

Non-Concatenative Morphological Processes

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Introduction

Most morphology involves concatenating morphemes together:

- Prefixation
- Suffixation
- Compounding

Consider, however, the following examples: In fact, non-concatenative mor-

SINGULAR	PLURAL
foot	feet
tooth	teeth
goose	geese
man	men
mouse	mice

Table 1: Examples of umlaut in English.

phological processes are common throughout the languages of the world.

Generalized Glossing Guidelines

In order to more effectively GLOSS non-concatenative processes, we developed an annotation convention called G3 (Generalized Glossing Guidelines)¹. It represents non-concatenative processes as string rewrites:

- (1) I have two left f{oo>ee}t
1.SG have two left foot{PL}
'I have two left feet'

Similarly, here is an example of umlaut in German:

- (2) Ich habe vier Br{u>ü}der
1.SG have.1.SG four brother{PL}
'I have four brothers.'

The same convention can be used to annotate the whole gamut of non-concatenative processes:

We will talk about each of these processes in more detail.

Infixation

Ulwa, a Misumalpan language of Nicaragua has suffixing infixation:

¹ David R. Mortensen, Ela Gulsen, Taiqi He, Nathaniel Robinson, Jonathan Amith, Lindia Tjuatja, and Lori Levin. Generalized glossing guidelines: An explicit, human- and machine-readable, item-and-process convention for morphological annotation. In Garrett Nicolai, Eleanor Chodroff, Frederic Mailhot, and Çağrı Çöltekin, editors, *Proceedings of the 20th SIGMORPHON workshop on Computational Research in Phonetics, Phonology, and Morphology*, pages 58–67, Toronto, Canada, July 2023. Association for Computational Linguistics. DOI: 10.18653/v1/2023.sigmorphon-1.7. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2023.sigmorphon-1.7>

Type	Example	Gloss
Infixation	s{>um}ulat	write{PFV}
Reduplication	{>su}sulat	write{PROSP}
Transfixation	k{i>u}t{a>u}b	book{PL;1,2}
Apophony	t{u>i}θ	tooth{PL}
Segmental overwriting	{xi>ku}3xi3	eat{IRR}
Tonal overwriting	ku{3>14}ni2	want{NEG}

Table 2: Example forms and glosses for a range of morphological processes.

- (3) a. waihai{>ki}
 waihai{ki}
 brother{POSS::1.SG}
 ‘my brother’
- b. sũ{>ki}lu
 sũ{ki}lu
 dog{POSS::1.SG}
 ‘my dog’

But there was also infixation in Latin:

- (4) ta{>n}g{>o}
 ta{n}g{o}
 touch1.SG.PRS.IND
 ‘I touch.’

Reduplication

- (5) Nahuatl reduplication with fixed segmentism:
- a. ti- ne:ch- {>teh}te:mowa -0
 SUBJ::2S- OBJ::1S- look_for{RED} -PRS.IND.S
 ‘You miss me.’
- b. ni- mits- {>ih}ita -0
 SUBJ::1S- OBJ::2S- see{RED} -PRS.IND.S
 ‘I visit you.’

The first consonant (if present) and the first vowel are repeated before the stem, followed by /h/.

An example from Mangap-Mbula:

- (6) kuk{>uk}
 kuk{uk}
 bark{PROG}
 ‘be barking’

The final VC is suffixed to the stem.

In Pima, a Uto-Aztecan language of the United State, plurals are formed by infixing a copy of the first consonant of a stem after the first vowel:

- (7) a. $ma\{>m\}vi\grave{t}$
 $ma\{m\}vi\grave{t}$
 $lion\{PL\}$
‘lions’
- b. $tʃi\{>tʃ\}mai\grave{t}$
 $tʃi\{tʃ\}mai\grave{t}$
 $drum\{PL\}$
‘drums’

Classical Latin also featured infixing reduplication of the first vowel and the consonant before it:

- (8) $s\{>po\}pond>\bar{i}$
 $spopond\bar{i}$
 $perform\{1.SG.PRF.IND;1,2\}$
trans ‘I perform’

Conversion

- (9) a. I’m going to *swim* across the lake.
b. I’m going to take a *swim* across the lake.
- (10) a. Coke comes in a *bottle*.
b. They *bottle* Coke.

Truncation

Murle forms plurals by deleting the last consonant or vowel:

- (11) a. $nyoo\{n>0\}$
 $nyoo\{\}$
 $lamb\{PL\}$
‘lambs’
- b. $wawo\{c>0\}$
 $wawo\{\}$
 $white_heron\{PL\}$
‘white herons’

Apophony

In Totonac, diminutives are sometimes formed by changing all instances of /ʃ/ into /s/:

$\textcolor{violet}{ʃ}ku'ta$	‘sour’	$\textcolor{violet}{s}ku'ta$	‘a little sour’
$\textcolor{violet}{ʃ}u:ni'$	‘bitter’	$\textcolor{violet}{s}u:ni'$	‘a little bitter’
$tʃi'tʃ$	‘hot’	$tsi'ts$	‘a little hot’

Table 3: Totonac diminutives

Irish also has apophony for forming plurals.

- (12) a. $c\{ea>i\}nn$
 $c\{i\}nn$
 $head\{PL\}$
‘heads’
- b. $m\{ui>a\}r\{>a\}$
 $m\{a\}r\{a\}$
 $sea\{PL;1,2\}$
‘seas’

Tonal Overwriting

In Yolochochitl Mixtec, habituals are formed by changing to tones on a word:

- (13) $ta\{3>1>4\}bi\{>1\}4$
 $ta\{4\}bi\{14\}$
 get-broken{HAB;1,2}
 ‘habitually get broken’

Stress Shift

English:

'object	ob'ject
'reject	re'ject
'conflict	con'flict
'contest	con'test
'insult	in'sult

Table 4: Stress shift in English

Segmental Overwriting

Although it is unusual, some languages have morphological processes where sequences of sounds are “overwritten” by another sequence of sounds.

- (14) $\{xi>ku\}3xi3$
 $\{ku\}3xi3$
 eat{IRR}
 ‘eat’

Transfixation

A few languages, mostly belonging to the AFROASIATIC family², have a kind of non-concatenative morphology called root-and-pattern morphology. The basic operation, in such a system, is a transfix. Transfixes add vowels across bases (not just one place) and may also lengthen consonants.

² Afroasiatic is the language family to which Semitic, Berber, Chadic, Cushitic, Omotic, and Egyptian belong. The best known Afroasiatic languages are Arabic, Hebrew, and Amharic.

Morphological Operations as Functions from Sign to Sign

We have implicitly treated a morphological operation as a function having the following type signature

$$f: \langle \Sigma^*, G \rangle \rightarrow \langle \Sigma^*, G \rangle \rightarrow \langle \Sigma^*, G \rangle \quad (1)$$

where Σ^* represents a string³ corresponding to a signifier and G represents

³ We may not think of phonological representations as simple strings, but this suffices for the moment

	Perfect		Imperfect		Participle	
	Active	Passive	Active	Passive	Active	Passive
I	katab	kutib	ktub	ktab	kaatib	ktuub
II	kattab	kuttib	kattib	kattab	kattib	kattab
III	kaatab	kuutib	kaatib	kaatab	kaatib	kaatab
IV	?aktab	?uktib	ktib	ktab	ktib	ktab
V	takattab	tukuttib	takattab	takattab	takattib	takattab
VI	takaatab	tukuutib	takaatab	takaatab	takaatib	takaatab
VII	nkatab	nkutib	nkatib	nkatab	nkatib	nkatab
VIII	ktatab	ktutib	ktatib	ktatab	ktatib	ktatab
IX	ktab(a)b	ktab(i)b	ktab(i)b			
X	staktab	stuktib	staktib	staktab	staktib	staktab

Table 5: An Arabic paradigm for the root *k-t-b* ‘(related to) writing’.

a graph corresponding to a signified. We have assume that the function f is always roughly like

$$f(\langle a, A \rangle, \langle b, B \rangle) = \langle a \oplus b, g(A, B) \rangle \quad (2)$$

where a and b are signifiers, A and B are signifieds, \oplus is the concatenation operator, and g is a semantic composition function. For any particular instance of prefixation or suffixation, either $\langle a, A \rangle$ or $\langle b, B \rangle$ is going to be constant, so f is actually

$$f: \langle \Sigma^*, G \rangle \rightarrow \langle \Sigma^*, G \rangle \quad (3)$$

For suffixation of *ing*, f could be defined as

$$f(\langle a, A \rangle) = \langle a \oplus \text{ing}, g(A, \text{GERUND}) \rangle \quad (4)$$

However, there is no reason we could not generalize this to

$$f(\langle a, A \rangle) = \langle p(a), g(A, G) \rangle \quad (5)$$

where p is a function in $\Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ and G is semantic content. p , then, could be any mapping from string to string (including substitutions, deletions, insertions, repetitions, or any combination of these). In other words, a **morphological operation/process is a function from signs to signs**. For example, Nahuatl reduplication with fixed segmentation could be notated as

$$(15) \quad (C)VX^+ \rightarrow (C)Vh(C)VX^+$$

where C matches a consonant, (C) matches an optional consonant, V matches a vowel, X matches a consonant or vowel, and $+$ is the Kleene plus (one or more repetitions). This would map strings the start with zero or more consonants and one vowel (followed by some number of other segments) to strings starting with the same consonant and vowel, followed by an $/h/$, followed in turn by the rest of the string (matched by X^+).

References

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