpho-syntactic operations are more often semantically unrestricted, and are thus often defined solely in terms of input/output conditions on argument-structure representations, independently of the semantic representation. They generally do not give rise to additional semantic effects.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have studied the following:

- the summary of the scope of morphology;
- the early and modern distinction of morphology and syntax;
- the latest position of scholars relating to the autonomy of morphology or otherwise.
- how to make sentence parts agree (and I do hope you can still remember the technical names given to each parts of a sentence that must agree);
- the role of semantics (i.e. meaning) in syntax; and
- the place of morphology (i.e word-formation in agreement process).

- how to choose words to change the roles and functions of participants within utterances; and
- how change of structures can affect (but not change) the meanings of utterances.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Assess the contribution of modern grammar to our understanding of the relationship between morphology and syntax.
2. In what ways is the modern distinction of syntax and morphology different from the traditional distinction of syntax and inflection?
3. Is morphology independent of syntax? If yes, how. If no, why?
4. Account for the ungrammaticality in the sentence below: *The boys has won a contract.
5. Define the following terms – controller, target, domain of agreement, agreement features.
6. What role does morphology play in syntax?
7. What is the role of meaning in agreement?
8. Discuss how choice of words can change the roles of participants within utterances.
9. To what extent do dative shift and passive manifest to alter the semantic content of utterances.

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UNIT 3 THE QUESTION OF WORD AND LEXICAL MEANING

In this unit, we shall look at word and lexis and see their relationship with morphology.

The unit has been organized as follows:

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Why Study Lexis in English?
 - 3.2 The Nature of Lexicon (in Word Meaning)
 - 3.3 Features of Words
 - 3.4 The Lexis and Other Units of Grammar
 - 3.4.1 The Lexis and the Word
 - 3.5 Lexis as a Level of Linguistic Description
 - 3.6 Lexical Collocation and Set
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The study of lexis is the study of the vocabulary of languages in all its aspects: words and their meanings, how words relate to one another, how they may combine with one another, and the relationships between vocabulary and other areas of the description of languages (phonology, morphology and syntax). Morphology, as has been carefully defined in several units, relates to the study of different methods of forming words.

If the word is an identifiable unit of a language then it must be possible to isolate a core, stable meaning that enables its consistent use by a vast number of users in many contexts over long periods of time. Linguists have attempted to see the meaning of a word in terms of the features that compose it (componential features) and the process of analysis of those features (lexical composition). Most important in this respect is the work of Katz and Fodor (1963).

As with morphemes, specific characteristics of the referents of words, serve to differentiate between different word senses. For instance, to define a word orthographically would entail a clarification of the role of the morphemes *in*, *consequent* and *-tial* which make up the word

‘inconsequential’. Two out of the three morphemes above (‘in-’ and ‘-tial’) make meaning but cannot be described as words. Apart from these, there are sequences in the lexicon which make meaning but cannot be described as words. These include, items like *un-*, *-ing*, *pre-*, etc., which go into the construction of words and which actually have their own meanings (Oloruntoba-Oju 1994:74). Thus, to describe the ‘word’ as a meaning bearing sequence is to include a very wide, incompatible range of sequences which are framed from various components of morphemic alignments. The synthesis of morphemes and lexemes therefore lead us into the heart of the organization of the lexicon – the discussion which forms the core of this segment.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- highlight the reasons for lexical study
- relate word usages with respect to what they mean
- identify and define various components of word structures that enhance its meaning potential
- highlight issues surrounding lexis on the one hand, and lexis and word on the other.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Why Study Lexis in English?

Lexical studies in English, which is an examination of the behavioural patterns of lexical items within the English language, is a subject relevant not only for second language learners of the language but for native speakers as well. To a large extent, language use involves the choice of lexical items, bringing them together in discourse to pass meaningful message.

An understanding of it and how it behaves not only exposes the learner/user to the fundamentals (i.e. linguistic root) of the language but equally makes him explore the language better knowing what lexis to make occur together to get a desired communicative result. Ignorance of the concept, therefore, can only result in our inability to manipulate the language and of course our difficulty in managing both man and our environment. Language use itself is more about using words to make a change, a resolution, create effects or even manipulate fellow humans.

The study of lexis in English also helps in the analysis of the language. A careful study of the lexis, for instance, has revealed that the language is basically isolating/analytic and partly agglutinating and synthesis. The

fact remains that we could not, as linguists have been able to do a comprehensive analysis of the language without first studying the lexis of the language.

Similarly, the lexicographer's compilation of the dictionary was made possible by the findings from the synchronic as well as the diachronic studies of the language. The dictionary therefore, as common and as simple as it appears is the physical realization of the in-depth underlying findings and conclusions of the linguist – that is, her/his in-depth study of the lexis.

Synonyms, homonyms and antonyms abound in the language. The study of lexis shows that synonyms, though distinct lexical items, are actually semantically similar since they reflect almost the same meaning. It would be wrong, for instance, to use two or more synonyms in the same sentence realizing them as different lexical items just for reasons of their different alphabetical shapes. A similar explanation applies to homonyms – words with same spellings but different reference – whose meaning can only be deduced from an understanding of the other lexical items with which they co-occurs in the sentence. Consider the use of the item, *bank*, in the sentences below:

- (a) My friend saves with Oceanic *Bank*.
- (b) I *bank* on his rich knowledge and experience.
- (c) On getting to the *bank* of the river, Kunle decided to have a rethink on the project.
- (d) There is a blood *bank* for accident victims.

Our study and understanding of lexis also provides insight into the differences of meaning brought about by the different combination of items and the environment in which such combinations are made in the language. The distinction between the phrasal verb and the prepositional verb can be discerned by our understanding of the functions of the prepositions in the sentences. With the prepositional verbs, the addition of prepositions to verbs that require them does not affect the underlying meaning of the sentence since such prepositions perform grammatical rather than semantic functions. Consider the following phrases: *kick out*, *kick against*, *kick in*, *kick around*, *kick up*, *kick back*, *kick off*.

Furthermore, knowledge of lexis will help our understanding of the morphological rules which guide the formation of words and their morphological arrangements.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

State the reason for studying the English lexis.

3.2 The Nature of Lexicon (in Word Meaning)

According to Ogbulogo (2005:63), the lexicon provides a complete list of words in a language. The lexicon provides a complete list of words in a language. It is an unordered mental lists of words in which a user of a language operates. It is mental because it is not written down. When the lexicon is ordered and externalized, it becomes the dictionary as can be found on book shelves. The lexicon (including the dictionary) provides phonological, syntactic and semantic information about words. Phonological information specifies the pronunciation of the word. Syntactic information shows the categorical features and distributional possibilities of a word in the sentence, while semantic information is related to the meaning associated with the word. Phonological information is clearly outside the domain of semantics.

3.3 Features of Words

Lexical items are grouped into specific categories – nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions, etc. Words can also be grouped into content and form words. Content words have their independent meaning, and can occur in isolation. Content words have an open class system because they can accept new words with the expansion of the vocabulary of the language. Form words do not have specific meanings when they occur in isolation.. Instead, they occur with other words to signal syntactic or grammatical relationships within larger structures. Form words belong to a closed system because they cannot be expanded. Form words are few in number. They include pronouns, auxiliaries, conjunctions, prepositions, determiners and particles. Since the meanings of form words derive from their relationship in larger structures, such words are also referred to as *grammatical, function or structural* words.

Words can also be transparent or opaque. Transparent words are those words the meaning of which can be determined from the meaning of their parts. For instance, by breaking the following words into their morphological structures, we can derive their meanings. Indeed, most content words are transparent.

<i>in-</i>	<i>correct</i>	<i>-ness</i>
negative prefix	word stem	noun forming suffix

This means that the word *incorrectness* refers to the *negative* form of the noun form of the adjective *correct*.

anti-	dis-	establish	ment-	arian-	-ism
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negative	negative	word stem noun agent- (noun) idea
agent	idea forming	forming idea forming prefix suffix
suffix	forming prefix	
	suffix	

(Adapted from Ogbulogo 2005:65)

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Give 10 verb-forming affixes that you know.

3.4 The Lexis and Other Units of Grammar

Though it may be argued that lexis cannot be studied in isolation without reference to its basis – the morpheme, or without relating it to the body from which it takes its relative meaning i.e. the syntax, lexis on its own could depict a sense or meaning beyond the morpheme and below the clause. The use of the lexical item, *hospital*, in response to the question, *where is he coming from?* suggests that *hospital* cannot be explained in the light of a word such as *coming* which is made up of two morphemes (come + ing) in that capacity. Though an item at the surface level, *hospital* is equivalent to the sentence, *He is coming from the hospital*.

From this analysis, we see that lexis lies between the morpheme and the clause and thus must be studied as a separate and distinct level of analysis, and not in relation to some other classes or levels of language as has been the case. Lexicology, therefore, must be given as much attention as is accorded phonology, morphology or grammar in language.

3.4.1 The Lexis and the Word

Lexis or lexicon consists of all the words and phrases used in a language. To the layman, the terms lexis and word are synonymous and may be used interchangeably. However, the two concepts differ scientifically with respect to their linguistic properties and usage. While lexis refers to the individual items that the dictionary attempts to list in some alphabetical order, the meaning of a word cannot be given without reference to some semantic relations that exist in discourse.

The meaning given to an item depends, not only on its structure or class, but on the resultant derived meaning it gets from the other words with which it is occurring in the sentence, and of course to the interpretation given it by the user. Thus, a word does not have any specified meaning except it is examined in discourse.

For example, the lexical item, *go* (to move away from a speaker or place), could mean several other things. In other words, *go* could function as different words in different linguistic environments.

Consider the following sentences:

2. Bola goes to school daily.
3. The time goes fast.
4. Mary goes well with Henry.
5. This road goes to Badagry.
6. The song goes thus ...
7. Nigeria has been recently classified the most corrupt nation in the world. It then goes that we must all collectively strive hard to redeem the lost glory.

Though the lexical item, *go*, is common to all the sentences, it does not have the same meaning in the contexts. This is probably what Crystal (1977) means when he refers to words as sitting uneasily at the boundary between morphology and syntax. Ajulo (1994:28) attempted a distinction between morphology and lexis by arguing that forms derived from an item such as *happiness*, *unhappy*, and *happily* (from happy) do not have the same primitive stock as base, but are realizations of separate lexemes HAPPY, HAPPINESS, and HAPPILY which are entered under separate headings by the lexicographer into the dictionary. Ajulo's argument is that no grammatical item is completely devoid of lexical content and vice-versa. Thus, a wrong use of a lexical item in discourse almost usually results in some semantic-unreasonableness at the other level on the scale.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Distinguish between the lexis and the word.

3.5 Lexis as a Level of Linguistic Description

There have been arguments on where to place lexis on the level of linguistic analysis. In Derbyshire's view, "Lexis is that branch of linguistics which deals with the major units of language that carry the burden of referential meaning" (1967:139). Derbyshire's conceptualization of lexis as a major unit of language probably means to have revealed that all other categories on the scale of the linguistic analysis of language including their components and structure form a combination of lexis. The sentence, the highest level on the hierarchy, for instance, gets its meaning and, consequently, our understanding of it from the individual unit of the lexical items and the internal relationship

which exists between such. The sentence, phrase or group can only be completely analysed from our understanding of the lexis.

It may appear difficult to have lexis occupy a specific position on the rank scale. An examination of methodological rank scale reveals the fact that items sometimes co-extend with other items on the other ranks. On the rank of the morpheme, for instance, the addition of the bound morpheme (-er) to a verb e.g. *play*, a free morpheme, generates a new lexical item, now the noun class i.e. *play* + *er* = *player*. The bound morpheme (-er) in this derivative position, functions more like a lexis rather than a morpheme. Its function, in this position, for instance, cannot be likened to (*un-*) or (*dis-*) in *unlikely* and *disallow* respectively.

In a similar vein, other levels on the scale could be equated with lexis. This further goes to show that lexis could co-extend with other items on the other ranks. For example, phrases as well as clauses could function as lexical items. Examples are seen in *an for an eye*, *in good faith*, *ups and downs*, *turn over a new leaf*, *throw in the towel*, etc., each being possibly replaced by a lexical item. From our analysis, we can then agree with Lyons (1977) that “there is no generally accepted solution to the problem of lexical entries”.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

Discuss your understanding of the lexis as a level of linguistic analysis.

4.0 CONCLUSION

I have synthesized the features and essence of the word and lexis, their nature in morphological arrangement and their formation with respect to how they sound and mean.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the following:

- why we study lexis;
- words, their meanings and their relationship with one another;
- how they may combine with one another, and the relationships between vocabulary and other areas of the description of languages (phonology, morphology and syntax).
- the meaning and features of lexemes as well as their relationships with other units of grammar.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Why do we study lexis?
2. What is the word?
3. Analyse the process that informs the formation of these words – *incorrectness, inadequate, maladministration, unitarianism, unproblematic*.
4. Critically assess the difference between the word and lexis.
5. How do we justify lexis as a level of linguistic description?

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UNIT 4 CLASSIFYING ENGLISH LEXIS INTO TYPES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Classifying Languages into Types
 - 3.2 Lexical Types
 - 3.2.1 Agglutinating Type
 - 3.2.2 Semi-agglutinating Type
 - 3.2.3 Synthetic/Inflecting Type
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit offers a general approach to the classification of languages in general and lexis in particular. It specifically discusses the ways lexes are framed to project meaning. The unit is arranged as follows:

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state parameters for classifying languages
- identify lexical types and explain them.

3.0 CONTENT

3.1 Classifying Languages into Types

The genetic and typological classifications are two ways of classifying languages into types. With genetic classifications, linguists simply examine early remains of particular language or make deductions so as to reconstruct the form of the parent language. With the typological classification, languages are grouped together into structural types based on the similarities that exist between them at different levels of linguistic analysis. Unlike the genetic classification type, this method does not consider historical relationship, which may exist among languages.

Languages can also be classified with respect to their word order, that is, if they are fixed or not and which order is preferred.

Genetically, English is a Germanic language. Ordinarily, however, the language displays characteristics peculiar to languages in other groups. From a typological viewpoint, English is more similar to an isolating language while having some characteristics of agglutinating and synthetic languages. Analytic/isolating languages are those languages, which have their lexes being free and not fused as the case may be. Examples of such isolating languages include Chinese and Vietnamese. With agglutinating languages, lexes are made up of morphemes brought together with these morphemes being separable. Almost all languages have this characteristic of agglutinating. Yoruba's *onile* and *alata* could be broken into:

Onile ----- oni + ile (owner of house)
Alata ----- oni + ata (seller of pepper)

Japanese, Swahili and Turkish are examples of agglutinating language types. Words, in these languages, are made up of long sequences of units with each expressing a clean grammatical meaning. Synthetic/inflecting languages have their lexes being made up of fused morphemes – those, which cannot be easily broken into parts. *Went* and *mice* (from *go* + *ed*) and (mouse + *s*) are examples of inflection. With the Eskimo, Mohawk, and Australian languages, words are often very long and complex.

The English language, from our previous discussion of morphemes in the language, is basically analytical. That is, have most of its lexes being made of free morphemes. Words here have meaning in isolation and do not have to be dependent on some other forms to be meaningful. Examples include *table*, *girl*, *she*, *go*, *church*, etc.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

State two parameters that you can use to classify languages.

3.2 Lexical Types

3.2.1 Agglutinating Type

English could either be agglutinating or semi-agglutinating. The agglutinating features of the language could be seen in compound words where two morphemes of isolating language types come together to form an entirely new lexical item in the language. Examples are *greenhouse*, *schoolboy* and *playboy*. The overall meaning of the newly formed compound word does not often depend on our understanding of the individual morphemes that make up the compound. The item *playboy*, for instance, does not really refer to a teenager but an adult. Compound words therefore, have to be learnt, as we will do new words.

3.2.2 Semi-agglutinating Type

With semi-agglutinating we really do not have free morphemes coming together to make a word but a case of a free + bound. An example of semi-agglutinating in English is seen in the morph (-er), which is found in the comparative forms of adjectives (*longer* and *slower*) and in 'agent' nouns formed from verbs (i.e. *teacher* and *farmer*).

3.2.3 Synthetic/Inflecting Type

Synthetic/inflecting forms could either be partial or full depending on if they are partly or wholly indeterminate with respect to segmentation. Semi-inflection could be seen in *goes* and *washes* while inflecting the forms of the verbs for the third person singular. There are few instances of full inflection. The comparative forms *better* and *worse* could be very difficult to segment. These are instances of full inflection.

One other example of full inflection is the third person singular of the verb, *to be*. The form *is* might be segmented into [i] an allomorph of *be* if we assume that, the [s] in *is* is merely the present tense singular marker. However, it will be meaningless to analyze it thus since [i] occurs nowhere else as an allomorph of *be*.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Identify and explain three lexical types that you have come across in the course.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Generally, we could conclude that the language has a reasonable number of its lexes being isolating because many English words have no internal grammatical structures. We could equally rightly say that some of the words are agglutinating because they are complex but more loosely knit with categories not being so closely associated with the words individually. We will also be right to say that the English language displays properties of inflecting languages where it has some of its words being centrally tightly knit together and often of complex units carrying in themselves many of the basic grammatical categories.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have studied the following:

- parameters for classifying languages
- lexical types with examples

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What are the parameters for classifying languages?
2. With ample examples, discuss lexical typology.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 MORPHOLOGICAL PARSING AND THE LEXICON

This unit will foster your appreciation of the relevance of morphology within lexical studies as it projects various ways of arranging morphemes to fit together into one whole word and/or lexical item. By extension, it infers the relationship that exists between morphology and lexical study.

The unit is arranged as follows:

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning and Relevance of Morphological Parsing to Lexical Studies
 - 3.2 Morphology 'in the Lexicon'
 - 3.2.1 The First Justification
 - 3.2.2 The Second Justification
 - 3.3 Morphology versus the Lexicon
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Lexical items occur in various ways to function and project meaning. This says much of the dynamism of human language and the extent of the creativity of its usage projects an enormous amount of experience and knowledge on the part of the user. Much that can be learnt of the role of morphology in lexicology therefore is desirable to accentuate meaning realization within discourse.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define morphological parsing and state its relevance to lexical studies
- discuss the justification for the relationship between morphology and lexical studies.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning and Relevance of Morphological Parsing to Lexical Studies

Parsing, as the term implies, simply means breaking up words into their component parts. Morphological parsing is useful to the study of lexis in language for a number of reasons such as:

1. It helps us know in what order phonemes can come to make meaningful words in languages. For instance, the bound morpheme *pre*, based on meaning, can only appear before a word with which it functions and not after it e.g. *pre-election*, *predetermine*, etc. The same applies to *ante* (also meaning 'before') as in *ante-natal*, etc
2. It helps reveal the finest meanings of words in language. For instance, with the aid of our understanding of the function of *pre*, we may talk about *pre-election campaign* not *pre-election vote*.
3. It explains the patterns of combination of morphemes that can produce words in the language. For instance, the combination of the bound morpheme *dis-*, the free morpheme *trust* and the bound morpheme *-ed* produce the lexis *distrusted*.
4. It provides ways for writing the dictionary. Lexicographers employ the logical arrangement of morphemes to produce lexical entries for dictionaries.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Define morphological parsing and clearly state how it is relevant to lexical studies.

3.2 Morphology 'in the Lexicon'

According to one widely accepted view (Aronoff 1976, 1982), the morphology of a language, because it is part of grammar and trades in structural matters, deals primarily with the internal structure of the potential complex words of a language. These words may not all exist, but they all conform to the morphological structure of the language. By contrast, the lexicon of a language is a list of existing items in the language, those that a speaker has to know because they are arbitrary signs: unpredictable in some way. Most of the items on this list are words, though the lexicon also contains larger units like idioms, and may also be smaller units like affixes. On this view, in which the regular morphology and the irregular lexicon are separate entities, one might imagine the two having very little to do with one another, since the morphology deals only with potential words and the lexicon only with

the existing words. In fact, the two systems do have a great deal to do with one another, for two simple reasons.

3.2.1 The First Justification

The first justification is that they serve the same role in a language: both provide words. This overlap has even led some linguists to say that morphology is “in the lexicon” (Jensen and Strong-Jensen 1984), although in doing so, these linguists are using the term lexicon in a much broader and different sense, to mean the source of all words, actual and potential, rather than in the narrow sense of a list of unpredictable items that we have inherited from traditional grammar and from Bloomfield (Bloomfield 1933, Zwicky 1989, Aronoff 1994).

3.2.2 The Second Justification

The second reason is that morphology and the lexicon are interdependent. Most centrally, the morphology, which forms words from words, finds the words that it operates on (its bases) in the lexicon. I will explore each of these interactions in a separate section.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Discuss the relevance or irrelevance of morphology to lexicon, justifying your position.

3.3 Morphology versus the Lexicon

Aronoff and Anshen (2001:238) illustrates the ‘rivalry’ between morphology and the lexicon like any two entities that share a task, which do not always do so happily. The rivalry of morphology and the lexicon, they say, is not empty, but plays a central role in the larger system of the language. In order to understand its nature, they consider a single speaker/hearer. Speaking of the lexicon from this perspective, they speak of the individual’s mental lexicon, the list of irregular items that the speaker/hearer carries around in his/her head. They define the difference between existing words and potential words in terms of this mental lexicon and establish that any word that is stored in a single speaker/hearer mental lexicon or list of irregular items is an existing word, and that nothing else is. In particular, a word that meets all the criteria for being a word of the language but that is not in an individual’s mental lexicon does not exist for that person, though it may exist for another speaker/hearer. The unlisted word is a potential word, and morphologically well-formed complex potential words are provided by the morphology not by the lexicon. Thus, the conventional idea that the existing words of a language – English for example – comprise all the

words in the Oxford English Dictionary or some other comprehensive dictionary does not apply in this model of the lexicon and the morphology. The difference between which words exist and which are potential is defined solely in terms of the individual's lexicon and morphology.

Most importantly for these purposes, even if an ideal speaker/hearer has spoken or heard (or read) a particular word before, if that word has not been stored in that person's mental lexicon for some reason, then the word is still a potential word rather than an existing word as far as the mental lexicon is concerned. Which words are stored? In the simplest case, a word will be stored because it contains only one morpheme. Take the word *bamboozle*. It has no morphological structure, so nothing to predict its meaning. Someone who hears this word, even in a context in which its sense is clear, must enter into memory in order to use it again, so it will enter the hearer's mental lexicon. Similarly, a morphologically complex word must be placed in the lexicon if a piece of it is unknown to the hearer. An example of this type is *hornswoggle*, which is almost synonymous with *bamboozle*. One of its components, *horn*, is recognizable, but the other one, *swoogle*, is not, so that, again, even if we can deduce its sense from the context in which we hear it. Yet again, all the components of a word may be familiar; its sense may not be deducible from them. Here too we must put the word in our lexicon. An example of this phenomenon is yet a third synonym, *hoodwink*. Both *hood* and *wink* are familiar words, but the sense of the entire word *hoodwink* has little to do with the sense of its parts, so even here our ideal speaker/hearer must resort to lexical storage in order to have a hope of reusing the word. So if a word is unpredictable, it must be stored in the lexicon.

So far, the morphology and the lexicon do not interact. The first creates regular words, and the second stores irregular words. To see how they do interact, we must look at a case where both the lexicon and the morphology are in principle capable of being invoked. Let us take our example from that of the plural of a noun in English. Some plurals come from the lexicon, and some from the morphology. The plural will come from the lexicon in case it is irregular and stored there on account of its irregularity, like *women* and it will come from the morphology in case it is regular, like *dogs*. But a question arises. If a word has an irregular plural stored in the lexicon, why does it not also have a regular plural, which comes from the morphology? In the case at hand, how does a speaker know not to say *womans* instead of *women*? Or why doesn't the speaker sometimes say one and sometimes the other? Something must be preventing the morphology from producing a regular plural just in case an irregular plural for the same word exists in the lexicon. The same is true of irregular past tenses of verbs.

A person who knows that the past tense of *go* is *went* (a fact that must be stored in the lexicon) will not say *goed*, although a young child or someone in the early stages of learning English as a second language might say *goed*, because the child or learner hasn't yet learned the form *went*. The lexicon and the morphology seem to interact in assuring that only one form will be used, but how? Does the speaker/hearer sometimes check the lexicon to see if a word is there, and only resort to the morphology if there is none?

A clue to the right answer to this question has been known for centuries: languages tend to avoid synonyms (though not always, as *bamboozle*, *hornswoggle*, and *hoodwink* reveal). In most cases, the speaker will use a word from his/her lexicon (*women/went*) rather than resort to the morphology to produce a new word with the same meaning. This phenomenon, "the nonoccurrence of one form due to the simple existence of another" (Aronoff 1976:43), is called *blocking*, and its effects can be seen not only in inflection, but also in derivation, where a word like **furiousity* (formed from *furious*) will be blocked by *fury*, which already exists in a speaker's lexicon. We can tell that blocking is at work in rendering **furiousity* unacceptable, because other words of the same pattern are perfectly acceptable, when there is no already existing word to block them. *Curiosity*, on the other hand, which is structurally analogous to **furiousity*, is perfectly acceptable because there is no word **cury* to block it.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

How does blocking operate in morphological processes?

4.0 CONCLUSION

The relevance of lexical studies to the understanding of English language cannot be overemphasized, just as you have learnt in this unit. The relationship between morphology and the lexicon however, has also been discussed with an outcome that suggests a stringent cordiality for both aspects of studies.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the following:

- the meaning and relevance of morphological parsing to lexical studies in English; and
- the attempt to relate morphology and lexicon.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is morphological parsing and why is it relevant to lexical studies particularly in English?
2. Critically examine the relationship between morphology and lexical studies.
3. Assess the ‘rivalry’ between morphology and the lexicon.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Aronoff, M. & F. Anshen (2001). *Morphology and the Lexicon: Lexicalisation and Productivity*. In A. Spencer & Arnold (eds) ‘The Handbook of Morphology. UK: Blackwell Publishers’, pp 237-247.

Matthews, P. H. (1974). *Morphology: An Introduction to the Theory of Word Structure*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Spencer, A. & Arnold, initials ??? (2001). *The Handbook of Morphology*. Oxford: Blackwell.

MODULE 3 MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES

- Unit 1 Clipping, Affixation, Borrowing, Blending and Stress Shift
- Unit 2 Conversion, Compounding, Back-formation, Coinage, Acronym Reduplication and Nominalization

UNIT 1 **CLIPPING, AFFIXATION, BORROWING, BLENDING AND STRESS SHIFT**

Morphological processes, otherwise known as word-formation processes, are processes through which words are formed from morphemes in the language. There are various ways of forming words in the language. Each of them will be adequately centred for in this module. However, because of space, word-formation processes have been divided into two units with each unit discussing a set or group of processes.

In this unit, clipping, affixation, borrowing, blending and stress shift will be discussed at length.

The unit is arranged as follows:-

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main content
 - 3.1 Clipping
 - 3.2 Affixation
 - 3.3 Borrowing
 - 3.4 Blending
 - 3.5 Stress Shift
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is the first of the two units set aside for the discussion of morphological processes which is also known as word-formation processes in the language. Word-formation processes are as important as morphology itself. This is because it is an attempt to generate new words in the language. If new words are not generated in the language

Commented [AT23]: Rearrange as suggested above. The major morphological processes should come first: affixation, compounding, conversion and borrowing. Delete stress shift and note my reason for suggesting this. Minor morphological processes should follow: blending, clipping, acronymy etc

Commented [AT24]: Rearrange. Include clipping, acronymy etc

then the English language will be dead because there would be monotony in the language.

In this unit then, we shall concentrate on clipping, affixation, borrowing, and word stress.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain clipping as a word-formation process
- explain affixation as a word-formation process
- explain borrowing as a word-formation processes
- explain blending as a word-formation process
- explain stress shift as a word-formation process
- give examples of each of the word-formation processes discussed in this unit.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Clipping

Clipping, as a morphological process, is very productive; not only in the English language but also in many African languages. It involves some element of reduction in the length of a word. According to Adeniyi (1997), clipping is a pseudo-lexical unit which results from the grapho-phonemic reduction of a word, which still shares the semantic and paradigmatic relationship with the full form of the word. It can also be seen extracting a shortened form of a word from its longer morphological form. In English, for instance, 'telephone' becomes *phone*; brassiere is *bra*; In some cases, the clipped version has more or less completely replaced the original longer word, e. g. *flu*. Note that a clipped form is a complete lexical unit which should not be confused as abbreviation of its full form. Crystal (1999) defines 'clipping as a type of word formation in which new words are derived by shortening another word'. Some of the examples he gave include, *exam* from *examination*, and *ad* for *advertisement*. However, Aronoff (1997) defines clipping as a process that shortens a polysyllabic word by deleting one or more syllables. He gave examples such as Liz, Ron, Rob, Sue, and so on. In all the definitions above, it is clear that both the clipped form which it originates share both semantic and syntactic features. However, the two words are distinct lexical units with separate morphological identities.

We have to note that the various types of clipped form are restricted to everyday casual and informal discourse among family members,

Commented [AT25]: Abbreviation is technically different from clipping. For instance, Dr is an abbreviation but it is not an example of clipping. Also, ed for editor is an abbreviation and not an example of clipping.

friends and acquaintances. However, the full length of these names are usually reserved and employed for formal interactions and official records. We can identify two types of clipping in the English language. These are **back clipping** and **fore-clipping**. In **fore clipping**, an element or elements are taken from the beginning of a word. Some of the examples in this category include (ham) burger, (omni) bus, (alli) gator, (tele) phone, (heli) copter and many more. This type of clipping also occurs with personal names in the English language. Some of these examples include, Becky for Rebecca, Drew, for Andrew, Grinny for Virginia. In the case of **fore clipping**, an element or elements are taken from the end of a name. What we then have is an abridged version, which can still stand in its place. In English for instance, the following have undergone various back-clippings as can be seen from the following examples; chimp (panzee), deli (catessen), hippo (potamus), lab(ratory); gas (oline), Pro(fessor) and many more. Many names in the language have been clipped to the extent that some native speakers cannot relate the full version of the name with the clipped version.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain the morphological process of clipping with 10 practical examples.

3.2 Affixation

The term 'affixation' can be defined as a morphological process of attaching an affix to the root or base of a word.

Affixes are classified based on two criteria. The first criterion is the position in which the affix occurs relative to the location of the root of the word, while the second is the function an affix performs when it is attached to the root of a word. Let us examine these criteria one by one.

Positional classification of affixes

If we use the position in which an affix occurs relative to the location of the root of a word as the basis for classifying affixes, we shall have the following types: prefix, suffix, infix, interfix, circumfix, and superfix or suprafix. Let us discuss these affixes one by one.

The prefix

A prefix is an affix which occurs before the root or base of a word. Examples of prefixes in English are presented in table 4 – 11

Table 1: Negative Prefixes

Prefix	Meaning	Host	Examples
a-	'lacking in'	adjective noun	Asexual Asymmetry
de-	'the opposite of'	noun verb	Demerit Demystify
dis-	'the opposite of'	adjective verb noun	Disloyal Disrespect Dishonour
il-	'the opposite of'	adjective	Illegal
im-	'the opposite of'	adjective	Impossible
in-	'the opposite of'	adjective	Insensitive
ir-	'the opposite of'	adjective	Irregular
mis-	'the opposite of'	noun verb	Misconduct Misdirect
non-	'not'	various	Non-starter Non-binary
un-	'the opposite of'	adjective	Unwise

Table 2: Reversative Prefixes

Prefi x	Meaning	Possible Host	Examples
de-	‘to reverse an action’	Verb Noun	Defrock Defrost Delocalize deforestation
dis-	‘to reverse an action’	verb	Disconnect Disorganise
un-	‘to deprive of’	verb	Unmask Unhorse
un-	‘to reverse an action or ‘to reveal’	verb	Untie Undress unlock

Prefi x	Meaning	Possible Host	Examples
Inter-	‘between’	adjectival verb	Intercontinental Interfuse
sub-	‘beneath’	Noun	Submarine Subsoil
super -	‘over’	Noun	Superstructure
trans -	‘across or ‘from one location to another.	Adjectival Verb	Transcontinental transplant

Table 3: Age, Size and Degree Prefixes

Prefix	Meaning	Possible Host	Examples
Arch-	‘highest in status’ or ‘worst’	Noun	Archangel arch-enemy
hyper-	‘excessive’	adjective	Hypersensitive Hyperactive
mini-	‘diminutive’	noun	Minibus Minicomputer
neo-	‘new’ or modern version’	noun	Neophobia neo-colonialism
out-	‘to surpass’	verb	Outgrow Outshine
over-	‘to exceed’	verb	Overbook Overcharge
proto-	‘first in origin’ or ‘primitive’	Noun	Protomartyr photo-language
semi-	‘half of’, or ‘partly’	noun adjective	semi-metal semi-literate
sub-	‘lesser in status’	verb adjective	sub-lease Substandard
supra-	‘above’ or ‘beyond’	Noun	Supranational Supramundane
sur-	‘additional’	Verb Noun	Surcharge Surcoat
ultra-	‘extreme’ or ‘beyond’	Adjective	Ultra- Conservative
under-	‘diminutive’	Verb Adjectival Noun	Underestimate Underdeveloped Underdog
vice-	‘deputy’	Noun	Vice-chairman

Table 4: Temporal, Scope and Sequential Prefixes

Prefix	Meaning	Possible Host	Examples
ex-	‘former’	Noun	ex-wife ex-soldier
fore-	‘before’	Noun Verb	Foreplay Foresee
Pan-	‘all’	Adjective	Pan-African
Post-	‘alter’	Noun Adjective Verb	Post-modern Posthumous Post-date
pre-	‘before’	Noun Adjective Verb	Preview Premature pre-date
re-	‘again’, ‘back’ or ‘change order’	Verb Noun	Restructure, regain representation

Table5: Derogatory or Prejudice Prefixes

Prefix	Meaning	Possible Host	Examples
Mal-	‘amiss’ or ‘badly’	Verb Noun Adjective	Maladminister Mal-administration maladjusted
mis-	‘wrongly’	Verb Noun Adjective	Misapply Misbelief Misbegotten
pseud o-	‘unreal’, ‘false’ or not genuine’	Noun	pseudo-science pseudo-language
quasi-	‘seemingly’ or ‘not really’	Adjective Noun	quasi-independent quasi-democracy

Table 6: Quantity Prefixes

Prefix	Meaning	Possible Host	Examples
bi-	‘having two’ Or ‘occurring twice’	adjectival noun	Biannual Biennial Bilingual Bicycle
di-	‘having two’	Adjective Noun	Disyllabic Digraph
mono-	‘having one’, ‘single’ or ‘alone’	Noun Adjective	Monoculture Monolingual Monosyllabic
multi	‘many’ or ‘several’	Adjective Noun	multi-ethnic multi-millionaire
Poly-	‘many’ or ‘several’	Adjective Noun	Polyvalent Polytheism
quadri- -	‘having four’	Adjective	Quadrilateral
tri-	‘having three’	Noun Adjective	Tricycle Triangular
uni-	‘having one’	Adjective Noun	Unidirectional Uniformity

Note:-

The learner should always note the difference in the use of biannual and biennial. Biannual means ‘occurring twice a year’ while biennial means occurring once in two years. So a biannual conference, for instance, means a conference that holds twice a year, while a biennial conference means a conference that holds once in two years.

Table 7: Other forms of prefixes

Prefix	Meaning	Possible Host	Examples
auto-	'or sell'	adjectival noun	autobiographic auto-erotism
bio-	'of life'	Adjective Noun	biodegradable biodiversity
Psycho -	'of the mind'	Adjective Noun	psychosexual psychoanalysis

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Give 5 types of prefixes, with two examples of each.

B. The Suffix

The suffix is an affix which occurs after the base or root of a word. Examples of suffixes in English are presented in tables 12-13.

Table 8: Quality Suffixes

Suffix	Meaning	Possible Host	Examples
-(e)ry	'behaviour'	Noun Adjective	mastery, thuggery bravery
-(i)ty	'state'	Adjective Noun	equality gentility
-able/ -ible	'worthy of'	verb adjective	Forgivable Forcible
-al/ial/ -ical	'quality of being'	Noun Adjective	logical memorial periodical
-er	'occupational', comparative, instrumental, agenitive, etc.	Varied	Teacher Taller Cooker Player

-ess	'effeminate'	Noun	Portress
-est	-superlative'	Adjective Adverb	Smallest Soonest
-ful	'having the quality of'	Noun Adjective	Careful Dutiful
-hood	'status'	Noun	Womanhood
-ic	'quality of being'.	Noun Adjective	Metallic Alcoholic
-ish	'having the character of'	Noun Adjective	Boyish Childish
-ist	'member of' or 'believer of'	Noun Adjective	Capitalist Socialist
-ive/ -ative	'quality of being'	Verb Adjective	Informative Attractive
-less	'lacking'	Noun Adjective	Motherless Powerless
-let	'diminutive'	Noun	Eaglet
-like	'having the quality of'	Noun Adjective	Manlike Christlike
-ly	'in a manner'	Adj Adverb	Bravely Slowly
-ness	'state'	Adj Noun	Sadness Goodness
-or	'agentive'	Verb Noun	Sailor Director
-ship	'status'	Noun	Fellowship
-wise	'in the manner of'	Noun Adverb	Clockwise Lengthwise
-y	'be like'	Noun Adjective	Oily Juicy

Table 9: Causative and Activity Suffixes

Suffix	Meaning	Possible Host	Examples
-age	‘the result of’	Verb Noun	linkage leakage
-ation	‘the act of’	Verb Noun	importation fertilization
-ed	‘past’	Verb	talked
-en	‘past participle’	Verb	beaten
-en	‘to cause to become’	Adj Verb	deafen gladden
-ify	‘cause to become’	Noun Verb	tesify exemplify
-ing	‘progressive’	Verb	Singing
-ize	‘cause to become’	Adj Verb	Regularize Familiarize
-ment	‘the act of’	Verb Noun	Amendment Entertainment

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Discuss 4 types of suffix and give 5 examples of each.

The Infix

An infix is an affix which is incorporated inside the root of a word. In other words, an affix interrupts the sequence of a root. English does not have any clear-cut case of an infix, even though some people seem to argue that the changes we witness in words, such as:-

foot	feet
tooth	teeth
man	men
come	came
give	gave
get	got

are instances of infixes. The sensible position to take appears to be that the changes observed in the above examples are not infixes. For

Commented [AT26]: I do not think it is right to regard these examples as illustrations of infix in English. Really speaking, English does not have infixes. Feet, teeth and men are just foot, tooth and man plus S1 (i.e., plural marker) English has different ways of realizing plurality and this is just one of them. Similarly, come, give and get plus -ed will yield came, gave and got. I completely disagree with this.

instance, there is no such root in English as *ft or *th pointing to the same core of meaning as foot and tooth respectively. In fact, there are no such roots in English.

Please note that the asterisk mark (*) means that the construction it precedes is an unlikely structure.

D. The Interfix

An interfix is an affix which occurs between two identical or sometimes non-identical roots. In other words, an interfix interrupts the sequence of two roots. Of all the affixes identified in human language, the interfix is the least discussed.

English does not have any case of interfixation. But Yoruba has many good examples of interfixes, as we see in the following examples:

Omo + ki + omo = Omokomo
 Ile + ki + Ile = Ilekele
 Owo + bi + owo = Owobowo
 Eya + mo + eya = Eyameya

In the above examples, bound morphemes such as *ki*, *bi* and *mo* are all examples

E. THE CIRCUMFIX

The circumfix is sometimes called a discontinuous morpheme. It is an affix that surrounds the root of a word. In other words, a circumfix is an affix which has two parts, so that the first half occurs before the root of a word, while the second half occurs after the root. Circumfixation is, in essence, a situation where both the prefix and suffix are simultaneously employed to express one meaning. It is like “a combination of a prefix and suffix operating as unit” (Allerton 1979:220).

F. THE SUPERFIX OF SUPRAPHIX

All the affixes we have discussed so far are of the segmental type. Let us now turn to discuss affixes of a non-segmental type. Suprefix or suprafix is an affix which is marked over the syllables that form part of a root. Suprefixes come in the form of tones/or stress marks placed over words. Suprefixes are also morphemes because they carry some element of meaning. Tone or stress marks can cause meaning differences between morphemes or words that are segmentally alike.

Commented [AT27]: These examples will also be out of place if what we are dealing with is the English morphology. All these are from Yoruba. This again shows that you do not have this concept in English.

Commented [AT28]: Can you provide an example in English? No!!!. What I have noticed is that the writer has read some linguistics textbooks such as the one by Katamba and he or she is importing all the concepts here. Many of these concepts, while they are present in other languages, may not necessarily be present in English. It will be nice to concentrate on English alone.

In table 10 below, we shall use some examples in English to show how a change in stress placement can trigger a meaning difference between segmentally identical words:-

Table 10: Stress as a Superfix in English

Nouns	Verbs
'Insult	In'SULT
'CONvert	Con'VERT
'Import	IM'port
'Rebel	re'BEL
'Export	ex'PORT
'SUBject	sub'JECT
'CONtest	con'TEST
'PERmit	per'MIT
'SURvey	sur'VEY
'PROtest	Protest

Commented [AT29]: Conversion will perfectly explain this

Commented [AT30R29]:

The syllables in upper case (capital letters) in the table are the stressed ones. From the above examples, we can see that a change in stress placement results in a change in meaning.

In a tone language (i.e. a language where a variation in the pitch of the voice causes a change in meaning between segmentally identical utterances) such as Igbo, tone can also be said to be a superfix, as we can see in the following examples:

Table 11: Tone as a Superfix in Igbo

isi 'head'	Ike 'strength'
isi 'odour'	Ike 'to share' or 'buttocks'
isi 'blindness'	Ike 'to tie'
isi 'to cook'	Ike 'bunch'
oke 'rat'	akwa 'a cry'
oke 'boundary'	akwa 'cloth'
oke 'a share'	akwa 'egg'
oke 'male'	akwa 'bed' or 'bridge'

Commented [AT31]: Is tone in English? So how relevant is this?

From each set of examples above, we can see that it is only tone (i.e. a variation in the pitch of the voice) that causes the change in meaning between words which look alike in all respects.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

Discuss a major defining factor for affix types.

Discuss superfix type, using 10 examples.

Classification of Affixes Based on Function

In the foregoing section, we classified affixes based on the position they occupy vis-à-vis the position of the root or base of a word. In this part of the book, we shall classify affixes based on the function they perform when attached to a word.

Affixes can perform essentially three functions when they are attached to the root of a word. These are inflectional, derivational and extensional functions. We shall discuss these functions under inflectional, derivational and extensional affixes.

INFLECTIONAL AFFIXES

An inflectional affix is that affix which performs a grammatical function without changing the part of speech of the word to which it is attached. Inflectional affixes are not used to create new words; rather they are used to show if a word is singular or plural, if the tense of the verb is past or non-past, if the word expresses comparative or superlative degree, or to show the case feature of the word in question. Case is a grammatical category which is concerned with the ability of a nominal (noun or pronoun) to change its form with respect to the environment in which it occurs.

Examples of inflectional affixes in English are presented in table below:-

Table 12: Inflectional Affixes in English

Inflectional Affix	Function/meaning	Examples
-s (N)	Plural	boys <u>s</u>
-ed	past tense	work <u>ed</u>
-ing	progressive	work <u>ing</u>
-s (V)	3 rd person singular simple	eats <u>s</u> runs <u>s</u>

Commented [AT32]: This has been discussed above and it amounts to a repetition here. It is also important to rearrange them as suggested above

	present	
-en	past participle	e <u>at</u> en
-er	Comparative	short <u>e</u> r
-est	Superlative	short <u>e</u> st
-'s	Possessive	John' <u>s</u>

All the inflectional affixes in English are suffixes, and they are few. The inflectional affixes in English are 'morphemes of the outer layer', because it is not possible to have another suffix after an inflectional affix.

Another interesting quality of inflectional suffixes in English is that it is not possible to have more than one of them hosted by the same root at a time. It is, however, possible for a semantically empty formative to occur between the root or stem and the inflectional suffix. Such semantically empty formatives have been referred to as stem extenders. An example of a stem extender in English is the *-r-* which occurs between the root *child* and the *-en* plural marker, as in *child-r-en*.

DERIVATIONAL AFFIXES

A derivational affix is that which changes the part of speech or alters the meaning of the word to which it is attached. Robins (1964:258) divides derivational affixes into class changing and class maintaining types. Both the class changing and class maintaining derivational affixes affect the lexical meaning of the word to which they are attached, while only the class changing ones affect the syntactic value (i.e. the part of speech) of the word. But based on the enormous evidence from some African languages, the need to re-examine the status of the so-called derivational affixes which merely alter the meaning of their hosts without changing their parts of speech has arisen. It is now a common practice to treat affixes which extend or modify the meaning of their hosts separately from the class-changing ones. Hence, in this unit, we limit the discussion of derivational affixes to the class-changing affixes.

In the following table, we present the major differences between inflectional and derivational affixes in English:

Table 13: Differences between inflectional and derivational affixes in English

Inflectional affix	Derivational Affix
1. Maintains part of speech of its host.	1. Changes part of speech of its host
2. Always a suffix	2. Can be a prefix or suffix
3. Always one in a word.	3. Can be more than one in a word..
4. Morpheme of the outer layer (i.e. always occurs last)	4. Morpheme of the inner layer (i.e. can be followed by other affixes)
5. Few in number	5. More than the inflectional affixes.
6. Occurs more frequently than any particular derivational affix.	6. Occurs less frequently than any particular inflectional affix

Having demonstrated the differences between inflectional and derivational affixes in English. Let us now give examples to show derivational affixes that change the part of speech of their hosts.

Table 14: Derivational prefixes in English

Prefix	Function(s)	Examples
A-	V Adj	<u>A</u> float
be-	N V Adj V	<u>b</u> ewitch <u>b</u> efool
de-	N V	<u>d</u> efrost
em-	Adj. V	<u>e</u> mbitter
en-	N V	<u>e</u> nslave

Note: The derivational prefix em- is a variant of en- when it occurs before bilabial consonants.

3.3 Borrowing

One of the commonest ways of creating new words in human language is by borrowing. Borrowing simply means the process of taking words from one or more languages to fit into the vocabulary of another. It is important to mention that no language is free from borrowing. Borrowing presupposes some element of cultural contact. According to Donwa-Ifode (1995:132).

“Two or more languages are said to be in contact if they are used by the same individuals or group of persons alternately. The individual using the languages is referred to as the ‘locus’ of the contact. The language that borrows from the other is said to be the ‘recipient’ language, while that from which the item is borrowed is known as the ‘donor’ language”.

There are different forms of borrowing. They are loan-word, loan-blend and calque or loan-translation.

A loan-word is that which “a recipient language has lifted from a donor language to mean the same object and practice to which it originally referred in the donor language” (Donwa-Ifode 1995:135). Examples of loan-words in English include:

Piano (from Italian),
 Alcohol (from Arabic),
 Zebra (from Bantu),
 Tycoon (from Japanese),
 Angel (old French and Ecclesiastical Latin),
 Advertise (French)
 Adventure (from old French)
 Browse (from Old French)
 Tailor (from Latin)
 and many more etc.

A loan-blend is a hybrid word created by combining morphemes of two or more languages in its creation. The process of forming a word by combining morpheme of different languages is known as hybridization.

Examples of hybrid words in Igbo include

Ite <i>pootu</i>	‘metal pot’
tekinuzu	‘technology’
uzo moto	‘tarred road’

Commented [AT33]: Why providing examples from Igbo?

The morphemes in bold face in the above examples are of English origin, while others in the normal type-face are of Igbo origin.

Calque or loan translation

A **calque or loan-translation** is a word created by using the morphemes of a recipient language to represent all the senses in a donor language.

Below are examples of calques in Igbo:

Ugbo elu	‘aeroplane’
(literally: a vessel that flies in the air)	
ugbomniri	‘boat’
(literally: a vessel that moves on water)	
ugbo ala	‘vehicle’
(literally: a vessel that moves on land)	
mmo ozi	‘Angel’

Commented [AT34]: How relevant are these since they are not English words?

(literally: a benevolent and errand spirit)

mmuo nso

mmuo ojoo

‘Holy Spirit’

‘evil spirit’

3.4 Blending

Blending is a morphological process of creating a new word by combining parts of two or more already existing words in the same language. Examples of blends in English include:-

brunch	(derived from breakfast plus lunch),
smog	(derived from smoke plus fog), (derived
motel	from motor plus hotel), (derived from
telecast	television plus broadcast), (derived from
urinalysis	urine plus analysis), (derived from
fantabulous	fantastic plus fabulous), (derived from
Amerindian	American plus Indian), and (derived from
Eurovision	European plus television).

From the above examples, it seems that a blend is achieved by taking only the beginning part of one word and joining it to the end of another word. But it is necessary to mention that the decision as to where to begin or end the cut is arbitrary.

3.5 Stress – Shift

This is also referred to as functional shift. It is a change in lexis that as a result of change that occurs in stress placement e.g. re’cord (v) and ‘record (noun). Indeed, a change in stress placement on a word may classify two utterances into different category of the units of grammar. Take a look at the examples below.

Kola & John like Mary (that is, both ‘Kola’ and ‘John’ have affection towards ‘Mary’)

Kola & John, like Mary love table tennis. (that is, ‘Kola’ and ‘John’ both love to play table tennis game as much as ‘Mary’).

In the first example, ‘like’, which is said with a rising tune is a linking verb that connects the subjects ‘Kola’ and ‘John’ to the object ‘Mary’. In the second example, the ‘like’, produced with a falling tune changes its role as a verb to an adverb and turns ‘Mary’ to a qualifier element in the adverbial group.

Commented [AT35]: So how will you define conversion? Let this come under conversion

Self Assessment Exercise 5

1. Explain what is meant by Blending as a word-formation process with examples.
2. Differentiate between stress shift and clipping as word-formation processes.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we looked at a group of morphological or word-formation processes. These include clipping, affixation, borrowing, blending, and stress shift.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have studied about:

- Clipping as a word-formation process
- Affixation as a word-formation process
- Borrowing as a word-formation process
- Blending as a word-formation process
- Stress shift as a word-formation process

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Itemise and discuss the various types of affixations that we have in the English language.
2. What is the difference between borrowing and claque or loan translation?
3. What do you understand by acronym pronounced as sequences of letters (alphabetism) and acronyms pronounced as words?
4. What are the bases or roots of these words?
 - (a) encouragement
 - (b) internationalization
 - (c) disappointments
 - (d) Illegality
 - (e) disability
 - (f) unquestionable

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UNIT 2 CONVERSION, COMPOUNDING, BACK FORMATION, REDUPLICATION, NOMINALIZATION, ACRONYM AND COINAGE

In this unit, we shall discuss the third group of the set of morphological processes which we started in this module in unit one. We shall however concentrate on conversion, compounding, back-formation, reduplication, nominalization, acronym and coinage.

The unit is arranged as follows:-

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Conversion
 - 3.2 Compounding
 - 3.3 Back-formation
 - 3.4 Reduplication
 - 3.6 Acronym
 - 3.7 Coinage
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this module, we started our discussion of morphological processes. In unit one, we looked at, clipping, affixation, borrowing, blending and stress shift.

In this unit, are looking at conversion, compounding, back-formation, reduplication nominalization, acronym and coinage.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain conversion as a word-formation process
- explain compounding as a word-formation process

- explain back formation as a word-formation process
- explain reduplication as a word-formation process
- explain nominalization as a word-formation process
- explain acronym as a word-formation process.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Conversion

Conversion, as a morphological process, involves neither the addition nor subtraction of any morpheme. This derivational process simply involves a change in the function of a **word**. For example, a verb may be used as a noun or vice-versa, without adding any suffix. Examples include verbs changing into nouns, e.g.:

Talk	-	The talk was lengthy.
Cheat	-	The boy is a cheat.
Guess	-	He made a guess.

Nouns too may be converted into verbs, e.g. *bottle* (*she bottles up her anger*); also, *referee* (*He referees the match*). This process makes the creation of new words a daily occurrence.

Conversion processes establishes the extent to which lexical items can be related in terms of meaning. Ajulo (1994:65) opines that

once it is decided that different meanings of a single lexical item are likely to be related, it is necessary to determine precisely how such meanings are related.

In general, he proposes four principal types of relation out of which three are relevant to our discussion on conversion – (1) Derivation, (2) Replacement, (3) Figurative Extension and (4) Peripheral Clustering. All are relevant except ‘Replacement’.

Derivation refers to all the essential components of an underlying base which are incorporated into another meaning, belonging to a distinctly different semantic domain. For example, compare *man* in the following two contexts

- (a) I saw a *man* approaching
- (b) They *man* the house in case of emergency.

The meaning of *man* is included within the meaning of the first *man* which refers to a human being and the second *man* which refers to an activity. The two belong to entirely different semantic domains.

Commented [AT36]: This is exactly what is implied under stress shift.

Figurative extension of meaning involves a radical shift in semantic domains in which the semantic relations between base and extended meaning depend upon either a 'supplementary' or 'secondary' component or a reinterpreted diagnostic component. For example, if you hear a wife addressing her husband in a sentence such as "You are a dog", the meaning of dog obviously does not have as a referent a particular quadruped of a canine class. Rather, this meaning of a dog is roughly equivalent to the abstract *contemptible*, and in this meaning *dog* belongs to the semantic domain of such words *contemptible*, *base*, *mean*, *worthless*, *despicable* with which it overlaps meanings.

Peripheral clustering involves linked sets of diagnostic components, which form a semantic chain binding a series together. There may also be certain common components which serve to unite such a set. Compare, for example, *paper* in the following contexts:

I know a famous company that manufactures *paper*.
 Fred just bought the *paper* from the vendor.
 Professor Adam's *paper* was the first to be presented
 at the conference.
 Biodun will *paper* his defaced and cracked walls soon.

What is observable in the four contextual uses of the single English lexical item *paper* would seem to make it clear that the meanings of the first three italicized items above constitute central - peripheral meanings, while the meaning of the last italicized item is a derivation of the first. The question deducible from this analysis is which of the 'papers' can be considered the central or base meaning of 'paper'? Thus it is established that it is almost impossible to provide a semantically neutral text. To resolve this seeming crack, linguists prefer to examine the nature of lexical meanings and their distribution in English not only in terms of their specific 'semantic' uses as individual item but also in terms of their relations to certain features of certain critical area of experience in which lexical items have been used. This entails the observation of the sum of its syntactic features or possible grammatico-semantic (and phonological) manifestations.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain what you understand by conversion, in morphological terms.

3.2 Compounding

This is another morphological process in which two or more words are put together to act as a single lexical word with a distinct meaning.

Examples are *girlfriend*, *boyfriend*, *blackbird*, *blackboard*, etc. Different word combinations are possible:

- (i) Noun + Noun compounds: windmill, paperback, steamboat, steam engine, iron filing, test tube, gas jar, electron theory, filter paper.
- (ii) Noun + Adjective compound: accident-prone, power-mad, bloodthirsty, praise worthy, colour – blind, rent-free.

Other possible combinations are Adjective + Noun, Verb + Noun, Noun + Verb, Verb + Preposition. The combinations involving nouns and adjectives are very common in English, whereas, compounds containing verbs and prepositions are less productive and subject to constraints. The compound of load (*offload the truck* is possible, but the combination “off bed” is not possible).

Odebunmi (2006:45) observes that in forming compounds, two or more words are combined, with or without hyphenation: for example, *schoolboys*, *blackbird*, *call-girl*, *playboy*, etc. Compounds may be solid, hyphenated or two-word in form e.g. offshore (solid); shore-boat (hyphenated); ill luck (two-word).

It is important to note that compounds are constantly generated by good users of English to do their specific bidding in informal situations. In most of these instances, the structure of compounds may go beyond two-word level: for example:

1. a not-too-brilliant idea
2. chop-I-chop party
3. a-do-or-die affair

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Give 10 examples each of solid, hyphenated and two-word compounds

3.3 Back Formation

This reduction process occurs when a word (root morpheme or combination of morphemes) that is usually a noun is reduced to form another word belonging to a different word-class. For example, *enthuse* (verb) formed from *enthusiasm* (noun) *televise* (television), *opine* (opinion), *posit* (position), etc.

In backformation, a shorter word is created from a longer one by a subtraction method most especially where a structure gap exists in language. Usually, backforms are derived from conceptual or agentive nouns, and are turned into verbs.

3.4 Reduplication

This is the compounding of identical (*goody-goody*) or slightly different morphemes (*wishy-washy*). Usually, the difference in the different morphemes types in single phonemes at either initial or medial positions. Their use is usually informal. In reduplication, there is a process of addition leading to the compounding by repetition of a part or the whole of a stem morpheme. There is identity relationship between the items so repeated in terms of their phoneme make-up, as well as their morphologically shapes. In English, such examples as *wishy-washy*, *walkie-talkie*, *tick-tock*, *hanky-panky* illustrate reduplication as a morphological process. There are other morphological processes that are equally important; not only to English, but also to all other languages.

The difference between the two elements comprising reduplication may be phonologically: the initial consonants in both elements differ, as in *walkie-talkie*, or in the medial vowels e.g. *criss-cross*. Reduplicative have certain common uses as noted by Ajulo (ibid: 24):

- (a) to imitate sounds: e.g. tick-tock ('of clock'), ping-pong (of hitting table or lawn tennis ball), rat-a-tat (knocking on door), bow-bow (of dog).
- (b) to suggest alternating movements, for example: seesaw, flip-flop, ping-pong.
- (c) to disparage by suggesting instability, nonsense, insincerity, vacillation, etc. higgledy-piggledy, hocus-pocus, hodge-podge, wishy-washy, dilly-dally, shilly-shally, mumbo-jumbo.
- (d) to intensify, for example, teeny-weeny, tip-top, willy-nilly.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

What do you think appears to link backformation and reduplication as morphological processes?

3.5 Nominalization

Words other than nouns or pronouns converted from other word classes and are made to behave as nouns are called nominalizations. They include verbs and adjectives – determiners, ordinals, or genitive phrases. As converted nouns, they function as headword in the group in which they occur.

Verbs

These can be in any of the following forms. Gerundive nominalizations are morphologically marked by the *-ing* suffix, e.g.

Writing is a lot easier than singing.

Eating vegetables has been a good habit.

John's paintings of yesteryears are no longer available.

Infinitival nominalization – the verbs are usually marked by ‘to’ e.g. to be, to sing, to err, to sleep, etc. e.g.

To err is human but to forgive is divine

To write has been a Herculean task.

Adjectives

This may function like noun as follows:

Ugly/Absurd is the best way to describe the incident.

Red is his usual colour.

The rich also cry.

The young must be protected.

The suffix *-ness* can be added to an adjective to form a noun:

thoughtful + ness = thoughtfulness; careful + ness = carefulness

big/good + ness = bigness/goodness; kind + ness = kindness as in

His *kindness* has earned him an award.

His *goodness* endures forever.

The *bigness* of a problem is not equal to defeat.

People's *thoughtfulness* makes them do good things.

Other adjectives functioning as nouns include: *all, both, some, such, first, a few*, etc.

All are cordially invited.

Both are acceptable options.

Some will not come.

A few were present.

Commented [AT37]: Delete

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

Discuss three possible nominalisation processes you have come across in this unit.

3.6 Acronyms

It is possible to create new words from the initial letters of a set of other words. Words formed in this way are called acronyms. Acronyms often consist of capital letters, as in:-

NYSC	(derived from 'National Youth Service Corp
WAEC	(derived from 'West African Examination Council')
UNO	(derived from 'United Nations Organization')
OAU	(derived from 'Obafemi Awolowo University')
UNESCO	(derived from United Nations, International Children's Emergency Fund)
AIDS	(derived from Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome),
RADAR	(derived from 'radio detecting and ranging') and
LASER	(derived from 'light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation')
SARS	(derived from Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome)
WHO	(derived from World Health Organisation)

When an acronym gains much currency in a speech community, it can lose its capital letters as we see in laser and radar.

3.7 Coinage or Neologism

This is a morphological process of creating new words to name previously non-existent objects or phenomena that result from cultural contact. The coined word, with the passage of time, gains currency within a speech community. Invented trade names such as Xerox and Kleenex are recent additions to the English language. They have quickly become everyday words in the language. The word Xerox used to refer only to a company that produces a type of photocopying machine. Recently, the word has come to be used to refer to the process of photocopying in general. Also the Kleenex used to refer to a brand of facial tissue, but now it has come to denote facial tissue in general.

Again, the word crane is a name for a very large bird with very long neck. But now there is a heavy-duty machine called crane which is used

for lifting heavy objects. This machine also has a long neck. In a way, the machine has taken its name from the bird.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5

1. State what you understand by the following word-formation processes, with practical examples?
 - (a) Back-formation
 - (b) Conversion
2. Differentiate between Nominalization and Back-formation with examples.

4.0 Conclusion

In this unit, we looked at the third group of morphological processes thereby ending the module as scheduled.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, you have studied about:

conversion, compounding, back-formation, reduplication, nominalization, acronym, coinage.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Give five examples each of these morphological processes
 - (a) Nominalization
 - (b) Conversion
 - (c) Back-formation
2. With five examples each, explain what is meant by
 - (a) Reduplication
 - (b) Compounding
 - (c) Acronym

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