Morphological patterns:
concatenative vs. non-concatenative morphology

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Morphology
2016
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Announcement: schedule change

Wednesday 1st June 10-12:

- No exercise
- Lecture: Inflection and Derivation in L155
Outline

1. Introduction
2. Affixation and compounding
3. Base Modifications
4. Reduplication
5. Conversion
6. Outside the realm of morphology
7. Approaches to morphological rules

Slides adapted from Weller and Haselbach (IMS Stuttgart)

1. Introduction

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3. Base Modifications

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5. Conversion

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7. Approaches to morphological rules
Introduction

Morphological patterns

- Morphological structure can be more various than simply combining affixes with bases.
- German plural formation: add an umlaut to the vowel (the stem vowel changes, no morpheme is added).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mutter</td>
<td>Mütter</td>
<td>‘mother(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vater</td>
<td>Väter</td>
<td>‘father(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tochter</td>
<td>Töchter</td>
<td>‘daughter(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garten</td>
<td>Gärten</td>
<td>‘garden(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagel</td>
<td>Nägel</td>
<td>‘nail(s)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Morphological pattern**: Cover term for processes in which morphological meaning can be associated with a segmentable part of the word and examples where this is not possible.
- In this sense, a morpheme is a subtype of morphological pattern.
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1. Introduction

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7. Approaches to morphological rules
Affixation and compounding: Concatenative morphology

Introduction

- Basic types of morphological patterns:
  - **concatenative morphology**: two morphemes are ordered one after another i.e. affixation and compounding (segmentation)
  - **non-concatenative morphology**: everything else

- An affixation rule also states which *types* of morphemes may combine: this is the **combinatory potential** of the affix
Affixation and compounding: Concatenative morphology

Combinatory potential

- An affixation rule also states which types of morphemes may combine: this is the **combinatory potential** of the affix.

- We can’t just combine any base and any affix. The **word-class** of the base in an important factor:
  
  - combinatorial potential of *un-*  
  - combinatorial potential of *able*  
  - combinatorial potential of comparative *-er*  
  - combinatorial potential of *ful*  

- Adjective examples: *un-intelligent*, *intelligent-able*, *intelligent-ful*, however *intelligent-er* (*more intelligent*)

- Test: check the combinatorial potential of some other words
1. Introduction

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Base modifications: Non-concatenative morphology

Introduction

- **Old definition of base**: The base is the part of a word that an affix is attached to

- **New definition**: The base of a morphologically complex word is the element to which a morphological operation applies

- **Base modification** (aka. stem modification/alternation): The shape of the base is changed without adding segmentable material
Base modifications: Non-concatenative morphology
Fronting and palatalization

- **Fronting** of the stem vowel, so that it is produced near the front of the mouth e.g. German plural formation with umlaut (cf. slide 5)

- **Palatalization** of the last consonant, e.g. plural formation in Albanian:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>stem</th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>armik [...k]</td>
<td>‘enemy’</td>
<td>armiq [...c]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fik [...k]</td>
<td>‘fig’</td>
<td>fiq [...c]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frëng [...g]</td>
<td>‘Frenchman’</td>
<td>frëngj [...j]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>murg [...g]</td>
<td>‘monk’</td>
<td>murgj [...j]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>papagall [... gió]</td>
<td>‘parrot’</td>
<td>papagaj [...j]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>portokall [... gió]</td>
<td>‘orange’</td>
<td>portokaj [...j]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Morphological patterns may involve a changed manner of articulation

**Weakening** of word-initial obstruent consonants, e.g. Scottish Gaelic indefinite nouns, genitive plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nom sg indef</th>
<th>gen pl indef</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[b...] bard</td>
<td>[v...] bhàrd</td>
<td>‘bard’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[k'...] ceann</td>
<td>[ç...] cheann</td>
<td>‘head’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[g...] guth</td>
<td>[ɣ...] ghuth</td>
<td>‘voice’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[tʰ...] tuagh</td>
<td>[h...] thuagh</td>
<td>‘axe’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[b...] balach</td>
<td>[v...] bhalach</td>
<td>‘boy’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Morphological patterns may involve a changed manner of articulation

**Gemination** (consonant lengthening/doubling),
e.g. causitive verb formation in Standard Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>darasa</td>
<td>‘learn’</td>
<td>darrasa</td>
<td>‘teach’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>waqafa</td>
<td>‘stop (intransitive)’</td>
<td>waqqafa</td>
<td>‘stop (transitive)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>damara</td>
<td>‘perish’</td>
<td>dammara</td>
<td>‘annihilate’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• **Lengthening** of the final stem vowel, 
e.g. first person singular inflection of verbs in Huallaga Quechua:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>translation</th>
<th>short form</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aywa-nki</td>
<td>‘you (SG) go’</td>
<td>aywa:</td>
<td>‘I go’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aywa-pto-ki</td>
<td>‘when you (SG) went’</td>
<td>aywa-pto:</td>
<td>‘when I went’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aywa-shka-nki</td>
<td>‘you (SG) have gone’</td>
<td>aywa-shka:</td>
<td>‘I have gone’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Long vowels are indicated by a colon)
• **Shortening** of the stem vowel, e.g. intransitive verb formation in Hindi/Urdu:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ma:r-</td>
<td>‘kill’</td>
<td>mar-</td>
<td>‘die’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kho:l-</td>
<td>‘open (tr.)’</td>
<td>khul-</td>
<td>‘open (intr.)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phe:r-</td>
<td>‘turn (tr.)’</td>
<td>phir-</td>
<td>‘turn (intr.)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tonal change (stress shift),
e.g. adjective formation in Chalcatongo Mixtec:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ká?ba</th>
<th>‘filth’</th>
<th>ká?bá</th>
<th>‘dirty’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>žuù</td>
<td>‘rock’</td>
<td>žúú</td>
<td>‘solid, hard’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xa?à</td>
<td>‘foot’</td>
<td>xá?á</td>
<td>‘standing’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(High tone indicated by ’ tone diacritic)

Stress shift in English: *díscout* (noun); *discóunt* (verb)
- **Test:** have a go at saying the above words
Voicing of the last consonant,
e.g. a few verbs in English are derived from nouns by voicing:

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>house</td>
<td>[haʊs]</td>
<td>to house</td>
<td>[haʊz]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thief</td>
<td>[θiːf]</td>
<td>to thieve</td>
<td>[θiːv]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wreath</td>
<td>[riːθ]</td>
<td>to wreath</td>
<td>[riːð]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Test**: have a go at saying the above words
Interesting but less common morphological patterns arise from:

- **Subtraction** (deletion of one or more segments from the base),
  e.g. plural formation in Murle:

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>nyoon</strong></td>
<td>‘lamb’</td>
<td><strong>nyoo</strong></td>
<td>‘lambs’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>wawoc</strong></td>
<td>‘white heron’</td>
<td><strong>wawo</strong></td>
<td>‘white herons’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>onyiit</strong></td>
<td>‘rib’</td>
<td><strong>onyii</strong></td>
<td>‘ribs’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>rottin</strong></td>
<td>‘warrior’</td>
<td><strong>rotti</strong></td>
<td>‘warriors’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Metathesis (switching of two of more segments within the base), e.g. actual vs. non-actual (i.e. hypothetical) events in Clallam

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>non-actual</th>
<th>actual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>qq’í-</td>
<td>qíq’-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pkʷ́é-</td>
<td>pékʷ́-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t’cé-</td>
<td>t’éc-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kʰ’sé-</td>
<td>kʰ’és-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. Introduction

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Reduplication

Introduction

- **Reduplication**: A part of the base or the complete base is copied and attached to the base

- Position of reduplicant:
  - initial reduplication:
    \[ \text{[\text{\texttt{Naj}}} \text{‘a long time’} \rightarrow \text{[\text{\texttt{Naj}}-\text{\texttt{Naj}}} \text{‘a long time (in years)’ (Agta)} \]
  - final reduplication:
    \[ \text{[\text{\texttt{we}}} \text{‘good (SG)’} \rightarrow \text{[\text{\texttt{we}}-\text{\texttt{te}}} \text{‘good (PL)’ (Dakota)} \]
  - internal reduplication:
    \[ \text{alofo} \text{‘he/she loves (SG)’} \rightarrow \text{a-lo-lofo} \text{‘they love (PL)’ (Samoan)} \]
• Reduplication of the entire stem, e.g. weakening the meaning of an adjective in Malagasy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Reduplicated Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>‘big, numerous’</td>
<td>be-be</td>
<td>‘fairly big, numerous’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fotsy</td>
<td>‘white’</td>
<td>fotsi-fotsy</td>
<td>‘whitish’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maimbo</td>
<td>‘stinky’</td>
<td>maimbo-maimbo</td>
<td>‘somewhat stinky’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hafa</td>
<td>‘different’</td>
<td>hafa-hafa</td>
<td>‘somewhat different’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reduplication
Consonant-vowel and vowel-consonant sequences

- Alternatively only part of the base may be copied:
- Reduplication of a consonant-vowel sequence before the base, e.g. participle formation in Ponapean

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Reduplication</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>duhp</td>
<td>‘dive’</td>
<td>du-duhp</td>
<td>‘be diving’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mihk</td>
<td>‘suck’</td>
<td>mi-mihk</td>
<td>‘be sucking’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wehk</td>
<td>‘confess’</td>
<td>we-wehk</td>
<td>‘be confessing’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Reduplication of a vowel-consonant sequence after the base, e.g. participle formation in Mangap-Mbula

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Reduplication</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kuk</td>
<td>‘bark’</td>
<td>kuk-uk</td>
<td>‘be barking’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kel</td>
<td>‘dig’</td>
<td>kel-el</td>
<td>‘be digging’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kan</td>
<td>‘eat’</td>
<td>kan-an</td>
<td>‘be eating’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reduplication

Examples

- Mixture between affix and reduplicant: **duplifix**
- Plurals in Somali: duplifix -aC (C is the last consonant of the base)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>buug</code></td>
<td>'book'</td>
<td><code>buug-ag</code></td>
<td>'books'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>fool</code></td>
<td>'face'</td>
<td><code>fool-al</code></td>
<td>'faces'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>koob</code></td>
<td>'cup'</td>
<td><code>koob-ab</code></td>
<td>'cups'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>jid</code></td>
<td>'street'</td>
<td><code>jid-ad</code></td>
<td>'streets'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reduplication

Examples

- Mixture between affix and reduplicant: **duplifix**
- ‘Sort of’ adjectives in Tzutujil: duplifix -Coj (C is the first consonant of the base)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>‘white’</th>
<th></th>
<th>‘whitish’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>saq</td>
<td>‘white’</td>
<td>saq-soj</td>
<td>‘whitish’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rax</td>
<td>‘green’</td>
<td>rax-roj</td>
<td>‘greenish’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q’eq</td>
<td>‘black’</td>
<td>q’eq-q’oj</td>
<td>‘blackish’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tz’iil</td>
<td>‘dirty’</td>
<td>tz’il-tz’oj</td>
<td>‘dirtyish’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Outline

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**Conversion**: A morphological pattern in which the form of the base remains unaltered

Examples from English verbs and nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>noun</th>
<th>verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hammer</td>
<td>hammer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plant</td>
<td>plant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ship</td>
<td>ship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>walk</td>
<td>walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drink</td>
<td>drink</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conversion is invoked only for derivational morphology, and primarily for relating two lexemes that differ only in lexical class (i.e. noun vs. verb)
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Outside the realm of morphology
Abbreviations and blends

- Other operations that can be used to create new words:
- Abbreviations:
  - acronyms: NATO [ˈneɪtəʊ] (North Atlantic Treaty Organization)
  - alphabetisms: CD [siˈdi:] (Compact Disc)
- Blends:
  - smog (from smoke and fog),
  - infotainment (from information and entertainment)
- Test: think of some German examples of abbreviations and blends
Outside the realm of morphology

Clippings

- Other operations that can be used to create new words:
- Clippings:
  - final clipping (apocope): gas (gasoline), DE Auto (Automobil ‘car’)
  - initial clipping (apheresis): chute (parachute), NO bil (automobil ‘car’)
  - medial clipping (syncope): ma’am (madam)

- **Test**: think of some German examples of clippings

→ None of these operations are **not** subject to morphology because the new words do not have different meanings to the longer words
Summary: Morphological Patterns

- **Concatenative morphology**: two morphemes are order one after another
  - **Affixation**: e.g. *cat-s*, *un-happy*, *wash-ed*
  - **Compounding**: e.g. *FIRE + WOOD = FIREWOOD*

- **Non-concatenative morphology**: everything else
  - **Base modifications**: the shape of the base is changed without adding segmentable material, e.g. **stress shift in English**: *díscount* (noun); *discóunt* (verb)
  - **Reduplication**: a part of the base or the complete base is copied and attached to the base, e.g. weakening the meaning of an adjective in Malagasy
    - *be* (‘big’); *be-be* (‘fairly big’)
  - **Conversion**: a morphological pattern in which the form of the base remains unaltered, e.g. hammer (noun and verb)
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**Goal**: create a system of *morphological rules* that mimics speakers’ linguistic knowledge
  – System should accurately represent morphological generalisations
  – Rules should be elegant and cognitively realistic

**Note**: *concatenative patterns* are more common in the world’s languages than *non-concatenative patterns*
  – Because morphological structure is similar to syntactic structure?
  – Or because of the way language changed through history?

**Two possible systems**:
  – Morpheme-based model
  – Word-based model
Morphological rules
Morpheme-based model

- **Morpheme-based model**: morphological rules combine morphemes like syntactic rules combine words

- E.g. we can use syntactic **phrase structure rules** to create a sentence:

  a. sentence = noun phrase + verb phrase
  b. noun phrase = (i) determiner (+ adjective) + noun
     (ii) sentence
  c. verb phrase = verb (+ noun phrase)
  d. determiner = *the, a, some, ...*
  e. noun = *cat, rat, bat, ...*
  f. verb = *chased, thought, slept, ...*
  g. adjective = *big, grey, ...*

- Replace elements on the left of “=” by elements on the right
Morphological rules

Applying phrase structure rules

• Produce the sentence: *A big cat chased the bat*

sentence → noun phrase + verb phrase     (a)
noun phrase → determiner + adjective + noun (b)
verb phrase → verb + noun phrase          (c)
noun phrase → determiner + noun            (b)
determiner + adjective + noun → *a big cat* (d,g,e)
verb → *chased*                           (f)
determiner + noun → *the bat*             (d,e)

sentence: *A big cat chased the bat*

• X → Y means “insert Y for X”
Word-structure rules are analogous to syntactic phrase structure rules.

Can be used to describe the structure of complex English words like: *cheeseboard*, *bags*, *unhappier*, *eventfullness*

\begin{itemize}
  \item a. word-form \quad = \quad \text{stem (}+\text{ inflectional suffix)}
  \item b. stem \quad = \quad (i) \ (\text{deriv. prefix } +\text{) root (}+\text{ deriv. suffix)}
    \quad (ii) \text{ stem } + \text{ stem}
  \item c. inflectional suffix \quad = \quad -s, -er, ...
  \item d. derivational prefix \quad = \quad \text{un-}, ...
  \item e. root \quad = \quad \text{bag, event, cheese, board, happy, ...}
  \item f. derivational suffix \quad = \quad \text{-ful, -ness, ...}
\end{itemize}
Morphological rules
Word-structure rules: test

- **Test**: produce the word *bags*

  a. word-form = stem (+ inflectional suffix)
  b. stem = (i) (deriv. prefix +) root (+ deriv. suffix)  
     (ii) stem + stem
  c. inflectional suffix = -s, -er, ...
  d. derivational prefix = *un*-,
  e. root = *bag*, *event*, *cheese*, *board*, *happy*, ...
  f. derivational suffix = -*ful*, -*ness*, ...
Morphological rules
Word-structure rules: solution

• **Test**: produce the word *bags*

  word-form $\rightarrow$ stem + inflectional suffix (a)
  stem $\rightarrow$ root $\rightarrow$ *bag* (b(i),e)
  inflectional suffix $\rightarrow$ -s (c)

  word-form: *bag*-s
Morphological rules
Pros and cons of the morpheme-based model

Pro:

• **Concatenative patterns**: natural explanation of the fact that morpheme concatenation is the most common kind of morphological pattern in the worlds’ languages

Con:

• **Non-concatenative patterns**: base modification (Mutter → Mütter) and conversion (hammer (N) → hammer (V)) are difficult to accommodate
Morphological rules

Word-based model

- **Word-based model**: word-schemas represent features common to morphologically related words

- E.g. the similarities among the English words *bags, keys, gods, ribs, bones, gems* (etc.) can be expressed by the word schema:

Words: *bags, keys, gods, ribs, bones, gems*

Lexical entries for words:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/bægz/N</th>
<th>/kʰijz/</th>
<th>/gædz/N</th>
<th>/ribz/N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘bags’</td>
<td>‘keys’</td>
<td>‘gods’</td>
<td>‘ribs’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Word schema:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/Xz/N</th>
<th>'plurality of xs’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
A word schema contains information on:
- Pronunciation (phonological representation e.g. /z/)
- Syntactic properties (e.g. N)
- Meaning (e.g. ‘plurality of...’)

Additionally a word-schema may contain: variables (/X/

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
/Xz/N & \text{'plurality of xs'} \\
\end{array}
\]

A word-schema stands for complete words, not individual morphemes (in the sense of the morpheme-based model)
- It is a generalisation based on lexical entries (e.g. bags, keys, gems), which are themselves word-forms, not morphemes
Morphological rules

Pros and cons of the word-based model

Pro:

- **Non-concatenative patterns**: such as hammer(N) / hammer(V) can be described quite naturally (this is difficult for the morpheme-based model)

  
  /X/N
  
  'x (= an instrument)'

  ↔

  /X/V

  'use x (= an instrument)'

- **Back-formations**: words like babysit which is historically derived from babysitter are possible (but not easy to explain in the morpheme-based model)

Con:

- The model is not **restrictive** (unlike the morpheme-based model)
  - It allows morphological rules of virtually any type – even those that do not exist in any language
### Morphological rules

Summary: morpheme-based vs. word-based models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Morpheme-based</th>
<th>Word-based</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concatenative patterns easy</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to capture?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-concatenative patterns</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>easy to capture?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Back-formations are easy to</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restrictive?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Guillou and Fraser (CIS)
Questions?
Reminder: schedule change

Wednesday 1st June 10-12:

- No exercise
- Lecture: Inflection and Derivation in L155
Thank you for your attention