# THE ENGLISH AGENTIVE NOUNS

IN

-er, -ee, -ant, -ist, and -ian

a generative approach

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p. Symbol	ls line 5:	change lars to bars
page 6	line 12:	change <u>-by</u> to <u>-ly</u>
page 6	line 19:	change <u>-by</u> to <u>-ly</u>
page 9	line 22:	add cuotation marks after forms.
page 15	line 14;	insert with after <u>-ity</u>
pege 20 1	lines 12/13:	change ba-se to base
page 22	line 16:	insert <u>semicolon</u> after <u>nudity)</u>
page 29	line 12:	delete by itself after word
page 35	lines 6/7:	change confu-se to confuse
page 37	line 5:	change absclete to obsolete
page 38	line 5:	change transformed to transferred
page 40	line 19:	delete moneylendee
page 4 <b>4</b>	line 10:	change mortgage to mortgagee
page 50	lines 17/18:	replace character that distinguishes the -ant agents to the output with aspect that characterizes the -ant agents
page 62	line 4:	change <u>bobby - bobbyist</u> to <u>lobby - lobbyist</u>
page 67	line 6:	change than to that
page 74	line 4:	change <u>semicolon</u> to <u>colon</u>
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page 79	line S:	change <u>ciclist</u> to <u>cyclist</u>
page <b>7</b> 9	line 7:	change profissional to professional
page 86	line 5:	change engayed to engaged
page 89	line 10:	change <u>higly</u> to <u>highly</u>
page 89	line 15:	change produtivity to productivity
page 90	line 20:	change banker in bound base column to grocer

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# То

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#### SYMBOLS

- : a hyphen before a morpheme indicates that the mor pheme is a suffix, e.g. -er.
- : a hyphen after a morpheme indicates that the morpheme is a bound base, e.g. <u>but1</u>-.
- / / : slant lars enclose phonemic transcriptions, e. g. / myu'zīšan /. <u>A Pronouncing Dictionary of American English</u> by Kenyon and Knott.
  - I : used in the upper space before a syllable indicates that the primary stress falls on that syllable, e.g. /'prezadant /.
  - : used in the lower space before a syllable indi cates that the secondary stress falls on that syl lable, e. g. / refa'ri /.
- [X] : indicates a word unit.
  - \* : hypothetical forms.

#### ABBREVIATIONS

- F & W : Funk & Wagnall's Dictionary.
  - OAD : The Oxford American Dictionary.
  - OED : The Oxford English Dictionary.
  - WC : Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary.
  - WI : Webster's New International Dictionary.
  - WFR : Word Formation Rule.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION.

#### 1.1. Purpose.

The word formation process, particularly the principles that govern the combination of semantic elements, has long intrigued us, and is of special interest to our work in the field of translation, as we try to find equivalents and logical reasons for those combinations of bases and suffixes which are part of the inherent linguistic knowledge of the native speakers of a language.

In trying to find out how suffixes combine with different bases, we became interested in a group of suffixes which share a common characteristic: they all form nouns that indicate agency.

We soon realized that in order to elucidate the semantic differences of the suffixes, which had not yet been clearly explained or defined, a thorough study of all aspects of word formation had to be made.

We started by posing several questions, such as: Why do words such as <u>geographer</u>, <u>geologist</u>, and <u>mathema</u> <u>tician</u> have different suffixes, though all of them refer to people who occupy themselves with sciences? Is the occurrence of these suffixes either phonologically or morphologically conditioned? (Our study reveals that phonological condition ing plays no role and that morphological conditioning occurs only in one instance). Moreover, do these suffixes (-<u>er</u>,-<u>ist</u>, and -<u>ian</u>) only attach to nouns, such as <u>geography</u>, <u>geology</u>, and mathematics, or to other parts of speech as well?

In collecting data for a corpus that would provide us with the necessary elements for working out a hypothesis that would answer these questions, we encountered two other suffixes, -ee (as in <u>escapee</u>, <u>refugee</u>), and -ant (as in <u>accountant</u>, <u>celebrant</u>), which we added to our initial list.

At this point, our corpus revealed such pairs as <u>copier</u> - <u>copyist</u>, <u>physicist</u> - <u>physician</u>, <u>server</u> - <u>servant</u>, <u>returner</u> - <u>returnee</u>. Each pair has identical bases, therefore excluding any possibility that phonological or morphological complementary distribution might condition the attachment of one suffix or the other. Furthermore, both bases are in the same lexical category. Are these pairs then synonyms? If not, where does the difference lie?

Some other agentive suffixes came to our atten tion: -<u>eer</u>, -<u>ster</u>, -<u>aster</u>, and -<u>ard</u>; but it was soon evident that these four suffixes formed a distinct semantic group:all of them carried a pejorative meaning. Since the semantic distinction was so evident, we thought it better to restrict our study to the first five suffixes (-<u>er</u>, -<u>ee</u>, -<u>ant</u>, -<u>ist</u>, and -<u>ian</u>), leaving the pejorative suffixes for a future paper.

In carrying out our project we analyzed each of these suffixes in turn, considering their phonological and morphological behavior when added to a base, the syntactic features of this base and the meaning content of the base, of the suffix, and of the resulting combination.

In short, our purpose is to investigate whether these suffixes are variants of a single agentive morpheme or whether each one represents a distinct agentive morpheme and, if so, how one distinguishes from the other.

1.2. Corpus.

In order to assemble a corpus to work on we first collected examples in the following dictionaries:

The Oxford English Dictionary Oxford American Dictionary

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary Webster's New International Dictionary Walker's Rhyming Dictionary Capricorn Rhyming Dictionary

This survey provided us with a large number of suffixed agents, but we also included words of contemporary usage which we came across in our readings of current novels and magazines. These consisted of terms that had not yet been lexicalized and so we could check not only the present pro ductivity of each suffix, but also the persistence or varia tion of its semantic content in different words generated by the same word formation rule.

We included in our thesis words we believed to be of a larger range of occurrence, i.e. we omitted low fre quency words. The complete corpus is compiled in alphabetical order in an appendix following the final conclusions.

#### 2. THE THEORETICAL BACKGROUND.

#### 2.1. A brief survey of the study of morphology.

The purpose of this survey is to show the differ ent perpectives that have been directing the studies of mor phology up to the present time.

We do not intend to cover the subject thoroughly, but just to show how the main trends from traditional grammar up to the present time have contributed to the development of morphology, the aspects that are relevant to our paper, that is, the structure of words.

#### 2.1.1. Classic English Grammar: Otto Jespersen.

One of the most representative authors of classic English grammar is Otto Jespersen, who devoted a vo1 ume of his Modern English Grammar, first published in 1911, to morphology. It includes prefixes and suffixes as word forma tives, but does not distinguish clearly between the ones that have a grammatical function (plural, verb inflections, compar ative, etc.) and the ones that form words. That is the reason why the author includes within the functions of - 5 ending, meanings so far apart as the plural of nouns and the formative element in verbs such as cleanse.

In other words, though Jespersen recognizes the different meanings of the endings, he lists them regardless of the bases they are attached to and of their semantic content. For example, he assigns, the following grammatical means to the ending  $-\underline{en}$ :

- 1) plural of substantives: oxen.
- 2) primary of a noun: mine, none.
- 3) adjectives from substantives: woollen.

- 4) second participle: <u>taken</u>.
- 5) derives causative or inchoative verbs from adjectives: <u>sharpen</u>, or substantives: <u>heighten</u>. (JESPERSEN, 1954:337)

As can be seen, he considers them all"grammatical means", not making a clear distinction between inflection al and derivational endings.

#### 2.1.2. American structuralism.

The systematization of the morphological anal ysis of English came with the American structuralists who divid ed the analysis of the language into three levels: phonology, morphology and syntax.

The classic core of American structuralism is formed by Leonard Boomfield, who published his <u>Language</u> in 1933 and by a group that published most of their productions in the late forties: Bloch, Hockett, Nida, and Harris.

HERNDON (1976: 69) is very precise in the definition of the methods used by the structuralists: "The methods of structural grammarians consist of breaking the flow of spoken language into the smallest possible units, sorting them out, and then studying the various ways in which these units are joined in meaningful combination".

"The smallest possible unit in morphology is the morpheme, defined as a group of morphs that are semantically similar and in complementary distribution. The allomorphs are the member morphs of a morpheme. They may or may not be simi lar in sound, but they do show a pattern of complementary dis tribution, that is, each has its own environment. For example, the plural morpheme in English -es has principal allomorphs /-s/, /-z/, and /-z/ as in /kæts/, /d > gz/, and /carczz/, but it also includes a few occurrences of /-an/ as in / qksan/, / x / or zero allomorph, as in /sip/, and some instances of internal

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vowel change, as in /ti $\theta$ /. Thus the allomorphs of the plural morpheme -es are semantically similar (each carries the notion of more than one), and they are in complementary distribution (they do not overlap). That is, we may say <u>oxen</u>, but not \*<u>oxes</u>; two teeth, but not two \*tooths.

We will define other terms that are fundamental for the structuralist and for our paper. Morphemes may be either free or bound. A <u>free morpheme</u> is one that may stand alone, as an independent linguistic form, such as <u>sad</u>, <u>run</u>, jump, or may combine with other morphemes, as with <u>sadly</u>, <u>running</u>, <u>jumped</u>. <u>Bound morphemes</u> are those that must always appear as part of a combination of forms. Examples are - <u>by</u>, - <u>ing</u>, - <u>ceive</u>, - <u>sist</u>.

When there is a combination of morphemes, the one that carries the main semantic load is called <u>base</u>. Forms added to the bases and that modify their meaning are called <u>affixes</u>. In <u>sadly</u>, <u>running</u>, <u>jumped</u>, <u>receive</u> and <u>consist</u>, the bases are <u>sad</u>, <u>run</u>, <u>jump</u>, <u>-ceive</u>, and <u>-sist</u> and the affixes are <u>-by</u>, <u>-ing</u>, <u>-ed</u>, <u>-re</u>, and <u>con-</u>.

In English bases may be either free or bound (1) and may be differently combined. Depending on this combination we have the following kinds of words:

- simple words: these are made up of a free base, such as house, take, strong;
- 2) complex words: these are subdivided into two groups:
  - a) those formed of a bound base + a derivational affix, such as: conceive, disturb, version.
  - b) those formed of a free base + a derivational affix, such as: hopeless, undo, lover.
    The agentive formation, that is the subject of this paper, is included in this group.
- (1) The different views concerning bound bases in word for mation are discussed in Section 2.2.1.)

3) <u>Compound words</u>: they are made up of a free morpheme + an other free morpheme, such as: blackboard, lookout, housewife.

<u>Affixes</u>, which are always bound morphemes, are called <u>prefixes</u> when they are added before the base and <u>suffixes</u> when they are added after the base.

According to their function affixes are divided into two main categories: inflectional and derivational. Inflectional suffixes adapt words to grammatical functions without changing their meaning. The referents of boy, cat, and house are not changed by adding a plural morpheme; the notion of rob, call, or miss is not changed by adding an - ed that indicates past tense.

Derivational suffixes and prefixes, on the other hand, alter the lexical meaning, often the part of speech, when they are added to another form.

So	we	have:	happy	-	happiness
			act	-	actor
			paint	-	painter
			agree	-	agreement.

Summing up, the word consists of a base plus an affix. Nevertheless we cannot ignore that in the spoken system there are pauses of varying length, and the su prasegmental phonemes of <u>stress</u>, <u>pitch</u> and <u>juncture</u>. These phonemes are called <u>suprasegmental</u> because they seem like an extra layer of structure, superposed on the basic segmental phonemes - the consonants and vowels.

In our paper we deal only with stress. It frequently shifts from one syllable to another when derivation occurs and in doing so causes changes in the segmental phonemes.

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2.1.2.1. Nida's principles of morpheme identification.

In his <u>Morphology: the descriptive analysis of</u> words, first published in 1946,NIDA mentioned six principles which we may apply in isolating and identifying morphemes. They are:

<u>Principle 1</u>: "Forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness and an identical phonemic form in all their occur rences conctitute a single morpheme." (NIDA, 1970:7).

> In other words, if they have the same form and the same meaning they are a single morpheme.

- Example: Such a form as -er, added to verbs as in dancer, runner, worker is a morpheme. The -er in comparative adjectives such as wider, smaller, deeper is another mor pheme.
- <u>Principle 2</u>: "Forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness but which differ in phonemic form (i.e. the pho nemes or order of the phonemes) may constitute a morpheme provided the distribution of formal diffe rences is phonologically definable." (NIDA, 1970: 14).

In other words, forms with the same meaning and different allomorphs, phonologically conditioned, are a single morpheme.

Example: In the series <u>comparable</u>, <u>context</u>, <u>con</u> <u>gregate</u>, the prefix has three forms -/kam-, kan-, kaŋ-/ and their distribu tion is phonologically conditioned. They are allomorphs of a single morpheme.

- <u>Principle 3</u>: "Forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness but which differ in phonemic form in such a way that their distribution cannot be phonologically defined constitute a single morpheme if the forms are in complementary distribution in accordance with the following restrictions:
- 1. Occurrence in the same structural series has precedence over occurrence in different structural series in the determination of morphemic status.
- 2. Complementary distribution in different structural series constitutes a basis for combining possible allomorphs into one morpheme only if there also occurs in these different structural series a morpheme which belongs to the same dis tribution class as the allomorphic series in question and which itself has only one allomorph or phonologically defin ed allomorphs.
- 3. Immediate tactical environments have precedence over non immediate tactical environments in determining morphemic status.
- 4. Contrast in identical distributional environments may be treated as submorphemic if the difference in meaning of the allomorphs reflects the distribution of these forms. (NIDA, 1970:41).

In other words, elements with the same meaning but different phonemic form in complementary dis tribution are a single morpheme if the restrictions above are followed.

Example: The plural forms of English nouns illus trate a number of points in the application of Principle 3. The predominant pattern of formation consists in the suffixation of /-s, -z,  $-\frac{2}{2}$ , phonologically conditioned forms. To these may

be added the forms /-n,  $-\varnothing/$  as in <u>oxen</u> and <u>sheep</u>, which are morphologically con ditioned.

There are absolutely no limits to the degree of phonological difference between allomorphs. Allomorphs may consist of very different phonemes as in the plu ral formatives or they may be quite sim ilar.

- <u>Principles 4</u>: "An overt formal difference in a structural series constitutes a morpheme if in any member of such a series, the overt formal difference and a zero structural difference are the only significant features for distinguishing a minimal unit of phonetic - semantic distinctiveness." (NIDA,1970: 54).
  - Example: The overt difference between <u>foot</u> and <u>feet</u> is the replacement of /**u**/ by /i/.Accord ing to Principle 4 this replacement con stitutes a morpheme.
- <u>Principle 5</u>: "Homophonous forms are identifiable as the same or different morphemes on the basis of the follow ing conditions:
- 1. Homophonous forms with distinctly different meanings constitute different morphemes.
- 2. Homophonous forms with related meanings constitute a single morpheme if the meaning classes are paralleled by distributional differences, but they constitute multiple morphemes if the meaning classes are not paralleled by distributional differences." (NIDA, 1970:55).

Example: Fish meaning an object and fish meaning a process are assigned to the same morpheme, for these differences in mean ing are paralleled by distributional differences: the first is a noun and the second is a verb. They occur in different grammatical constructions and with different suffixes.

In analyzing the distributions of the semantically related forms of <u>horn</u> de signating: a) an animal's horn and b) an instrument for producing sound, it soon becomes evident that they are not in complementary distribution and so they constitute different morphemes.

<u>Principles 6</u>: "A morpheme is isolatable if it occurs under the following conditions:

- 1. In isolation.
- 2. In multiple combinations in at least one of which the unit with which it is combined occurs in isolation or in other combinations.
- 3. In a single combination provided the element with which it is combined occurs in isolation or in other combinations with nonunique constituents." (NIDA, 1970:58)

Examples:

<u>Condition 1</u>: On the basis of this condition we may identify as morphemes the forms which may be uttered in isolation, such as <u>boy</u>, <u>run</u>, <u>jump</u>, up.

<u>Condition 2</u>: Certain morphemes, as -<u>er</u>, in <u>work</u> <u>er</u>, <u>dancer</u>, and <u>provider</u>, never occur in <u>iso</u> lation. Nevertheless, we can identify -<u>er</u> as a morpheme, since the elements with which it occurs <u>work</u>, dance, provide may be found in isolation.

<u>Condition 3</u>: There are some morphemes which occur in only one combination, as <u>cran-</u> in <u>cran</u> <u>berry</u>, <u>rasp-</u> in <u>raspberry</u>, and <u>cray-</u> in <u>crayfish</u>. According to condition 3 of isolatability, the morphemes <u>cran-</u>, <u>rasp-</u>, and <u>cray-</u> are isolat able because the elements <u>berry</u> and <u>fish</u> occur in isolation or in other combinations.

In 1975, almost thirty years after <u>Morphology:</u> <u>the descriptive analysis of words</u> was published, Nida wrote <u>The Componential Analysis of Meaning</u>. In this volume he studies referential meaning focusing on the semantic domains of words and the components of meaning, presenting some procedures for the analysis of referential meaning.

Referential meaning is analyzed in terms of the semantic domain to which the word belongs. "Perhaps the largest sin gle domain in any language consists of entities, or objects, whether countable (man, tree, dog, house, etc), or mass (sand, water, ice, air, etc). The next largest domain consists of events - both actions and processes - (rain, come, go, grow , etc); while somewhat smaller domains consist of abstracts: qual ities (good, bad, beautiful, etc); quantities (much, few, many, etc.), and degrees (very, too, so, etc). The relationals, which primarily mark the relations between objects, events, and abstracts, are a somewhat smaller class (beside, around, etc) as well as the various "case" relations of agent, with. instrument, affected, recipients, etc." (NIDA, 1979:175).

So, in this volume, he evolved from the word segmentation in his original theory to a semantic study that follows a generative - transformational orientation.

2.1.3. Transformational generative grammar.

#### 2.1.3.1. The transformationalist hypothesis.

Initially the transformational theory consider ed each word as a whole, abandoning the derivational morpholo gy as it had been considered by the American descriptivists: a combination of elements.

The transformational theory was concerned just with general derivational processes, such as nominalizations, but gave them a syntactic approach. Sentences such as "John criticized the book" and the derived nominal "John's criticism of the book" would have their origin in the same deep structu re, the latter being the result of a transformational rule.

This approach has some advantages over the previous one: on one hand the problem of the morpheme being a min imal meaningful unit is ignored and on the other hand it accounts for the semantic correspondence between verbal sen tences and their derived nominals.

The transformational hypothesis, neverthe less, cannot explain all the derivational processes of the lan guage and so Chomsky suggests the lexicalist hypothesis.

#### 2.1.3.2. Chomsky's lexicalist hypothesis.

The lexicalist hypothesis is contained in "Remarks on Nominalization" (1970).

This paper presents a new theory of syntax, in which all of derivational morphology is isolated and removed from the syntax; it is instead dealt with in an expanded lex icon, by a separate component of the grammar. This distinction legitimizes the field of morphology as an independent entity. Chomsky did not propose a theory of morphology; he merely suggested that there should be one, and that its prop erties should be very different from those of an adequate theo ry of syntax.

#### 2.1.3.3. Aronoff's theory.

A theory of morphology is elaborated by Aronoff in his <u>Word Formation in Generative Grammar</u> first published in 1976. His theory provides "a unified account of morphologi cal phenomena within a generative grammar." (ARONOFF, 1981:6).

According to Aronoff all word-formation processes are word-based. A new word is formed by applying a regular rule to a single already existing word and is represented as follows:

(1) 
$$\int X J_A \longrightarrow \int \int X J_A Y J_B$$

both  $\angle X \mathcal{J}_A$  and  $\angle \angle X \mathcal{J}_A \mathcal{Y} \mathcal{J}_B$  being free forms in the language. Thus -ment forms nouns from verbs (detachment, agreement) being both the verbs and the -ment nouns free forms in the language.

(2)  $(\text{detach}_V \longrightarrow ( ( \text{detach}_V \text{ment}_N ))$ 

The regular rules referred to above are termed Word Formation Rules (WFR). Such a rule specifies a set of words on which it can operate. This set, or any member of this set, is the base of that rule. Every WFR specifies a unique phonological operation - usually the addition of some affix which is performed on the base. Every WFR also specifies a syntactic label and subcategorization for the resulting word (the output), as well as a semantic reading for it, which is a function of the reading of the base.

Aronoff's word - based morphology is restrict ed to word formation and has disregarded the structure of al ready existing words, where the problem of assigning meaning to all the elements that make up a word would be considered.

An important matter discussed by Aronoff is the notion of productivity . "It is the root of the strange and persistent fact that, though many things are possible in mor phology, some are more possible than others." (ARONOFF, 1981:35).

The author does not identify productivity with sheer number but takes into account the morphology of the base. He compares the two affixes -ness and -ity when attached to two distinct classes of base adjectives, those ending in ive (perceptive) and those ending in ile (servile). The simple list tells us that -ness is more productive than -ity the former class of bases. However this result does not carry over to the second class of bases. The number of words of the form X ility overwhelmingly exceeds that ot those of the form Xileness. In the one case one suffix is more productive, in the other case the other is. Thus, there is no absolute way to say that one WFR is more productive than another. Rather. one must take into account the morphology of the base.

Generally speaking, a WFR whose general productivity is high will have few morphological restrictions on the class of bases to which it attaches. Morphological restrictions refer to the particular morphological classes to which a suffix can be added. The attachment of the suffix -<u>ian</u> to form agentive nouns, for example, is highly restricted to the form <u>Xic</u> (music - musician, logic - logician).

Summing up, Aronoff develops the notion of a Word Formation Rule as an operation on a base, accompanied by various conditions on the base. The base is a word, a member of a major lexical category. Each WFR specifies the unitary syntacticosemantic class of which its base must be a member. The base is also a fully specified phonological entity of unique form.

The operation is both syntacticosemantic and morphophonological. It specifies the semantics of its output as a compositional function of the meaning of the base, and assigns the output to a specific major lexical category in a specific subcategorization. The morphophonological operation is phonologically unique: only items which meet the conditions may serve as bases for the WFR in question. Morphological condi determine the productivity of the WFR with tions different morphologically specified subclasses of the base.

We will exemplify Aronoff's theory with the rule of negative <u>un</u>. The phonological change operated by the rule consists of the addition of the prefix and its boundary: <u>un</u>.

(3)  $[ X J_{Adi} \longrightarrow [ un [ X J_{Adi}, J_{Adi}, ]$ 

semantics: (roughly) unX = notX

f. Forms of the base

- 1. X en (where en is the marker for past participle)
- 2. X<sub>v</sub>ing
- 3. X, able
- 4. Xy (worthy)
- 5. Xly (seemly)
- 6. Xful (mindful)
- 7. Xal (conditional)
- 8. Xlike (warlike)

#### 2.2. Methodology.

As we have seen in Section 2.1. the study of derivational morphology has had different approaches and each of them emphasized one specific characteristic of the word formation process. The descriptivists broke the word into meaninghful units; the transformationalists, though disregard ing morphology and emphasizing syntax, contributed by direct ing our attention to the syntactic and semantic correspondence between words of different categories; the generativists fol lowing the tradition of the lexicalist hypothesis, developed the notion of Word Formation Rule to account for word forma tion within the lexicon.

In our paper we have adopted Aronoff's theory of word formation, since we believe that the emphasis on the creative aspect of language in the generative theory opens new perspectives for the derivational morphology. It is a dynamic process that accounts for the creation of new words in the However, after the morpheme was considered lexicon. а lin guistic unit in the structuralist period, it is impossible to ignore the fact that the words in the lexicon have an internal structure that has to be described. We decided to follow Nida's principles of word segmentation for they analyze thoroughly all possible combinations of morphemes.

Derived words are made up of an affix, which is always bound, and a base, which may be either free or bound. Complex words with a recognizable suffix, but with a stem that is not an existing word of the language constitute a classic problem of morphology.

2.2.1. Bound bases.

Scholars' points of view about bound bases in word formation differ a good deal.

The descriptivists who place great emphasis on form insist on the segmentation of words with a bound base. According to Principle 6 of Nida (See Section 2.1.2.1.) words such as <u>cranberry</u> or <u>crayfish</u> are made up of <u>cran-</u> plus <u>berry</u> and <u>cray-</u> plus <u>fish</u>. The two bound bases <u>cran-</u> and <u>cray-</u> are isolatable because the elements <u>berry</u> and <u>fish</u> occur in isolation or in other combinations. The position of the descriptivists is soundly attacked by MAKKAI (1969) who says that the segmentation of these words is just formal, since in terms of meaning they can only be regarded as single indivisible units. According to her the best solution for the problem is a redefinition of the mor pheme - or rather, a division of the old morpheme into two sep arate layers, the one dealing with minimal meaningful units (the lexeme), the other with minimal formally definable units (the morpheme). This in fact is what has been done by strati ficational linguists in their lexemic versus morphemic strata.

MATTEWS (1979) also mentions this problematic aspect of morphological analysis. He illustrates with words such as baker or banker in which we recognize a formative element -er; the words have an obvious relationship to bake and to bank. The baker is in origin someone who 'bakes', the banker runs a 'bank'. Based on this he asks how we could explain butcher. One answer might be that butcher is indeed butch- plus -er; since this 'butch-' is not connected in mean ing with any other 'butch', it would be established ·as а (so called) 'partially independent' element, distinct from '-er but nevertheless unable to enter into any other combination. The other answer, of course, is that words such as butcher are morphologically simple; but why, one then asks, do even simple 'occupation' nouns so often end in -er? He ends the discussion by saying that it could be prolonged fruitlessly.

In Aronoff's theory all regular word formation processes are word - based. A new word is formed by apply ing a rule to a single already existing word, not to a meaning ful element". He applies truncation rules, which delete a morpheme that is internal to an affix, to account for words which do not appear to have been derived from words. The suffix -ee in (4) does not appear attached to any verb, but rather to the root of that verb, which can be obtained by deleting its last morpheme.

> (4) nominate - nominee evacuate - evacuee

Aronoff is not concerned with the structure of already existing words and so the problem of bound bases could be disregarded in his theory.

We share AKMAJIAN's (1981) opinion about complex words with bound bases. He illustrates the fact with -able words, specifically malleable and feasible. In both cases the suffix -able has the regular meaning "be able", and in both cases the -ity form can be added to form a noun, as in mallea bility and feasibility. The two words are broken down as malle + able and feas + ible and, as there are no existing words in the English language such as malle or feas, we have to allow for the existence of complex words whose stems exist only in those complex words.

AKMAJIAN (p.123) adds that "this example shows that word formation rules cannot be viewed solely as relating pairs of existing words or of specifiying how new words are formed. Sometimes a complex word is not paired with another but exists by itself, only as a complex word (such as <u>malleable or feasible</u>). In spite of this lack of pairing, we can nevertheless use the word formation rule backwards, as it were, to deduce that the stem for <u>feasible</u> is <u>feas</u>: word formation rules can analyze single words into parts, even if .some of those parts don't exist as words."

After having summed up the various studies about bound bases and having profited from the different approaches and points of view, we feel that a coherent way of approaching the issue would be the following: it is possible to define a formal relationship between the elements that make up <u>butcher</u> or <u>malleable</u>, but the two bases, <u>butch-</u> and <u>malle-</u>, have no lexical category and no independent meaning. The meaning is latent in the base and will achieve its full syntatic and <u>se</u> mantic realization just when it is attached to a suffix that assigns the resulting word a lexical category.

#### 2.2.2. Aronoff's framework.

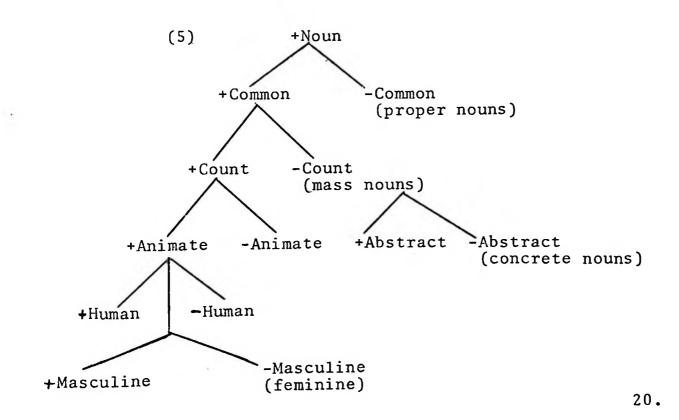
The study of each suffix follows Aronoff's frame work. First we discuss the syntax and semantics of WFRs, then their morphology, and finally their phonology.

### 2.2.2.1. Syntax and semantics.

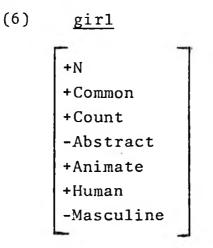
The lexicon includes both syntactic and semantic information. The most studied aspects of morphology within the framework of generative grammar are the relation between the syntax and semantics of the base and that of the output of a WFR, the common properties which the two share, and the ways in which these relations can be accounted for.

The syntactic and semantic conditions on the base of a WFR are those of category, subcategory, selection, lex ically government entailment and presupposition. (ARONOFF, 1981: 48).

The syntactic features of a noun may be char<u>t</u> ed this way:



So a noun syntactic features might include:



Other forms - verbs, adjetives, and adverbs - can be identified by a combination of syntactic feature and environmental restrictions called strict subcategorization rules.

As verbs are chosen after nouns, part of a verb's syntactic identity depends on which nouns it may appear with as well as how it may appear with certain nouns. All this information is specified by strict subcategorization and se lectional restriction rules.

The entry for a verb such as blush would be:

(7) blush +Verb -Transitive +Human Subject -----

The selectional restrictions of adjectives depend on the contents or environments in which each type of adjective might appear with certain categories of nouns. For example, adjectives like shy could not appear with [-Animate] nouns, but adjectives like large could appear with any [+Count] nouns.

Adverbs are also subcategorized on the basis

of a combination of their syntactic features and some selectional features. That is, adverbs of manner could fill certain positions in English sentences and appear with certain cate gories of verbs; adverbs of place could fill fewer positions and have their own selectional restrictions.

The semantic component is that part of the gram mar which provides interpretation of meaning to be found in deep structures. Traditionally, the meaning of a WFR is re presented by a paraphrase containing a variable. So, for exam ple, the agentive occupational suffix -er can be roughly para phased "one who Xs habitually, professionally..."

### 2.2.2.2. Morphology.

The vocabulary of English is divided, for <u>pur</u> poses of morphology into two distinct parts, native and Latin ate, and there are many rules which are sensitive to this dis tinction. Many WFRs are restricted to Latinate bases. A good example is the suffix <u>-ity(e.g. enormity, nudity)</u> it contrasts in this regard with its rival <u>-ness</u>, (e.g. peacefulness, still ness) which does not discriminate at all between Latinate and native words. WFRs restricted to native words are less common. One is the suffix <u>-hood</u>, of motherhood and brotherhood.

Many tangible restrictions other than [+Latinate] are A WFR will always be associated with the individual common. morphological subclasses of the base, rather than the unitary syntactic base of the rule. Thus, the productivity of -ity will not be a function of the whole class of Latinate adjectives, but rather of each of the morphological classes Xile, Xous, Xable, etc. It is these classes which comprise the morpholog ical conditions of the base, conditions which must be stated separately from the syntactic, semantic, and phonological oper ations of the WFR itself.

We have already stated (Section 2.1.3.3.) that the morphological conditions of the base are associated with productivity: a WFR is highly productive when the class of bases to which it attaches has few morphological restric tions.

## 2.2.2.3. Phonology.

We have said that a WFR specifies a base as well as some operation on the base which results in a new word. This operation will usually have some phonological reflex, some morpheme which is added to the base. It is the phonological operation of the WFR.

The phonological form of an affix may have  $di\underline{f}$  ferent realizations in environments determined by the form of the base. These different forms, called allomorphs, are determined by the morphemes of the bases, in terms of their phonological shapes.

The attachment of the base and the suffix may occur without causing any change in either of them (8) or their combination may cause change in the phonemic constituents both of the base and the suffix (9). These morphophonemic changes are responsible for the different allomorphs.

(8)	dance / dæns /
	-er /-ar/
	dancer / dænsør /
(9)	magic / mæ 🎽 🕇 k /
	-ian /-yən /
	magician /m ə ў I š ə n /

Considering the three main allomorphs of the suffix -<u>ion</u> (-<u>ation</u>, -<u>ion</u>, -<u>tion</u>), we see that their distribution is morphologically and phonologically conditioned. The distribution of -<u>ation</u> (<u>accusation</u>, <u>declaration</u>, <u>formation</u>), the unrestricted variant, on one side, and of the two re

stricted variants, -<u>tion</u> and -<u>ion</u>, on the other side, is mor phologically conditioned. -<u>tion</u> and -<u>ion</u> are limited to bases ending in certain Latinate roots. On the other hand, the choice between the two variants -<u>tion</u> and -<u>ion</u> is phonologically con ditioned. It is governed by the last consonant of the root: -<u>tion (production, deduction, deception)</u> goes with noncoronal roots and -<u>ion (communion, rebellion, revision)</u> with coronal<sup>(1)</sup> roots.

المراجع ومعاملا والمنابع ومنابع والمتحد والمتحد والمتحد والمتحد والمحدود والمحدود والمتحد والمتحد والمتحد

(1) In coronal sounds the blade of the tongue moves up toward the teeth and teeth ridge.Dental, alveolar, and palatal sounds are coronal. Examples: /0, d, j/.

# 3. THE AGENTIVE NOUNS. (1)

In this section we are going to study the agent ive nouns, considering both the input (the base) and the output (the agentive noun resulting from the addition of a suffix).

We are going to divide the nouns according to their agentive suffixes and each group is going to be analyzed according to the semantic, syntactic, morphologic and phonolog ical properties both of the base and the output, making an at tempt to get to the basic meaning that underlies each agent.

# 3.1. The suffix -er.

#### 3.1.1. Syntax and semantics.

The syntactic, semantic, and morphological as pects of the bases have a greater or lesser influence in the derived words, conditioning their forms. In some occasions the morphological aspects perform an important part in condition ing the derived form, as it happens with agents such as geog grapher, biographer, lexicographer, etc., which are condition ed by -graphy, the last morpheme of their bases, geography, biography, lexicography, etc. In other cases the form is syn tactically conditioned. The suffix -er, for example, may be added to practically all words belonging to the verbal class , producing the deverbal -er agents as writer, teacher, dancer, robber, etc.

The agentive noun suffix -<u>er</u> is added both to verbal and to nominal bases.

The different syntacticosemantic specification of the bases, of course, results in a different semantic output. We will see below that the denominal and the deverbal <u>-er</u> de rivatives have very distinct semantics.

(1) Summary charts for each of the suffixes are on pages 97-101.

3.1.1.1. Nominal base.

(10) 
$$\angle X \mathcal{J}_N \longrightarrow \angle \angle X \mathcal{J}_N \text{ er } \mathcal{J}_N$$
  
+Common  
-Animate  
-Abstract

The suffix -<u>er</u> attaches to nominal bases that be long to the semantic domain of  $\int$ +Common  $\int$ ,  $\int$ -Animate $\int$ ,  $\int$ -Abstract $\int$ nouns, such as:

(11) law - lawyer
cloth - clothier
coal - collier
fur - furrier
hat - hatter
hose - hosier
tin - tinner

So, when attached to a nominal base  $\sum X = \frac{1}{2}$  indicating objects, the agentive  $-\underline{er}$  derivative has the meaning of 'one who habitually makes or trades with X.'

The occupations are all very primitive, the ones learned through practice and not requiring a specific course of studies in order to be mastered.

Law is an exception to this semantic domain. Though it is not an object, it follows the same rule, probably because it is considered that in performing his activity the lawyer 'ma nipulates' the law in the same way the other agents do with the objects they work with.

The base of an agentive may be a place instead of an object, as in (12). In such cases the agentive indicates 'one who habitually works at X'.

(12) bank - banker
farm - farmer
forest - forester
garden - gardener
marine - mariner
mine - miner
office - officer

In both cases the agent holds an occupation that is represented either by the material he works with or by the place where he performs his work. (1)

3.1.1.2. The verbal base.

(13)  $[X]_{v} \longrightarrow [[X]_{v} \text{ er }]_{N}$ 

The agentive occupational suffix -<u>er</u> attaches to transitive or intransitive verbal bases belonging to any semantic field and having animate nouns as subjects, as can be seen in (14).

(14	)	braze	-	brazier
		cater	-	caterer
		dance	-	dancer
		drive	-	driver
		dry	-	dryer
	emb	roider	-	embroiderer
		glaze	-	glazier
		graze	-	grazier
		hunt	-	hunter
		run	-	runner
		saw	-	sawyer
		sing	-	singer

(1) The abstract nouns ending in <u>Xgraphy</u> (<u>geography</u> - <u>geographer</u>, <u>biography</u> - <u>biographer</u>, etc) will be dealt with in Section 3.4.1. with the bases that refer to a branch of learning, since their -er derivation was not due to their semantics but was morphologically conditioned.

teach - teacher
upholster - upholsterer
wash - washer
write - writer
etc.

The meaning of the output is 'one who Xs habit tually', or 'something that Xs', where  $\angle X 7$  represents any verb. The distinction between material and personal agents depends on whether the subject of the verb has the feature  $\angle +$  Common7, or  $\angle -$  Common 7 respectively.

The regularity of attachment of  $-\underline{er}$  to verbs, the semantic coherence and the wide distribution of the  $-\underline{er}$ derivatives contribute to the productivity of the suffix.

According to ARONOFF (1911:43) the most productive classes never have to be listed in the lexicon. "Only those words which are exceptional, i.e. arbitrary in at least one of their various features, will be entered in the lexicon". From this definition it follows that the verbal -<u>er</u> derivatives must not be listed in the lexicon.

### 3.1.2. Morphology.

3.1.2.1. The nominal base.

By analyzing the nouns that constitute the bases of denominal agentive nouns we did not notice any morphological restriction to the addition of  $-\underline{er}$ . The bases are made up of a variety of morphemes, can have any number of syllables and can be both native and Latinate in origin. This can eas ily be seen in (11) and (12) above.

These aspects reinforce the point we made in the introduction that the type of base is irrelevant, for what gives formal and semantic identity to a word is the suffix that is added to it.

#### 3.1.2.2. The verbal base.

There is no morphological restriction for -<u>er</u> to be attached to a verb. Examining the verbal bases we noticed they are made up of various morphemes and present the same .characteristics mentioned in the nominal base above.

As we have seen in Section 2.1.3.3. above, this lack of morphological restrictions adds to the productivity of the rule.

3.1.2.3. The bound base.

There is a group of Latinate words as in (15) in which we recognize two elements: the morpheme  $-\underline{er}$  (graphically  $-\underline{er}$  ou  $-\underline{or}$ ) and a form which is distinctive from  $-\underline{er}$  but which in itself does not constitute a word by itself.

(15) barb - er brok - er but1 - er carpent - er (1) fruiter - er doct - or plumb - er port - er tail - or etc.

We have already discussed at length the problem of bound bases in Section 2.2.1. In (15) above there is a list os nouns that indicate occupations and if we segment these

<sup>(1)</sup> Forms such as <u>fruiter-</u>, <u>poulter-</u>, <u>sorcer-</u>, etc, used to be free agents. The <u>-er</u> suffix was doubled and presently the previous agents are bound bases of the present agent ive nouns.

nouns and isolate their endings, we will be left with bound bases. Being bound they need the suffixes for their meaning to be fully realized.

In other words, the meaning of the bound base is realized with the suffix -er. It assigns the derived word the nominal syntactic category and the occupational meaning it has.

3.1.3. Phonology.

The -er suffix has two different allomorphs, -ar/ and  $-y \ge r/$  in complementary distribution.

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3.1.3.1. / -ar /.

This is the unrestricted variant. There are no conditions on its attachment, except that it is not affixed in cases where the conditions of attachment of the other variant are met. It is found in the great majority of words result ing from the addition of  $-\underline{er}$ . In (16) a few examples are  $\underline{giv}$  en:

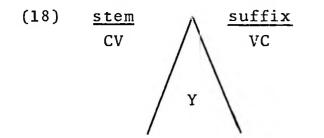
(16)	hat	- hatter
	bank	- banker
	drive	- driver
	sing	- singer
	tin	- tinner
	teach	- teacher
	write	- writer
	etc.	

3.1.3.2. / -yar /.

Some examples of the variant  $/ -\underline{y_{\Rightarrow}r} / \text{ are } giv$ en in (17). They can be divided into two main groups of bases: those ending in a vowel and those ending in a consonant.

<u>Base ending</u> in a vowel	Base ending in a consonant	/ - <u>yar</u> /
bow		bowyer
law		lawyer
saw		sawyer
	graze	grazier
	glaze	glazier
	braze	brazier
	hose	hosier
	fur	furrier
	coal	collier
	cloth	clothier

The variant  $/ -\underline{var} / \text{occurs after a vowel stem}$ in order to separate the vowel sound of the stem from the one of the suffix.



The final consonants / -z, -r, -l / are alveolar and /-0 /, the final consonant of <u>cloth</u> / k l=0 / is dental. We may say that the morpheme <u>cloth</u> has two allomorphs, /kl=0/and /klo3/, whose distribution is complementary. The allo morph /klo3/ appears in combination with the noun plural mor pheme -es (/klo3az /) and with the agentive noun ending -er (/klo3yar/), and is thus not a free but a bound allomorph. The allomorph /kl=0/ is a free form.

> 3.1.4. Contrasting -ar and -or: are they different morphemes or graphic variants of the mor pheme -er?

> > 31.

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3.1.4.1. -ar.

We find the suffix -ar in nouns with bound bases (19) and in some deverbal agents (20).

- (19) vic-ar schol-ar
- (20) beg beggar lie - liar

The spelling does not accompany pronunciation changes and so preserves the origin of words. In the examples above the -ar ending words preserved the spelling occasional ly found in Middle English, being so a variant grapheme to the morpheme -er.

3.1.4.2. -or.

;

The occurrence of the ending -or in legal terms denoting the person acting, as opposed to the person acted upon in -ee, as in (21) has imparted a kind of technical or professional character to the ending, opposed to the pure agency conveyed by -er as can be seen in (22).

(21) appelor - appelee
 grantor - grantee
 lessor - lessee

- (22) addresser one who addresses or directs a mes sage or letter to any one. addressor - one who addresses a formal document.
  - assigner one who assigns, apportions, etc. assignor - (law) one who assigns or makes over a right or property.

granter - one who grants (WI) grantor - (law) one who makes a grant or con veyance in legal form.

saver - one who or that which saves; one who
 economizes (WI).
savior- one who saves, preserves or delivers
 from destruction or danger.

We think it is worth giving a historical evolution of the suffix <u>-or</u>, for besides the semantic opposition shown in (22), there are etymological reasons that account for the existence of the form <u>-or</u>.

The ending  $-\underline{or}$  is a form derived of various suf fixes of Latin origin. There are four varieties:

a) Latin agent nouns in -or, -orem, such as:

(23)	actor	pastor
	assessor	possessor
	author	professor
	captor	rector
	censor	sculptor
	confessor	sponsor
	doctor	successor
	elector	transgressor
	inventor	tutor
	oppressor	

b) Latin agent nouns in  $-\underline{ator}$ ,  $-\underline{etor}$ ,  $-\underline{itor}$ , -<u>itor</u> that were reduced from <u>-ator-em</u> into <u>-our</u> in Middle <u>En</u> glish and thus fell together with those from simple <u>-or-em</u> in a). Such are:

(24)	barrator	juror
	cessor	lessor
	conqueror	Saviour
	donor	solicitor
	emperor	yendor
	governor	visitor
	governor	visitor

-

c) Latin agent nouns in  $-\underline{ator}$ ,  $-\underline{etor}$ ,  $\underline{itor}$ ,  $-\underline{itor}$ ,  $-\underline{utor}$ , adopted in later times in English, retain <u>t</u> and have the same written form as in Latin.

(25)		administrator		
		agitator	orator	auditor
		creator	procurator	creditor
		curator	senator	editor
		dictator		janitor
		gladiator		monitor
	•	imitator		servitor
		legislator		executor
		navigator		
		spectator		
		translator		
		vindicator		

The pronunciation varies greatly, the stress being sometimes as in the Latin nominative sometimes on the second syllable before the stressed Latin accusative (27); so metimes corresponding with that of the English verb (28); so metimes with two forms, one after Latin nominative, and an other after Latin accusative (29).

(26)	(27)
creator	auditor (Latin auditorem)
creditor	executor
	orator
	senator
	servitor
(28)	(29)
administrator	curátor (after Latin nom.)
agitator	curator (after Latin accus.)
imitator	
prosecutor	

- d) alteration of -er from Latin -arius, as in
   (30):
- (30) bachelor chancellor heritor

In Middle English there was a tendency to confuse the endings -<u>er</u> and -<u>our</u> (modern -<u>or</u>), thus in a large num ber of words the original -<u>our</u> has been exchanged for the -<u>er</u> of agent nouns of English derivation. Some examples are the words in (31) whose etymological form is -<u>our</u>, -or.

(31) barber
brother
laborer
preacher
robber
rhymer

According to MENCKEN (1977), first published in 1919, the agent -or has always conveyed a more dignified suggestion in English than -er and he gives some interesting examples which show that -or conveys different semantics to speakers of English.

"Healor is one of the professional titles of one Lena P. Smith, The Woman of God, who operates a religious studio on S. Cottage Grove Av. in Chicago." (MENCKEN, 1977: 340).

"Weldor was launched as the result of a labor squabble. In 1941 the welders in the shipyards and on building construction petitioned the American Federation of Labor for a charter - when it was refused, they left the Federation and formed the Brotherhood of Weldors, Cutters and Helpers of America". (MENCKEN, 1977:340).

"Institutional purchasing agents favor <u>purchasor;</u> The Chicago Purchasor is their local house organ". (MENCKEN, 1977:340).

"<u>Realtor</u> was devised by a high-toned real-es tate agent of Minneapolis, Charles N. Chadbourn by name, who sought a distinctive title by which he and his fellow members of the Minneapolis Real Estate Board could distinguish them selves from fly - by - night dealers in houses and lots.

The ending -tor was probably added to real be cause of an analogy with doctor and other words derived from Latin -tor in an attempt to give the word a more dignified mean ing.

The pairs of words presenting semantic differences in (22) make us conclude that we really have two homophonous morphemes, distinguished just in spelling: -er and -or.

#### 3.2. The suffix -ee.

## 3.2.1. Syntax and semantics.

The conditions for the formation of -ee nominals are syntactically and semantically governed. They may be form ed both on transitive and intrasitive verbal bases and this different syntactic subcategorization of the base accounts for two opposite meanings of the -ee nominals: passive and agentive.

Aronoff quoting SIEGEL (1971) notes that the suffix -<u>ee</u> attaches regularly to verbs which are both trans<u>i</u> tive and take animate objects, as with <u>presentee</u>, <u>employee</u>, and <u>payee</u>. Based on this the following rule is stated:

(32) Siegel's -ee attachment rule

+transitive \_\_\_\_\_+animate object

ARONOFF (1981:88), trying to explain the nominals derived from verbs other than transitive, adds the following footnote to Siegel's rule: "-<u>ee</u> used to attach to verbs which took animate indirect objects as well. The condition is now absolete, though the forms still exist. Exceptions to the gen eral case are <u>escapee</u>, <u>refugee</u>, devotee, absentee, standee".

We think that Siegel's rule explains only one part of -ee nominals - those derived from transitive verbs and we do not agree with Aronoff's statement that the condition for the derivation of forms such as <u>escapee</u>, <u>refugee</u>, etc is now obsolete. New forms, such as the recent <u>returnee</u>, are being coined on intransitive verbs confirming its productivity.

In this paper we try to demonstrate that the -<u>ee</u> nominals belong to two different semantic fields and as this distinction is a function of the syntactic subcategorization of the base, we will divide our discussion into two main categories: transitive verbal bases and intransitive or reflex ive verbal bases.

#### 3.2.1.1. Transitive verbal bases.

We deal in this part with the <u>-ee</u> nominalswhose base is a transitive verb. If just the semantic field of <u>-ee</u> derivatives were considered, this group should not be in cluded in this paper for the nouns do not have an agentive mean ing, as all the other derived nouns studied do, but a passive one. We consider it important to include both functions - pas sive and agentive - for a complete analysis of the suffix.

For this group Siegel's rule of -<u>ee</u> attachment (32) is quite adequate.

The suffix -ee attaches to transitive verbs that take animate objects and the resulting nominal refers to the beneficiary of the action, meaning 'one who is Xed'.

In this group are included the law terms that show a correlation between  $-\underline{or}$ , denoting the agent, and  $-\underline{ee}$ , denoting the beneficiary of the action, such as:

- (33) alienee one to whom the ownership of property is transformed. (OED) alienor - one who transfers property to another. (OED)
  - appelee one who appealed against. (OED)
    appelor one who accuses of crime, etc. (OED)
  - assignce one who is appointed to act for another. (OED) assignor - one who assigns or makes over a right
  - or property. (OED)
  - bailee one to whom goods are committed in trust for a specific purpose. (OED)
  - bailor one who delivers goods, etc. to an other for a specific purpose. (OED)
  - collatee one who is collated to a benefice.(OED)
    collator one who confers or bestows. (OED)
  - grantee the person to whom a grant orconveyance is made. (OED) grantor - one who makes a grant or conveyance in
  - legal form. (OED)
  - legatee a person to whom a legacy has been be queathed. (OED)

legator - one who gives something by will. (OED)

- lessee a person to whom a lease is granted. (OED)
- lessor one who grants a lease. (OED)

nominee -	the person who is named in connection
	with an annuity, grant, etc. (OED)
nominator (no	minor) - one who nominates to office
	or for election. (OED)
payee -	the person to whom a sum of money is
	to be paid. (OED)
payer (payor)	- the person who is supposed to
	pay. (OED)
vendee -	the person to whom a thing is sold.
	(OED)
vendor -	one who disposes of a thing by sale.
	(OED)

-ee has become a living English suffix and its ori ginal use in law terms has been imitated in the formation of new words derived from verbs of many different meanings being also frequent in deliberately jocular non-technical nonce for mations.

(34)	addressee cuttee (nonce)		the person to whom a letter cr other commercial document is addressed.(OED) one who is cut socially. (OED)
	deportee	-	a person who has been deported or is under sentence of deportation. (WI)
	donee	-	recipient of a gift, esp. of a gratu- itous gift. (WI)
	draftee	-	a person who has been drafted into the armed forces. (OAD)
	educatee	-	one who is subjected to the process of education. (OED)
	employee	-	one who is employed. (OED)
	expellee	-	one who has been expelled. (OED)
	indorsee	-	one in whose favor a note or bill is indorsed. (OED)
			39.

mortgagee	the person to ed. (OED)	whom property is mortgag
referee	a person to w	hom a dispute between par
	ties is refer	red by mutual consent.(OED)
sendee	the person to	whom a thing is sent.(OED)
trustee		roperty is entrusted to be for the benefit of another.

In each case we observe that the <u>-ee</u> nominal is present as a patient, a recipient of the action. The patient as - victim role emerges clearly from Jespersen's list of novel <u>-ee</u> formations, excerpted in (35). (JESPERSEN (1954, 221)).

(35) blackmailee boree evacuee laughee moneylendee murderee pickpocketee moneylendee

3.2.1.2. Nominal bases.

We have found a small set of nouns which occur with the suffix -<u>ee</u> (36). They have the same meaning as the ones derived from transitive verbs, and indicate 'the beneficia ry of X', but the attachment of -<u>ee</u> to nouns is not productive<sup>(1)</sup>.

(36) biographee - one who is the subject of a biography. (OED) patentee - one to whom letter(s) patent have been granted. (OED)

<sup>(1)</sup> We have been unable to explain the occurrence of the suffix -ee in <u>bargee</u> (aman who has charge of a barge). Though it is de rived from a noun it does not have any semantic relation with the class mentioned in (34).

# 3.2.1.3. Intransitive or reflexive verbal bases.

Forming a distinct group we have the -<u>ee</u> nom<u>i</u> nals derived from intransitive or reflexive verbs and for them the following rule can be stated:

$$(37) \qquad [X J_V \longrightarrow [[X J_V ee J_N]]$$

$$[-transitive]$$

The output that derives from this rule is seman tically different from the transitive - based one. It indicates the agent, the performer of an action and not its beneficia ry as the previous rule does.

Some of the verbs and the derived  $-\underline{ee}$  nominals that fit rule (37) are:

(38)	absent (refl) -	to keep or withdraw oneself away (OED)
	absentee -	one who is absent or away on any occasion. (OED)
	debauch (intr)-	to indulge to excess in sensual en joyment. (OED)
	debauchee -	one who is addicted to vicious i <u>n</u> dulgence in sensual pleasures. (OED)
	devote (refl) -	apply zelously to a particular purpose. (OED)
	devotee -	a person zelously devoted to a pa <u>r</u> ticular cause. (OED)
	escape (intr) -	to get free from detention or con trol. (OED)
	escapee -	one who has escaped; esp. an escap ed convict from a penal settlement. (OED)

refuge (int)	-	to take refuge; to seek shelter
		or protection. (OED)
(refl)	-	to take refuge. (OED)
refugee	-	one who owing to religious per
		secution or political troubles
		seeks refuge in a foreign coun-
		try. (OED)
return (intr)	-	to come or go back. (OAD)
returnee	-	a person who returns, esp. one
		returning from military service
		recurring from military service
		abroad. (OAD)
stand (intr)	-	
stand (intr)	_	abroad. (OAD)
stand (intr) standee		abroad. (OAD) to assume or maintain an erect
		abroad. (OAD) to assume or maintain an erect attitude on one's feet. (OED)

HORN (1980: 141) says that "a standee is one for<u>c</u> ed to stand as on a bus or subway - the subject is acting inv<u>o</u> lumtarily as a patient, not an agent".

The other agents in (38) also seem to act because of a certain compulsion, not of their own will, as if their behavior were determined by external circumstances to which they are powerless.

This compulsion to act is generally related to a place (a penal settlement, a foreign country, a bus, a theater, etc), except for <u>debauchee</u> and <u>devotee</u> that seem to refer to people who are compelled to behave the way they do either <u>be</u> cause of psychological subjection or religious fanaticism.

To some intransitive verbs both  $-\underline{ee}$  and  $-\underline{er}$  can be attached, but, as it is expected, the resulting nominals dif fer in meaning. The difference between  $-\underline{er}$  and  $-\underline{ee}$  nominals will be dealt with in Section 4.1.1.

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3.2.2. Morphology.

The suffix -<u>ee</u> derived originally from legal usage and then was attached to words of many different meanings, both Latinate and native in origin. Its productivity was syntac tically and semantically conditioned and the bases do not pre sent any morphological restrictions to the attachement of the suffix.

In most cases -ee is attached to a free base, such as:

(39) aliėn assign bail collate employ grant legate pay send trust etc.

But the -<u>ee</u> suffix can be added also to a bound base such as:

(40) appellessnomindonevacu-

3.2.3. Phonology.

3.2.3.1. / -i /

The suffix -ee has one allomorph / i / that, being stressed, causes different morphophonemic changes when added to a base.

#### 3.2.3.1.1. Stress shift.

When /-i/ is attached to some words it makes the stress move onto the suffix causing no other change in the segmental phonemes of the base. Some examples are:

(41) assign - assignee
 bail - bailee
 address - addressee
 grant - grantee
 pay - payee
 mortgage- mortgage
 stand - standee

## 3.2.3.1.2. Stress shift and vowel change.

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In English, when the process of derivation involves stress shift, it usually also involves certain types of vowel change. NIDA (1970:302) notices "the weakening of vowels in unstressed syllables: long vowels tend to be reduced to short vowels and short vowels frequently change to mid central vowels in unstressed positions".

In should be noted that besides the weakening of vowels there is also another kind of change: the change of reduced (1) or short (2) vowels to long vowels when the stress shifts onto the syllable.

In (42) we have listed the changes found in the words studied:

The reduced vowels require less effort in their articulation and occur in unstressed positions. They are / æ / and / ±/.
 Short and long vowels differ in terms of length and place of articulation. The short or lax vowels are: / τ, ε, æ, v, a, J /. The long or tense vowels are: / i, e, u, o/.

# (42) VOWEL CHANGE

in syllables losing stress	in syllables acquiring stress <sup>(1)</sup>	<u>Base</u>	Derivative
e<3		æ b <b>'sent</b>	a bsan'ti
0 >Ə		d <b>I<sup>I</sup></b> vot	,d£vəti
u>v		'rEfyuj lis	refyv <sup>i</sup> ji les'i
i>ε	I>i	d <b>ī</b> port	,dipor'ti
	ı>ε	r <b>ī'f</b> ðr	,rɛfə'ri
	1	ļ	1

3.2.3.1.3. <u>Stress shift and loss of the final</u> morpheme -ate.

Some verbs (43) lose the final morpheme -<u>ate</u> when -<u>ee</u> is attached.

(43) donate - donee
 evacuate - evacuee
 nominate - nominee

. .

ARONOFF (1976:89) considers the truncation of the phoneme -<u>ate</u> as a general rule. According to him <u>dedicatee</u> is an exception to the rule and he traces its exceptionality to the fact that because of English spelling the <u>c</u> of dedicee would undergo the k>s rule, giving the surface form / dedrsi /.

<sup>(1)</sup> These syllables acquire secondary stress after the attach ment of the suffix -ee to the base.

This explanation is not complete. In spite of the fact that it works for words such as <u>dedicatee</u> and <u>educatee</u>, it does not explain the forms in (44) where the final phoneme -<u>ate</u> was not lost.

(44)	base	derived f	orms
		losing - <u>ate</u>	keeping -ate
	collate		collatee
			co <u>l</u> lator
	donate	donee	donatee
		donor	donator
	nominate	nominee	
		(nominor) (ob	s) nominator

We have taken into consideration such items as num ber of syllables, stress and phonetic features of sounds and even so were not able to explain why in some cases -<u>ate</u> is kept, while in some others it is lost. We feel, nevertheless, that the tendency is for -<u>ee</u> to be attached to -<u>ate</u> ending words without causing its truncation, as it is confirmed by forms such as <u>donatee</u> and <u>donee</u>, <u>nominator</u> instead of the obsolete form <u>nominor</u>. Why can't we expect <u>nominatee</u> later?

3.3. The suffix -ant.

### 3.3.1. Syntax and semantics.

The WFR that forms agents by the addition of the suffix  $-ant^{(1)}$  operates mainly on verbal bases and has the following structure:

(45)  $[X ]_V \longrightarrow [[X ]_X \text{ ant } ]_N$ 

[+Human subject−]

<sup>(1)</sup> Graphically it may be written -ant (celebrant), -ent (pre sident or have both spellings (descendant, descendent).

The -ant derivative indicates 'one who is entitled to X', that is, one who is furnished with proper grounds for doing that action.

The agent seems to have an official status, being authorized to act because of his position or by a legal instrument (such as a lawsuit, a lease) that grants him such right. This can be easily seen in the examples in (46):

(46) celebrant - the priest who performs a solemn religious ceremony.
complainant - one who makes the complaint in a legal action.
litigant - a person who is involved in a lawsuit.
president - an official elected to preside over a meeting.
tenant - one who based on a lease rents a house from a landlord.
etc.

A great number of bases may add both the suffix -ant and the suffix -er, such as:

(47) applicant - applier
 celebrant - celebrator
 informant - informer
 etc.

The existence of one form did not block the other one because, though the bases are the same the resulting agents are semantically different. These pairs are studied in Section 4.1.2. together with the other contrasts.

# 3.3.1.1. The verbal base.

The suffix -ant can be added to verbs belonging to a variety of semantic fields as long as they presuppose human subjects. The official status conveyed by the output is inher ent to the suffix itself, as it is evidenced by the examples in (48) where there are bases of many different meanings.

. . .

(48)	account	-	accountant
	apply	-	applicant
	assist	-	assistant
	attend	-	attendant
	celebrate	-	celebrant
	congregate	-	congregant
	correspond	-	correspondent
	defend	-	defendant
	depend	-	dependent, dependant
	descend	-	descendant, descendent
	emigrate	-	emigrant
	inform	-	informant
	inhabit	-	inhabitant
	litigate	-	litigant
	negotiate	-	negotiant
	participate	-	participant
	preside	••	president
	serve	-	servant
	superintend	-	superintendent
	etc.		

3.3.2. Morphology.

According to the form of their bases, Xant agents fall into three classes: those which have a related verb of the form <u>Xate</u> (immigrate, immigrant; celebrate, celebrant) , those which have an unsuffixed related verb (apply, applicant; descend, descendent), and those whose bases are not free words (merchant, tenant).

## 3.3.2.1. Bases of the form Xate.

The morphological class Xate is especially productive with the suffix -ant. ARONOFF (1981: 90) says that "Thirty-two of the 95 items in WALKER (1936) which have a verbal base are in this class; a very high number for a single morphological class". Some examples are:

(49)	communicate	-	communicant
	immigrate	-	immigrant
	negotiate	-	negotiant
	postulate	-	postulant

3.3.2.2. Unsuffixed bases.

The suffix -<u>ant</u> is also attached to a great quan tity of unsuffixed bases made up of a variety of morphemes. (examples in (50) below).

The existence of bases with various morphemic forms reinforce the point that the semantic meaning of the output derives from the suffix -ant and that, though the attachment of -ant is very productive with Xate bases, the WFR does not undergo any morphological restriction for its use.

(50)	aspire	– aspirant
	complain	- complainant
	demand	- demandant
	occupy	- occupant

#### 3.3.2.3. Bound bases.

There is a very small group of -<u>ant</u> derivatives(51), made up of bound bases. Of course these nouns form a small, closed set and no other forms of this type are entering the English language. As usual, the attachment of -<u>ant</u> to bound bases is not productive, the nominals in (51) are dead expressions.

(51)	jur-	- jurant - one who takes an oath.
	merch-	<ul> <li>merchant - a buyer and seller of commo dities for profit.</li> </ul>
	ped-	- pedant - one who parades his learning
	ten-	- tenant - one who based on a lease rents
		a house from a landlord.

In Section 2.2.1. we have already discussed the problem of bound bases. As it was stated in that Section, it is the suffix that lexicalizes the words; in the examples in (51) the -ant suffix assigns the official character that dis tinguishes the -ant agents to the output.

#### 3.3.3. Phonology.

The suffix -ant has one allomorph / -ant /, an unstressed form that is used in any environment and interferes in a lesser or greater degree with the phonological form of the base.

Since the behavior of the suffix depends on the phonological quality of the base and in order to study the morphophonemic changes that occur when / -ont / is added, we have divided this section according to the forms of the bases - the Xate bases and the unsuffixed ones.

#### 3.3.3.1. Bases of the form Xate.

Most of the <u>Xate</u> verbs are three - syllable words stressed on the antepenult. Some of them have a secondary stress on the last syllable.

When <u>-ant</u> is added the stress pattern remains the same, since the suffix is not stressed and there is no <u>alter</u> ation in the number of syllables because of the deletion of the phoneme <u>-ate</u>. The segmental phonemes, however, <u>undergo</u> changes.

3.3.3.1.1. Loss of -ate.

When the suffix -ant is added, the final morpheme -ate is always lost and in case there is a secondary stress it is lost too. Some examples are:

(52) celebrate /'s@la,bret/ celebrant /'s@labrant/ communicate /k@'myunaket/ communicant /k@'myunaket/ communicant /k@'myunaket/ migrate /'maygret/ migrant /'maygret/ participate /par'tisa,pet/ participant /par'tisapant/

3.3.3.2. Unsuffixed bases.

Most of the unsuffixed bases are two-syllable words stressed on the last syllable. When the suffix -<u>ant</u> is added, some morphophonemic changes may occur.

#### 3.3.3.2.1. No change,

Sometimes the rule that attaches -ant to the base does not produce any phonological change. That is the case with the examples in (53) where no alteration occurs, in nei ther the segmental nor in the suprasegmental phonemes.

(53) account /&'kaunt/ accountant /&'kaunt@nt/ aspire /&'spayr/ aspirant /&'spayr@nt/ assist /&'srst/ assistant /&'srst# attend /&'tend/ attendant /&'tend@nt/ complain /k@m'plen# complainent /k@m'plen# /km'plen# /km'plen# /km'plen# /km'plen# /km'plen# /km'plen# /km'plen

etc.

3.3.3.2.2. Stress shift and vowel change.

We have already pointed out (Section 3.2.3.1.2.) that whenever the process of derivation involves stress shift, it also involves vowel change.

In (54) there are some examples of vowels that have been reduced and of others that have become long because there was stress shift in the word.

(54)	VOWEL	CHANGE		
	<u>in syllable</u> losing stress	<u>in syllable</u> acquiring stress	Base	<u>Derivative</u>
	ay >2	1>€	preside /prɪˈzayd/	president /'prezadant/
	€>1	a > Q	protest /pra <b>'</b> t&st/	protestant /'protistant/

In some instances the vowel change occurs even without stress shift. Such is the case with the example in (55): there is lowering of the high front vowel /i/, that this way is put at the same level of the neighboring schwas.

(55) appeal /2'pi1/

appellant /a'p ɛ lənt/

3.3.3.2.3. Loss and addition of phonemes.

In (56) there occurs loss of the last diphthong when -ant is added. We have not found other examples to es tablish a paradigm, but probably -ant does not attach to vowel sounds.

(56) occupy / akyapay/ occupant / akyapant/

The base of <u>applicant</u>, the verb <u>apply</u>, ends in the same vowel sound as <u>occupy</u>, but the phonological result of the addition of the suffix is entirely different. Besides losing the last diphthong the phonemes  $/-\partial k-/$  are added to the base when the suffix -ant attaches to it.

(57) apply /ə'play/ applicant /'æplakant/ 3.4. The suffix -ist.

3.4.1. Syntax and semantics.

The agentive nouns formed by the addition of the suffix -<u>ist</u> to a base are still increasing its range of syn tactic and semantic applicability.

It was initially used as the agent of verbs in -ize or in association with nouns of action or function in -ism, as in (58), but its use has been extended, including now a multitude of terms that have no corresponding forms in -ize or -ism. (Apud OED)

(58)	agent	verb	<u>noun</u> altruism
	altruist		altruism
	atheist		atheism
	baptist	baptize	baptism
	catechist	catechize	catechism
	evangelist	evangelize	evangelism
	exorcist	exorcize	exorcism
	hedonist		hedonism
	polytheist		polytheism

We have already pointed out (Section 3.1.1.) that the use of a suffix may be conditioned by semantic, syntactic, or morphological aspects. In the case of -<u>ist</u>, the expansion of its use was basically due to the semantic content both of the bases it used to attach to and of the suffix itself.

In most examples it is added to bases related to sciences, arts, systems, doctrines, that is, branches of know ledge that follow a theory, a set of principles and are acquir ed by systematic learning. The -ist ending agentive noun in dicates 'one who is devoted to the theory of X' where [X] - stands for a branch of learning. Some examples are given in (59).

(59)	base	agent
	archeology	archeologist
	biology	biologist
	capitalism	capitalist
	idealism	idealist
	materialism	materialist

There is a group of nouns ending in Xgraphy that do not comply with the semantic criterion. Though they indicate a branch of learning, they do not form their agents by adding -ist. They indicate their specialists by adding -er, therefore being a clear example of morphological conditioning in word derivation. The amount of formations that follow the struc ture/Xgraphy<sub>N</sub> er  $J_{agent}$  to produce their agents testifies the productivity of the morphological criterion with Xgraphy nouns. Some are:

(60)	geography	- geographer
	biography	- biographer
	demography	- demographer
	photography	- photographer
	typography	- typographer

The application of -ist was increased, being the suffix added to words referring to any activity requiring spe cialized knowledge. In modern times, it is the agentive noun of most professions, since, with the development of society, almost all activities require long and intensive preparation. Some examples are:

(61) cartoonist
cyclist
journalist

novelist pianist

The suffix -ist was extended also to professional people whose occupations are rather mechanical and do not re quire a course of studies in order to be mastered. this In case prominence was given to specialization rather than to knowledge of principles. Carrying a high degree of specializa tion, the suffix -ist has been used in an attempt to dignify some occupations. This practice, much used in the United States, results from a tendency to glorify the commonplace. Some examples are:

As we have seen, the WFR that makes agents by the addition of -<u>ist</u> is governed by the semantic content both of the base and of the suffix. As semantics plays such an impor tant role, syntax is irrelevant. There are no syntactic con straints to the application of the rule and it is added to words of different categories, such as nouns, adjectives and verbs.

Next, just to be consistent with the general organization of this paper and to give examples of each syntactic category, we are going to divide the -ist derivatives according to their bases. It is implicit, however, that the semantic content of the derivative is not conditioned by syntax.

### 3.4.1.1. Noun base.

 $(63) \quad \angle X \mathcal{J}_N \longrightarrow \angle \angle X \mathcal{J}_N \text{ ist } \mathcal{J}_N$ 

When the base is a noun it covers sciences [64], personal names (65), names of languages and nationalities(66), musical instruments (67), types of artistic production (68) and a variety of independent words including nonce formations(69).

(64)	anthropology	- anthropologist
	archeology	- archeologist
	biology	- biologist
	economy	- economist
	musicology	- musicologist
	philology	- philologist
	physics	- physicist
	sociology	- sociologist
	etc.	

(65)	Budha	- Budhist
	Calvin	- Calvinist
	Darwin	- Darwinist
	Locke	- Lockeist
	etc.	

(66)	American	- Americanist
	Brazilian	- Brazilianist
	German	- Germanist
	Latin	- Latinist
	etc.	

(67)	cello	- cellist
	guitar	- guitarist
	organ	- organist
	piano	- pianist
	violin	- violinist

(68)	cartoon	- cartoonist
	column	- columnist
	drama	- dramatist
	humor	- humorist
	journal	- journalist
	novel	- novelist
	satire	- satirist
(69)	chart	- chartist
	duel	- duellist
	extortion	- extortionist
	lobby	- lobbyist
	perfection	- perfectionist
	reception	- receptionist
	red tape	- red tapist
	tobacco	- tobacconist
	truth	- truthist
	etc.	

3.4.1.2. Adjectival base.

(70)  $\Box X J_{Adj}$ .  $\longrightarrow \Box \Box X J_{Adj}$ . ist  $J_N$ 

When the base of the -<u>ist</u> agent derivative is an adjective, there exists often a corresponding abstract noun in <u>Xism</u> and a corresponding adjective in <u>Xistic</u>. Some examples are given in (71).

material	- materialist	-	materialism	-	materialistic
natural	- naturalist	-	naturalism	-	naturalistic
pure	- purist	-	purism	-,	puristic
real	- realist	-	realism	-	realistic
social	- socialist	-	socialism	-	socialistic
universal	- universalist	-	universalism	_	universalistic

Semantically <u>Xist</u> is related to <u>Xism</u>, being <u>Xist</u> one who is devoted to the principles of the doctrine represented by Xism.

3.4.1.3. Verbal base.

(72)  $[X, J_V \longrightarrow [[X, J_V]]$  (72)

Though they do not constitute the most productive class, verbs can also be the base of -<u>ist</u> derivatives. The same meaning of devotion to or systematic knowledge of a theory is pres ent here, as can be seen in most of the examples in (73):

(73)	compute	- computist
	conform	- conformist
	controvert	- controvertist
	copy	- copyist
	cycle	- cyclist
	separate	- separatist
	speculate	- speculatist
	type	- typist

In some cases a deverbal -er agentive can be deriv ed from the same bases that attach to -ist (copier - <sup>-</sup>copyist, computer - computist). The differences and similarities of the two deverbal suffixes will be seen in Section 4.1.3. 3.4.2. Morphology. 3.4.2.1. The nominal base.

Being a suffix of Greek origin, initially -<u>ist</u> was productive with nouns of Greek formation in <u>Xy</u> (botany, mono poly, theory ), <u>Xma</u> (algebra, dogma, drama), and <u>Xlogy</u> (etymo<u>l</u> ogy, geology, mythology).

Due to the force of its semantic content, -ist over came these morphological restrictions and was added to nouns and adjectives of Latin or other origin with a cognate noun in Xism (capital, ideal, journal, natural, social, etc.).

Later its use was enlarged, being added to nouns - without accompanying words in <u>Xism</u> (art, humor, guitar, novel, etc.).

The wide range of morphological applicability of the suffix -ist testifies its high productivity.

3.4.2.2. The verbal base.

Examining the verbal bases in (73), we saw that they are made up of a variety of morphemes, presenting no morphol ogical restrictions to the attachment of the suffix -ist.

The rule operates because of the semantic content of the suffix and not because of the morphemic constituents of the base.

3.4.2.3. The bound base.

The suffix -ist attaches also to bound bases, and, of course, these derivatives, like the other ones of the same kind, form a closed set that is no longer productive in the language.

Being bound the bases do not occur in isolation and so cannot be assigned to any syntactic or semantic category. It is the suffix -<u>ist</u> that gives them syntactic and semantic identity and assigns them the meaning that characterizes the -<u>ist</u> derivatives. Some examples are:

(74)	altru-	altruist
	anim-	animist
	athe-	atheist
	bapt-	baptist
	de-	deist
	ego-	egoist
	egot-	egotist
	hedon-	hedonist
	monothe-	monotheist

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3.4.3. Phonology.

3.4.3.1. / -<u>Ist</u> /.

The suffix -ist has just one allomorph / -ist / and, as the majority of English suffixes, it is not stressed. As it does not carry the primary stress, it does not cause stress shifts when it is added to the bases. Even so some words under go morphophonemic changes.

3.4.3.1.1. Loss of final vowels.

Words ending in vowels, such as /a; o / tend to lose the final vowel when / -Ist / is added.

(75)	Buddha	- Buddhist		
	cello	- cellist		
	piano	- pianist		

The loss, however, does not occur when the final vowel is /  $_{\rm i}$  /, as in:

(76) copy - copyist / k d pfrst / bobby - bobbyist / l d brrst /

## 3.4.3.1.2. Addition of phonemes.

We also have examples of addition of phonemes after words ending in vowels. In the specific case of words in  $-\underline{ma}$ /  $\underline{ma}$  / (77a), the phoneme /t/ is added when the attachment of -ist occurs. To the word <u>tobacco</u> (77b) /n/ is added under the same circumstances.

(77a)	dogma	- dogmatist
	drama	- dramatist
	epigramma	- epigrammatist
(77b)	tobacco	- tobacconist

The reason that two different phonemes -/t/ and /n/ - are added, seems to be the manner of articulation of the last consonants of the bases.

Let's consider the words drama and tobacco.

alveolar  $\longrightarrow$  point of articulation alveolar (78)t drama l sibilant stop  $\rightarrow$  manner of articulation nasal stop alveolar  $\longrightarrow$  point of articulation alveolar -ist) tabæko n ſ sibilant stop --- manner of articulation nasal stop

The suffix -ist / -Ist / is made up of two alveolar consonants: a sibilant /s/ and a stop /t/. In both examples mentioned, an alveolar consonant /t/ and /n/ is added, in as similation with the point of articulation of the suffix. The phonemes differ in manner of articulation and this seems to be caused by the base. When the last consonant of the base is a nasal / m / as in drama, a stop is added; when the last consonant of the base is a stop /k/, as in tobacco, a nasal / n / is added. So the phoneme added assimilates to the suffix in point of articulation and dissimilates from the base in manner of articulation.

3.4.3.1.3. Change of phoneme.

The last consonant of <u>science</u>/s/changes into / t / when -<u>ist</u> is added.

(79) science / sayans /

scientist / sayantst/

There seems to be assimilation of /s/ with the last sound of the suffix, causing a change in manner of articulation from sibilant to stop.

3.5. The suffix -ian.

3.5.1. Syntax and semantics.

The WFR that attaches the suffix -<u>ian</u> to a base in order to form agentive nouns operates on a limited group of words. The words that constitute the input to the rule are, in their great majority, names of arts or sciences, such as <u>magic</u>, <u>mathematics</u>, <u>music</u>, <u>statistics</u>, etc. So the rule has the following structure:

(80)  $[X ]_N \longrightarrow [[X ]_N \text{ ian } ]_N$ 

The -<u>ian</u> derivative indicates 'one who is skilled in X'. It means that the agent has the ability to use his knowledge effectively in the performance of his activity.

To make the semantic content of  $-\underline{ian}$  derivatives clearer, we will consider in (81) two representatives of this class: musician and physician.

- (81) music that one of the fine arts which is concerned with the combination of sounds with a view to beauty of form and the expression of emotion. (OED)
  - musician one skilled in the science or practice of music.

- physic (arch) the knowledge of the human body, esp. the theory of diseases and their treatment. (OED)
- physician one who practices the healing art, including medicine and surgery. (OED)

Both the <u>musician</u> and the <u>physician</u> execute their "arts" by putting learning to practical use.

The rule that forms agents by attaching -<u>ian</u> always has nominal bases, but there are some minor syntactic and semantic variations worth mentioning.

3.5.1.1. Noun base.

(82) 
$$[X J_N \longrightarrow [ [X J_N ian J_N]]$$
  

$$\begin{bmatrix} - \text{ Count} \\ + \text{ Abstract} \end{bmatrix}$$

The suffix -<u>ian</u> attaches to nominal bases with the syntactic features  $\int -Count \int and \int +Abstract \int that belong to the semantic domain of arts or sciences, such as:$ 

(83)	acoustics		acoustician
	arithmetic	-	arithmetician
	didactic	-	didactician
	electric	-	electrician
	ethics	-	ethician
	grammar	-	grammarian
	history	-	historian
(1)	library	-	librarian
	logic	-	logician
	magic	-	magician
	mathematics	-	mathematician
	music		musician
	pediatrics	-	pediatrician
	physic (arch)	-	physician
	politics	-	politician
	statistics	-	statistician

(1) <u>Library</u> is the only word that indicates a place instead of referring to a branch of knowledge.

3.5.1.2. Adjective base.

(84)  $[ X \mathcal{J}_{Adj}, \longrightarrow [ [ X \mathcal{J}_{Adj}, \operatorname{ian} \mathcal{J}_{N}]$ 

By analogy with the nouns in <u>Xic</u>, which constitute the greatest part of its bases, the rule was applied also to adjectives in <u>Xic</u> (85), supplanting the forms in -<u>ist</u> (academist, geometrist) derived from the nouns. In this case the range of applicability of the rule was increased because of morpho logical reasons.

(85)	noun	adjective	agentive noun
	academy	academic	academician
	geometry	geometric	geometrician

In the group of adjectival bases, though not end ing in -ic, we may include <u>veterinary</u>. It produced the agentive form veterinarian, probably by analogy with <u>physician</u>.

3.5.1.3. The suffix -ician.

(86)  $\sum \sum J$  ician  $J_N$ 

Being employed in so many instances after names of arts or sciences in Xic, the suffix -<u>ian</u> was attached to -<u>ic</u> and the resulting from -<u>ician</u> was used to lend dignity and attractiveness to certain commonplace occupations. That is the case with <u>mortician</u> and <u>beautician</u>. The addition of -<u>ician</u> emphasized the skill needed and therefore dignified the work of the <u>undertaker</u> and the <u>hairdresser</u> elevating it to the rank of arts. 3.5.2. Morphology.

The bases of the rule that attaches -ian to form agents refer to names of arts or sciences and their output has the meaning 'one whois skilled in X'. This semantic coherence unquestionably favors the productivity of the rule.

In spite of the fact than an important part is play ed by semantics, special prominence must be given to morpholo gical aspects. -<u>ian</u> attaches most productively to bases of the form <u>Xic</u> and this characteristic was responsible for the extension of the rule to adjectives with the same form. Though in this case there was a syntactic expansion based on morpho logical conditions, if we consider the rule as a whole, we see that it has a lesser degree of productivity exactly because it is morphologically conditioned: it attaches almost exclusively to bases of the form <u>Xic</u>. (1)

Considering the morphological features, the elements of the rule may present the following forms:

<sup>(1) &</sup>quot;The words of this class that were in use before 1500 had the singular form, and were usually written, after French (-ique), retorique, mathematique (-ike, -ik), etc. This form is retained in such words as arithmetic, logic,magic, music, rhetoric. But, from the 15<sup>th</sup> century, forms in -ics (-ique), occur as names of treatises, e.g. etiques and in the second half of the 16<sup>th</sup> century this form is found applied to the subject matter of such treatises, in mathe matics, economics, etc. From 1600 onwards, this has been accepted form with names of sciences, as acoustics, dynamics, ethics, linguistics, statics, or matters of practice, as aesthetics, economics, following German or French usage, have preferred to use a form -ic, as in dialectic, dogmatic, static, etc." (OED, p. 1365).

## 3.5.2.1. <u>Bases in Xic.</u>

Most of the bases have the form <u>Xic</u>. In (83) there are examples of  $\angle$  Xic<sub>N</sub> ian 7, the most productive syntactic category, and in (85) we have words of the form  $\angle$  Xic Adi. -ian 7.

3.5..2.2. Other bases.

A minor group of words - grammar, history, library, veterinary - does not follow the dominant morphological cha racteristic of the bases. With the words above, the morpholo gical conditioning did not work and they seem to have been includ ed in the rule because of their semantic content.

3.5.2.3. The suffix -ician.

The form -<u>ician</u> shows the strength of the morpho logical conditioning of the base in the operation of the rule.

The meaning of the output is not conveyed by the suffix -<u>ian</u> alone - in which case just the suffix would be add ed to create new terms - but by this suffix added to a base Xic.

The strong morphological characterization of the base gave origin to -<u>ician</u> which was added both to bound (<u>mort</u>-) and to free forms (beauty), meaning 'one who is skilled in X'.

3.5.3. Phonology.

As was pointed out in Section 2.2.2.3., a WFR will usually have some phonological reflex. A suffix is added to a base and the phonological form of the suffix has different realizations depending on the phonological entity of the base. When the suffix -<u>ian</u> is added to a base the pr<u>i</u> mary stress shifts to the syllable preceding the suffix. So we have:

(87) beauty - beau'tician history - his'torian physic - phy'sician etc.

-ian has two allomorphs - / -yan/ and / -Šan/ - in complementary distribution.

3.5.3.1. /-yan /.

This is the unrestricted variant . There are no conditions on its attachment, except that it is not affixed in cases where the conditions of attachment of the other variant are met.

There are only a few instances of  $/ -\underline{yan}/$  and it occurs after a vowel-final stem /1/ or after the semivowel /r/.

3.5.3.1.1. Stress shift.

The stress shift that occurs with the addition of -<u>ian</u> does not interfere in the vowel quality of the words in Xary because of their stress pattern. The syllable that re ceives the primary stress in the derived form has a secondary stress in the base. As it was stressed, it had the lax vowel  $/\varepsilon$  / and it did not change after it got the primary stress.

(88) library / 'lay, brɛrī / librarian /lay'brerīan/ veterinary / 'vetra, nɛrī/ veterinarian /, vɛtrə'n ɛrīan/ 3.5.3.1.2. Stress shift and vowel change.

The words in (89) have undergone vowel change. There was the weakening of vowels that lost their stress / x > a /and the change of reduced vowels to short ones when the stress shift ed onto the syllable. /  $a > \varepsilon$ ; a > a /.

(89) grammar / græmær / - grammarian /græmæriæn /
history / histori / - historian /his'toriæn /

3.5.3.2.  $/ - \frac{s_{an}}{s_{an}} / .$ 

This palatalized variant of the suffix -<u>ian</u> occurs after  $/-\underline{rk}$  /-final stems. The final consonant of the base, a velar stop, is replaced by a sibilant palatal because of the presence of the semivowel /y/ in the suffix.

3.5.3.2.1. Stress shift.

With the addition of the suffix  $/-\underline{S}an/$  the stress always shifts to the syllable preceding the suffix.

Some examples are:

(90) arithmetic /a'ri0ma,tik/ arithmetician /a,ri0ma'tisan/ music /'myuzik/ musician /myu'zisan/ politics /'pdla,tiks/ politician / pdla'tisan/ rhetoric /'retarik/ rhetorician / reta'risan/

3.5.3.2.2. Stress shift and vowel change.

The stress shift generally changes the vowel quality of the syllables that receive and lose stress. Some examples are:

(91) logic /'ldjrk/ logician /loljršan/

magic /'mæjtk/ magician /ma'jisan/

statistics /staltistiks/ statistician / stætalstisen/

4. CONTRASTS.

In the previous chapter we studied the WFRs that form agentive nouns by the addition of the suffixes  $-\underline{er}$ ,  $-\underline{ee}$ ,  $-\underline{ant}$ ,  $-\underline{ist}$ , and  $-\underline{ian}$ .

After analysing each agent according to its se mantic, syntactic, morphological and phonological properties, we have verified that, although they have a different seman tic content, they present many similarities.

This chapter contrasts pairs of agents which present some similarities. They are divided into two groups according to the syntactic category of the base: verb-based and noun-based agents.

4.1. Verbal bases.

In this group we deal with pairs made of a lexi cally identical base that attaches to different suffixes, such as escaper - escapee, server - servant, separator - separatist, etc.

The occurrence or non-occurrence of different suffixes with the same base has been discussed in detail by Aronoff. According to him the key to the problem is a phenom enon which he calls blocking. "Blocking is the nonoccurrence of one form due to the simple existence of another. The reason we do not find \*occurment or \*occuration is because we already have occurrence." (ARONOFF, 1981:60).

In some instances semantic drift may occur with one item and another may take its place. The result is more than one item of a given class in a given stem, but not with the same meaning. Such is the case with <u>humanity</u> and <u>humanness</u>: the first used to mean 'being human'; it has drifted and was replaced by humanness.

Blocking prevents the listing of synonyms in a single stem, but, as long as the forms do not have the same meaning, it is perfectly possible to have more than one form in a single stem. The fact is exemplified in the pairs below:

(92) al/ation

- proposal the thing proposed; a request that a person should agree to be married to the person ask ing.(OAD) proposition - a statement, an assertion.(OAD)
- recital a musical entertainment given by one performer or a group. (OAD)
- recitation a thing recited. (OAD)

ure/ation

Aronoff does not exclude the possibility that two words will occur with the same meaning, but rather he excludes the possibility that there should be two words with the same meaning and the same stem in the same person's lexicon at the same time.

With all these statements in mind, we shall now consider the pairs of deverbal agents that have identical lexi cal bases. To wit: <u>Xee</u> and <u>Xer</u> (escapee - escaper), <u>Xant</u> and <u>Xer</u> (servant - server), and <u>Xist</u> and <u>Xer</u> (computist - computer). 4.1.1.  $\angle X_v ee J_N$  and  $\angle X_v er J_N$ .

We did not find many pairs of the form Xee and Xer with identical bases, but the ones found are enough to reinforce what was stated in 4.1.; when different suffixes occur with the same base the output is semantically different.

The bases considered are intransitive verbs that form agents by adding either -er or -ee.

Xer is the unmarked agent that conveys simple agency regardless of any external circumstances or actions.

Xee's action, on the other hand, is linked to a previous action or situation - being sent to prison, being called to arms, the lack of seats - to which he was powerless to react, acting as a patient.

The forced passivity in the source action or situation (Action 1) has triggered an Action 2 whose agent is represented by Xee.

In all the examples found we verified a chain of events whose source action or situation lies in a place - prison, country, place of amusement - and whose -ee agent seems to incorporate the locative related to the specific act ion. This characteristic gives a certain uniformity to the individuals that are considered as part of a group.

The contrasts found are:

(93) escaper - one who escapes, who runs away."The bright escaper from a world of grief".

> escapee - a person who has escaped from prison or other confinement. (OAD)

returner - one who returns.

- returnee a person who returns, esp. one returning from military servi ce abroad. (OAD)
- stander one who or something which stands.
   (the place and reasons are not
   considered. (OED)
  standee · (informal a person who stands
  - in a bus or theater, etc. be cause all seats are occupied. (OAD)

Summing up we have:

(94)

# 4.1.2. $\sum X_v \text{ ant } \mathcal{I}_N$ and $\sum X_v \text{ er } \mathcal{I}_N$ .

There are many pairs of agents of the form Xant and Xer whose bases are identical.

We have seen above (4.1.) that when two different outputs derive from the same base, they are semantically different and this can easily be verified by the examples in (95).

Both Xant and Xer indicate 'one who Xs', but the former has an official support in order to act. Because of his position or because of a legal agreement, such as a lawsuit, a lease, the -ant derivative has the right to perform the action represented by the verb.

The Xer agent, on the other hand, does not have a systematic and official character, but indicates someone who is temporarily performing the action represented by the verb. Its base has no semantic restriction having a more general sense and even indicating, in some cases (<u>cutter</u>, <u>applier</u>, etc), a material agent.

Some examples are:

(95)	applicant applier	<ul> <li>a person who applies, esp. for a job. (OAD)</li> <li>he who or that which applies. (OED)</li> </ul>
	celebrant	- the priest who officiates at a religious ceremony. (OAD)
	celebrator	- one who honors an event with festivities. (OAD)
	complainant	- one who enters a legal complaint against another. (OAD)
	complainer	- one who states he is suffer ing from a pain, etc. (OAD)
	defendant	- a person accused or sued in a lawsuit. (OAD)
	defender	- one who defends (tries to preserve, puts forward a justification). (OAD)
	descendant	- a person who is descended from another. (OAD)
	descender	- one who descends, goes down. (OAD)
		76.

informant - a person who gives information. (OAD)

informer - a person who reveals informa tion to the police, etc about secret or criminal activities. (OAD)

- protestant a member of any of the Christian bodies that separated from the Catholic Church in the Refor mation. (OAD)
- protester one who expresses his disap proval of something. (OAD)
- servant a person employed to do domes tic work in a household. server - one who serves (e.g. one who
  - serves the ball in tennis). (OAD)

Summing up we have:

(96)

 $\sum X_v \text{ant } \mathcal{I}_N$  - one who is entitled to X because of an official support.  $\sum X_v \text{er } \mathcal{I}_N$  - one who Xs.

4.1.3.  $\sum X_v$  ist  $\mathcal{I}_N$  and  $\sum X_v$  er  $\mathcal{I}_N$ .

Like the two previous contrasts, this one also has Xer agents as one of the elements.

In the contrasts below Xer indicates both 'one who Xs' and 'something that Xs', testifying to its wide seman tic content.

In the examples in (97) Xer indicates machines, devices used to perform the actions. In the OED, which includes all the meanings a word has had, computer means also 'one who computes' and separator, 'one who separates'. With the advance of technology and the consequent replacement of human work by machines, these words have drifted semantically, indi cating not the personal agent, but the material agent of the action. The previous meaning slot was replaced by Xist.

> (97) computer - an electronic machine for making calculations, storing and analyzing informationfed into it. (OAD)

> > computist - one skilled or employed in computing. (WI)

- separator a machine that separates
   things (such as cream from
   milk). (OAD)
- separatist a person who favors separa tion from a larger unit, as to achieve political indepen dence.

In the examples in (98) Xer indicates 'one who Xs' without any further implication but the performance of the action. <u>Xist</u>, on the other hand, has a systematic and professional content, as in <u>copyist</u> and <u>cyclist</u>, or indicates one who follows the general principles of a theory (represented in these examples by a noun in <u>Xism</u>) even if at the present moment he is not performing the action.

> (98) conformer - one who conforms. conformist - a person who readily conforms to established rules or standards, etc. (OAD)

copier copyist	- 1
cycler ciclist	<ul> <li>one who rides a cycle.</li> <li>one who systematically rides a bicycle as a profissional activity.</li> </ul>
escaper	<ul> <li>one who escapes, who runs away.</li> <li>"the bright escaper from a world of grief".</li> </ul>
escapist	0
speculator	<ul> <li>one who speculates; esp. Com.one who speculates in business; one who engages in speculation, as in stocks, bonds, real estate. (WI)</li> </ul>
speculatist	- one who speculates, or forms theories; a theorist. (WI)

Summing up we have:

4.2. Nominal bases.

The bases of the pairs of agents studied in this section are not lexically identical, as in the previous group, but merely syntactically similar. They are all nouns and depending on their semantic content, they attach either to the suffix -er, or -ist, or -ian to form agents.

As we noted above "semantically, the meaning of the output of a WFR will always be a function of the meaning of the base". (ARONOFF, 1981:50). In the three pairs below we will consider the semantic content of the bases and the suffixes, since their semantics is responsible for their at tachment to and the resulting meaning of the output.

4.2.1.  $\sum X_N \text{ er } \mathcal{I}_N$  and  $\sum X_N \text{ ist } \mathcal{I}_N$ .

The bases of Xer (100) and Xist (101) are seman tically different.

- - bow bowyer 'one who makes or trades in bows'. (OED)
  - garden gardener 'one who tends, lays out or cultivates a garden'.
    - hat hatter 'a maker or dealer in hats': (OED)
    - hose hosier 'one who makes or deals in hose'.(OED)
    - mine miner 'one who works in a mine'. (OED)

The suffix -<u>er</u> attaches most productively to concrete nouns or to nouns indicating places, the meaning of the output being either 'one who habitually manipulates or trades with X' or 'one who habitually works at X'.

The suffix -ist, on the other hand, attaches to abstract nouns that represent a branch of knowledge, such as sciences, arts, principles, doctrines, and the output refers to 'one who is devoted to X in a professional and systematic way'.

In many instances, because of the semantic con tents of the bases, Xer performs an overt physical activity , while Xist performs an intellectual activity. With technol ogical progress and the high demand for specialization in the modern world, Xist agents tend to increase in number. They in dicate many modern occupations such as <u>analyst</u>, <u>computist</u>, <u>se</u> manticist, etc.

Summing up we have:

(102)

[X<sub>N</sub>er J<sub>N</sub> - one who habitually manipulates or trades with X. - one who habitually works at X. [X<sub>N</sub>ist J<sub>N</sub>- one who is devoted to X in a professional and systematic way. 4.2.2.  $\sum X_N \text{ er } \mathcal{I}_N$  and  $\sum X_N \text{ ian } \mathcal{I}_N$ .

Some confusion may result from  $-\underline{er}$  and  $-\underline{ian}$  agentive nouns since both derive from nominal bases. As in the previous pair, the contrast between Xer and Xian lies in the semantic content both of the bases and the suffixes. Theoutput and the base of the WFR that attaches  $-\underline{er}$  to nouns were exemplified in (100) above, its main meaning being 'one who habitually manipulates or trades with X'.

The suffix -<u>ian</u> attaches most productively to bases that refer to arts or sciences and the output means'one who is skilled in X, who uses his knowledge of X to perform his activity'.

(103)	aesthetics	- aesthetician 'one versed in or occupied with aesthetics.(OED)
	clinic	<ul> <li>clinician 'a physician who treats patients, as opposed to one who conducts research. (OAD)</li> </ul>
	grammar	- grammarian 'one versed in the knowledge of grammar. (OED)
	magic	- magician 'one skilled in magic or sorcery. (OED)
	music	- musician 'one skilled in the science or practice of music'. (OED)

Both Xer and Xian denote occupations however, because of the different semantic content of their bases, they belong to different classes of workers: the former are concern ed with manual work, while the latter put their knowledge into practical use.

In all the derivations studied up to now, the form of the agents was conditioned by the semantic content of the bases. However, there is a group of words in Xgraphy that refer to a branch of learning and whose agents, nevertheless, are formed by adding <u>-er</u>. Regardless of their semantic con tent, they are morphologically conditioned by the ending of the base. Some of them are:

(104) biography - biographer 'a person who writes a biog raphy. (OAD) demography - demographer 'one who studies population statistics relating to births, deaths,di sease, etc. (OAD) geography - geographer 'an expert in geography'.(OAD) photography - photographer 'a person who takes photo graphs'. (OAD) typography - typographer 'an expert in typography'.

Summing up we have:

(105)

[ X<sub>N</sub>ian J<sub>N</sub> - one who is skilled in [X]. [X<sub>N</sub>er 7<sub>N</sub> - 1] one who habitually manipulates or trades with X. - 2] (after graphy): one who is skilled in X.

4.2.3.  $\sum X_N$  ian  $7_N$  and  $\sum X_N$  ist  $7_N$ .

The bases of this pair have a very similar se mantic content. Both refer to arts and sciences but, depend ing on the suffix that is added, either the theoretical or the practical aspect of the branch of knowledge is stressed. This testifies that suffixes carry their own semantic content. The suffix -<u>ian</u> attaches most productively to names of arts or sciences of the form Xic. Though the semantic content of the bases plays an important role we cannot disregard the Xic form of the bases to which -<u>ian</u> is added.

(106) magic - magician 'one skilled in magic or sorce ry' (OED) mathematic - mathematician 'one who is skilled or learned in mathematics'. (OED) pediatrics - pediatrician 'a physician specializing in pediatrics'. (OED) rhetoric - rhetorician 'an expert in the effective use of language'. (OAD) statistics - statistician'an expert in statistics'. (OAD)

The suffix -<u>ist</u> attaches to nouns that belong to a wider range of human knowledge, including arts, sciences,sys tems, doctrines, anything requiring systematic study or profes sional dedication.

(107)	biology	-	biologist 'an expert in biology'. (OAD)
	journal	-	journalist 'a person employed in writ ing for a newspaper or magazine'. (OAD)
	mythology	-	mythologist 'an expert in mythology'.
	piano	-	pianist 'a person who plays the piano'. (OAD)
	theory	-	theorist 'a person who theorizes'.(OAD)

Though the bases of Xian and Xist are very similar, the meaning of the output is quite different due to the semantic content of the suffix itself.

The activity of both agents derives from the

knowledge they have of the subject represented by the base, but the way this knowledge is handled is quite different.

Xist's intellectual work does not tend to have a practical purpose, but aims at the development of knowledge by means of study and research, while Xian uses his knowledge effectively to perform his activity. In short, it is the con trast between theory and practice.

(108)	music	- the art of arranging the; sound of voices or instruments or both in a pleas ing sequence or combination. (OAD)
	musician	- a person who is skilled at music, one whose profession is music. (OAD)
musico	musicology	- the study of music other than that directed to proficiency in performance or composition. (OAD)
	musicologist;	- one who devotes himself to the study of music as a branch of knowledge. (WC)

In the above examples there is a clear difference between the <u>musician</u> that uses his knowledge of music to perform and the <u>musicologist</u> that does not aim at performances, but carries on historical and theoretical investigation and analysis of specific types of music.

(109)	physic (arch)	- the knowledge of the human body.(OED)
	physician	- a doctor who practices medicine.(OAD)
	physics	- the scientific study of the proper ties and interactions of matter and energy. (OAD)
	physicist	- an expert in physics. (OAD)

In doing his work the <u>physician</u> applies his knowledge of the human body to try to cure his patient. On

the other hand, the phycisist makes use of the elements that constitute the science of physics, aiming at new discoveries in his researches and favoring the development of the science.

- - politicist- a student of political science. (OED) "The historian... according to me is distinct. He is not an anthropologist or an ethnologist, but if I may coin a word, he is a politicist. The political group or organism - the state - is his study".

Seeley, Political Science, 1896 i.26

In this pair again the performance, that is, the practical execution of ideas is contrasted with the theoretical knowledge. The <u>politician's activity aims at producing</u> a good social result by applying the science of governing. The <u>politicist's work is limited to a room where he can</u> study and in this way help to develop political science more fully. It is the politician's duty to derive practical benefits from the art of governing.

In short, in Xian the emphasis lies on the per formance and in Xist it lies on the theory that underlies the knowledge.

Summing up we have:

(111)

	$\angle X_{N}$ ian $Z_{N}$	-	one who is skilled in X. (emphasis on performance)
	∠X <sub>N</sub> ist 7 <sub>N</sub>		one who devotes himself to the theory of X.
			(emphasis on the study and develop -
-	. <b> </b> .	• •	ment of the theory).

#### 5. CONCLUSIONS.

At the beginning of our thesis we proposed to study the English agentive nouns formed by the addition of the suffixes  $-\underline{er}$ ,  $-\underline{ee}$ , -ant,  $-\underline{ist}$ , and  $-\underline{ian}$  to a base in order to determine whether these suffixes are variants of a single agent ive morpheme or whether each one represents a distinct agent ive morpheme.

In order to achieve our purpose we analyzed the phonological and morphological properties both of the bases and of the derived agentive nouns; we considered the syntactic features of the bases and the semantic content of both ele ments.

Most of the conclusions we came to in each area under consideration are of general application in word formation. We shall sum them up.

## 5.1. Phonology.

We demonstrated throughout this paper that the attachment of suffixes to bases is not phonologically conditioned.

#### 5.1.1. Phonology and productivity.

Though suffixes are not attracted by specific sounds, the phonology of the resulting form plays a very  $i\underline{m}$  portant role in the productivity of a WFR.

CUTLER (1980) made a study to check productiv ity in word formation. In choosing neologisms, subjects in her study expressed a preference for derived words which were closer to their base words (transparent words) over those which were phonologically further away (opaque words). Transparent words are those which preserve the phonology of the base (e.g. preciousness, scandalous), while opaque words are those in which the phonology of the base is altered (e.g. preciosity, piety) the stress can fall on a syllable other than the syllable stressed in the base word, a vowel which is tense in the base word can become lax in the derived word, etc.

Thus, it is possible to say that transparency or opaqueness of the derivative with respect to the base word determines speakers' preferences.

5.1.2. Morphophonemic changes.

In this section we analyzed the morphophonemic changes that occur when a suffix is attached to a base.

For example, the pronunciation of a word may be merely augmented by a phonetic sequence when a suffix is added to the word.

(111)	111) dance /dæ		dancer /dænsər/
	assist	/ə'srst/	assistant /əˈsīstənt/
	type	/tayp/	typist /taypist /

In other cases the phonological change may not be so simple. The addition of a suffix may produce diffe rent types of variation, such as stress shift as in (112):

(112) pay /pe/ payee /pe'i/ library /laybreri / librarian /lay'brerian /

or changes in the segmental phonemes of the stem, such as vowel change, palatalization, loss of phonemes, etc. (113):

(113) history /'histari / historian /his'to rian /
magic /'mæjik / magician /mæjisan /
celebrate /'selabret/ celebrant /'selabrant/

#### 5.2. Morphology.

#### 5.2.1. Morphology and productivity.

As a general rule the morphological charac teristics of the bases do not restrict the addition of agent ive suffixes. The deverbal agentive nouns formed with the suffix -er (dancer, writer, etc.) constitute a good example : they are formed from bases made up of any morphemes. This characteristic adds to the productivity of the rule, for a WFR which has few morphological restrictions on the class of bases which it attaches is higly productive.

On the other hand, morphological conditions play an important role in the derivation of -<u>ian</u> agentive nouns (physician, musician, etc.). -<u>ian</u> is added almost exclusively to bases of the form Xic and this morphological restriction decreases the produtivity of the rule.

#### 5.2.2. Morphological conditioning.

The words of the group ending in <u>Xgraphy</u> (geo graphy, lexicography) form their agentive nouns in <u>-er</u> because of a strong morphological conditioning of their bases. Though they refer to a branch of knowledge, and as such attract either <u>-ist</u> or <u>-ian</u>, words in Xgraphy, independent of their semantic content, form their agentive nouns in <u>-er</u>.

#### 5.2.3. The problem of bound bases.

A special problem of morphological analysis, which we have discussed at length (Section 2.2.1.) concerns bound bases in word formation. There are different views concerning the problem: the descriptivists, placing great emphasis on form, insist on the segmentation of words with a bound base; stratificational linguists attack this position and say that, in terms of meaning; a word with a bound base can only be regarded as a single indivisible unit; ARONOFF disre gards the problem by applying WFRs only to existing words. The dicussion could be prolonged fruitlessly. It is our opinion that it is possible to analyze words into parts even if some of those parts do not exist as independent words.

We would say that since the bases of words such as <u>butcher</u>, <u>hedonist</u>, <u>mortician</u>, etc., do not have lexi cal category or independent meaning, they only achieve their full syntactic and semantic realization when the suffixes are added to them. However each of these bases does have a latent meaning before its lexicalization occurs.

#### 5.3. Syntactic features.

The agentive suffixes studied cannot be divid ed according to the lexical category of the words they attach to,since (though they show different levels of productivity), all of them attach to words of different categories.

5.3.1. The -er suffix.

The bases of -<u>er</u> consist of nouns, verbs, and bound bases, the verbal bases being the most productive class.

(114) denominal	deverbal	de-adjectival	bound base
banker	visitor	-	banker
hatter	singer		butler

5.3.2. The -ee suffix.

The suffix -ee attaches mainly to verbs, though there is a small set of nouns with which it occurs as well. The verbs may be either transitive or intransitive and, depend ing on this syntactic subcategorization, the output is either passive or agentive. The WFR that attaches to  $\angle$ -transitive  $\angle$  ver bal bases produces agents, while the <u>-ee</u> nominals derived from  $\angle$ +transitive? verbal bases followed by  $\angle$ --- + animate object? refer to the beneficiary of the action, meaning 'one who is Xed'. As the latter is not the focus of our study we will not include it in the chart below, which is restricted to <u>agent</u> ive nouns.

(115)

denominal	deverbal	<u>de-adjectival</u>	bound base
	[-transitive]	_	
	absentee		—
	escapee	-	-

5.3.3. The -ant suffix.

The suffix -ant attaches almost exclusively to verbal bases with  $\underline{/+}$  Human subject  $\underline{--...}7$ . There are novertheless a few examples of -ant derivatives whose base is a bound form. (116)

<u>denominal</u>	<u>deverbal</u>	<u>de-adjectival</u>	bound base
_	assistant	—	merchant
_	celebrant	<u> </u>	tenant

5.3.4. The -ist suffix.

There are no syntactic constraints on the application of -<u>ist</u> to bases and it attaches to words of differ ent categories, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and bound bases:

(117)

denominal	deverbal	<u>de-adjectival</u>	bound base
dramatist	cyclist	naturalist	atheist
geologist	separatist	socialist	hedonist

5.3.5. The -ian suffix.

The part of speech of the base plays no role in the formation of  $-\underline{ian}$  derivatives. The suffix  $-\underline{ian}$  attaches almost exclusively to nouns, but a few adjectives in Xic, by analogy with the ending of the noun bases, also add  $-\underline{ian}$  to form the agentive derivative.

(118)

<u>denominal</u>	<u>deverbal</u>	de-adjectival	bound base
mathematician		academician	
politician		geometrician	

The form  $-\underline{ician}$  is a result of the usual combination of  $-\underline{ian}$  with nouns in Xic and is added to both nouns and bound bases. (119)

<u>denominal</u>	<u>deverbal</u>	<u>de-adjectival</u>	bound base
beautician		_	mortician

5.4. Semantics.

5.4.1. Semantics and productivity.

Semantics plays a very important role in the productivity of suffixes.

Each rule has a semantic function and therefore assigns a specific meaning to the words formed by the rule.Con sequently we can predict the meaning of any word formed by that rule. In this case the rule is said to be semantically coher ent. There is a direct link between semantic coher ence and productivity, for "the surer one is of what a word will mean, the more likely one is to use it". (ARONOFF, 1981: 39). All the deverbal nouns of the form Xer mean "one who Xs habitually'; the class is therefore semantically coherent and this adds to the productivity of the rule.

#### 5.4.2. Semantic contrast.

When a suffix is added it always introduces a new element of meaning.

In the course of our thesis, and through mul tiple contrasts, we have demonstrated that, though the five suffixes form agentive nouns, they exhibit semantic differences and therefore separate morphemes.

Summing up the main meanings of each agent

we have:

(120)

÷	MEANING	EXAMPLES
Xer	one who Xs. It is the unmarked agent that Conveys simple agency regardless of any circumstances.	driver dancer
Xee	one who Xs forced by a previous action or situation to which he was powerless to react.	escapee refugee
Xant	one who is entitled to X because of an offical support.	dependant servant
Xist	one who is devoted to X in a professional and systematic way.	geologist novelist
Xian	one who is skilled in X.	musician physician

# 5.4.3. Semantic drift.

Considering the relationship between the mean ing of a complex word and the meaning of its parts, several authors share the view that the meaning of complex words is a function of the meaning of its parts. So, for example, the agentive occupational suffix -er can be roughly paraphrased as in (121):.

(121)  $\sum X_V \text{er } \mathcal{I}_N$  - 'one who Xs habitually.

Nevertheless, words have a life of their own and sometimes accrue some feature of meaning independent from their original semantic function, which restricts their basic meaning. We say that the word has undergone semantic drift. 'Computer' and 'separator' used to mean 'one who computes' and 'one who separates', but with the advance of technology and the replacement of human work by machinery, these words have drifted semantically, indicating not the personal agent, but the material agent of the action. Of course, when the semantic drift occurs the slot of the previous meaning is filled in by another word. The nouns that now refer to the personal agents are 'computist' and 'separatist'.

#### 5.5. Psychological reality of morphological rules.

It is important to note that word formation rules specify the relationship between pairs of existing words and are followed by speakers in creating new words. They are not artificial creations of linguists, but have phychological reality in the mind of speakers.

AKMAJIAN (1981) illustrates this psychological reality with the process called backformation, which is, in a sense, the process of using word formation backwards. The English nouns peddler, beggar, editor, and sculptor all existed in the language before the corresponding verbs to peddle, to beg, to cdit, and to sculpt. Since each of the nouns referred to a general profession or activity, and since each noun ter minated in a phonetic sequence similar to the -er suffix, speak ers simply assumed that the nouns ended in the agentive suffix -er. They subtracted the -er ending and arrived at a new verb.

The author goes on to give an interesting modern example of backformation with the agentive suffix, in volving the word laser. This word is an acronym; it ends in er only because e stands for emission and r stands for ra diation (ligh amplification by stimulated emission of radia tion). Speakers quickly forget such origins, and before long physicists had invented the verb to lase, used in sentences as "This dye, under the appropriate laboratory conditions, will lase", where to lase refers to emitting radiation of a certain The er on laser accidentally resembles the sort. agentive suffix -er, and the word itself refers to an instrument; hence, physicists took the -er sequence to be the agentive suffix and subtracted it to form a new verb. (Apud **AKMAJIAN** p. 126).

In sum, the list of words which a speaker has at his command at a given moment is not closed. The speaker always has the capacity to make up new words to add to his repertoire. It is the task of morphology to tell us what sort of new words a speaker will form and which suffix he will choose to achieve a specific meaning.

#### 5.6. Final considerations.

Aronoff's framework, which we used in our thesis, functioned well in solving the questions posed in the introduc tion and proved to be effective in the analysis of meaning-re lated morphemes. Based on this theory we studied the agentive nouns and came to the conclusion that each one represents a distinctive agentive morpheme with its own specific semantic content. This conclusion about agentive nouns may be strong evidence that other suffixes expressing grammatical categories may also constitute contrastive morphemes and not simply be variations of a single morpheme.

We hope to have contributed to an important as pect of word formation and helped to stimulate interest in morphological studies, which, we believe, constitute a promis ing area of linguistic research.

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Semantics $\zeta \times J$ Semantics $\zeta \times J$ 1.1. objects     hat       bow     bow       glass     bow       1.2. places     bank       no meantic     visit       field     visit       no meaning in     barb	7 $\zeta$ Xer 7 $\zeta$ Xer 7 hatter hatter bowyer bowyer glazier glazier glazier siter gardener ng visitor singer writer harber	UT Semantics Semantics one who habitually manipulates or trades with X one who habitually works at X one who Xs habitually occupation (1)
	0	

cannot be stated by means of a paraphrase.

Syntax Syntax 1.1. [+Transitive] 1.2. noun 2. [-Transitive]	B A S E Semantics any semantic field field field field field	<pre></pre>	L Xee J assignee grantee payee biographee patentee absentee escapee	OUTPUT Semantics (passive) (passive) one who is Xed the beneficiary of X (passive) one who Xs forced by	
		return	returnee	circumstances	1

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	OUTPUT	Semantics	one who is entitled to X	occupation (1)	
14		L Xant 7	accountant assistant immigrant litigant	merchant pedant tenant	
- <u>ant</u>		[x]	account assist immigrate litigate	merch- ped- ten-	
	.BASE	Semantics	any semantic field	no meaning in isolation	
		Syntax	1. Verbs +Human subject -	2. bound bases	

their semantics cannot be stated by means of a paraphrase. (1) as the bases of these words have no meaning in isolation

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		-ist		
	BASE		INO	OUTPUT
Syntax	Semantics	[x]	L Xist J	Semantics
noun	branch of	archeology	archeologist	one who is devoted to
	knowledge	drama mythology	dramatist mythologist	X in a professional and systematic way
adj. with a corresponding noun in Xism bound base with a noun in Xism	the noun represents a branch of knowledge no meaning in isolation	natural positive social altru- athe- hedon-	naturalist positivist socialist altruist atheist hedonist	one who is devoted to Xism in a professional and systematic way
verb	any semantic field	cycle copy separate	cyclist copyist separatist	one who Xs in a professional or systematic way

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SyntaxB A S ESyntaxSemanticsSyntaxSemanticsnounartsnounarts-Countarts+Abstractsciencesadjective(1)		DUTPUT	
act] ive	Z ari his pol	L Xian J arìthmetìcian	Compating
i ve	arithmetic history politics	arìthmetìcian	COLUMNIT LA CO
		historian politician	one who is skilled in X
	academic geometric	academician geometrician	a member of an academy one who is skilled in Xy
	-ician	an	
BASE		OUT	OUTPUT
Syntax Semantics noun any semantic	Z X Z Deauty	$\mathcal{L}$ Xician $J$ beautician	Semantics
			one who shows the
bound base no meaning in isolation	ng tion mort-	mortician	skill of an artist in a commonplace occupation

101.

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# APPENDIX

- er Agentive Nouns actor administrator adulterer artiller astrologer astronomer banker barker barrister bartender beggar biographer blusterer boxer bowyer brazier broker butler carpenter caterer chiropractor chorister clothier collector collier composer counselor crippler curator dancer demographer doctor draper dressmaker driver embroiderer experiencer exterminator farmer farrier forester fruiterer furrier gardener geographer glazier grazier grocer . hairdresser hatter

hosier hunter investigator lawyer lexicographer mariner miner officer operator painter photographer plumber porter poulterer realtor recoverer reporter sailor sawyer shoemaker singer slater sophister sorcerer tailor teacher translator typographer undertaker upholsterer washer welder writer - ee Agentive Nouns addressee alienee appelee assessee assignee bailee bargee

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alienee appelee assessee assignee bailee bargee biographee collatee cuttee deportee donee draftee educatee employee expellee gagee grantee indorsee laughee legatee

lessee mortgagee nominee patentee payee photographee referee sendee talkee trustee vendee

- <u>ce</u> Passive Nouns

absentee debauchee devotee escapee evacuee refugee returnee standee

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- ant Agentive Nouns

abdicant accountant anticipant appellant applicant aspirant assailant assistant attendant celebrant commandant communicant complainant confessant. congregant correspondent débutant declarant defendant demandant demonstrant dependant. descendant dissident emigrant entrant examinant figurant immigrant informant inhabitant

intrant jurant litigant mendicant merchant migrant negotiant obligant occupant participant pedant postulant predicant president protestant. servant superintendent tenant - ist Agentive Nouns amorist analyst anthropologist apologist archeologist artist baptist bigamist biologist capitalist cartoonist catechist chartist chemist colonist columnist computist conformist controvertist copyist cyclist dentist dramatist dogmatist economist evangelist exorcist externalist extortionist fashionist florist guitarist humanist humorist idealist

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journalist jurist linguist lobbyist materialist memorialist mineralogist moralist musicologist naturalist novelist oculist opinionist 1 perfectionist philologist pianist plagiarist polytheist purist receptionist red tapist rhapsodist ritualist satirist schematist scientist separatist socialist sociologist speculatist symmetrist theorist typist ventriloquist - ian Agentive Nouns academician acoustician aesthetician beautician cosmetician clinician dialectician electrician ethician geometrician geriatrician grammarian historian librarian magician mathematician mortician musician pediatrician

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physician politician rhetorician statistician theologian veterinarian

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# GLOSSARY

AFFIX:	The morpheme that is added to the base and modifies its meaning; e.gian in magician.
ALLOMOR PH:	"a positional variant of a morpheme. The endings of <u>cats</u> , <u>dogs</u> , and <u>churches</u> all have the meaning plural but differ phone- mically / s, z, $z$ / and are therefore all <u>o</u> morphs of the plural morpheme". (WARDHAUGH 1972: 203).
BACK VOWELS:	Vowels produced in the back of the mouth or with the back of the tongue: /v,u,o,>/.
BASE:	A morpheme to which affixes can be added and which carries the main semantic load; e.g. write in writer.
BLOCKING:	"the nonoccurrence of one form due to the simple existence of another." (ARONOFF, 1981: 43).
BOUND BASE:	A base that never occurs as an independent linguistic unit, e.g., - <u>ceive</u> , - <u>turb</u> , <u>ver</u>
CENTRAL VOWELS:	Vowels produced in the central area of the mouth: /ə, a /.
COMPLEMENTARY DISTRIBUTION:	"The occurrence of variants of a linguistic unit in different environments. Two or more linguistic variants are in complementary distribution when they have no common en vironment; for example the allomorphic va riants /s/of cats and /z/ of dogs, both mean ing plural. (WARDHAUGH, 1972: 206).

- COMPLEX WORD: A word formed of a bound base + a deriva tional affix, such as <u>conceive</u>, <u>disturb</u>, <u>version</u> or a word formed of a free base + a derivational affix, such as <u>hopeless</u>, <u>undo</u>, <u>lover</u>.
- COMPOUND WORD: A word made up of a free morpheme + another free morpheme, such as <u>blackboard,lookout</u>, <u>housewife</u>.
- CORONAL SOUNDS: When "the blade of the tongue moves up toward the teeth and teeth ridge. Dental, alveolar, and palatal sounds are coronal," e.g.  $/\Theta$ , d,  $\frac{1}{7}$  /. (AKMAJIAN, 1981: 88).
- DE-ADJECTIVAL A derived word whose base is an adjective, DERIVATIVE: e.g. <u>purist</u>.
- DENOMINAL DERIVATIVE: A derived word whose base is a noun; e.g. physicist.
- DERIVATION: The process by which noninflectional affix es are added to bases to form words, as -er in singer.
- DERIVATIONAL AFFIX: An affix that alters the lexical meaning, often the part of speech, e.g., happyhappi<u>ness</u>, act - act<u>or</u>, agree-agreement.
- DEVERBAL DERIVATIVE: A derived word whose base is a verb; e.g. washer.
- FREE FORM: "A linguistic form that can occur as an independent word, like <u>cat</u>, judge, and <u>happy</u>, but not the <u>-s</u> of <u>cats</u>, the <u>-ment</u> of <u>judgement</u>, or the <u>un-</u> of <u>unhappy</u>". (WARDHAUGH, 1972: 210).

FRONT VOWELS:	Vowels produced in the front of the mouth: $/r, i, e, \epsilon, a/.$
HIGH VOWELS:	Vowels produced with the lower jaw in a high position, i.e, a small opening of the mouth: / i,r,u,v/.
INFLECTIONAL AFFIX:	A suffix which adapts a word to a gram matical function without changing its meaning, e.g. the plural morpheme in boys.
JUNCTURE:	"the transition from one phonological segment to the next, either open orclose Also, the pause at the end of a phrase or utterance. (WARDHAUGH, 1972:213).
LAX VOWELS:	Vowels produced with very little muscular tension in the articulators: /I, $\epsilon, x, \sqrt{3}$ , a /. Also called short vowels.
LONG VOWELS:	See tense vowels.
LOW VOWELS:	Vowels produced with the lower jaw in a low position, i.e., a wide opening of the mouth: $/æ$ , a, $2/$ .
MID VOWELS:	Yowels produced with the lower jaw in a mid position, i.e., a middle opening of the mouth: $/ \varepsilon$ , e, a, o $/$ .
MORPHEME:	"The minimal unit of meaning. <u>Cats</u> con tains two such units and <u>unwisely</u> three". (WARDHAUGH, 192: 214).

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- MORPHOLOGICAL"Specification of the distribution of an<br/>allomorph by reference to a morphemic envi<br/>ronment rather than to a phonemic one;<br/>for example, English plural has the allo<br/>morph  $/\emptyset/$  in decr and vowel change in men.
- MORPHOPHONEMIC A variation "in the phonemic structure of CHANGE: allomorphs which [accompanies] their group ing into words".'(FRANCIS, 1958: 210).
- NOMINALIZATION: A transformation by which a kernel senten ce is transformed into a noun phrase,e.g., Carol has a car — Carol's car. (Apud HERNDON, 1976: 133).
- NONCE FORMATION: A formation "coined for one occasion". (OAD: 451).
- OPAQUE WORDS: Derived words which do not preserve the phonology of the base word, e.g., <u>celebrant</u> lost the final phoneme -<u>ate</u> of the base.
- OUTPUT: The derived word that results from the application of a word formation rule.
- PHONOLOGICAL "specification of the distribution of an CONDITIONING: allomorph by reference to a phonemic envi ronment; for example, English plural has the allomorph /s/ after certain voiceless phonemes". (WARDHAUGH, 1972: 217).
- PITCH: The frequences used in the production of speech.
- PREFIX: An affix added before the base, e.g., <u>con-</u> (conceive), <u>dis-</u> (<u>disturb</u>), <u>un-</u> (<u>undo</u>).

- PRODUCTIVITY: "/The/ fact that, though many things are possible in morphology, some are more possible than others". (ARONOFF, 1981: 35).
- REDUCED VOWELS: There are two reduced vowels in English : /2/ so called "because it is frequently a reduction of a regular vowel".(ARONOFF, 1981: 80) and /x/.
- SEGMENTATION: The process by which a word is divided into its meaningful units.
- SEMANTIC DRIFT: "When a word accrues some features of meaning independent from its morphological origin. (AKMAJIAN, 1981: 125).
- SEMANTIC FIELD: "that aspect of experience which is cover ed by a term or a set of related terms". (NIDA, 1979: 233).
- SEMANTICALLY "a WFR is semantically coherent to the COHERENT: extent that one can predict the meaning of any word formed by that rule",(ARONOFF, 1981: 38), e.g., all-er derivatives mean 'one who Xs'.
- SHORT VOWELS: See lax yowels.
- SIMPLE WORD: A word made up of a free base, such as house, take, strong.
- STRESS: The intensity with which a sound is pronounced relative to that of other sounds.
- STRICTA rule that specifies environmentalresSUBCATEGORIZATIONtrictions. For example, for a verbitRULE:specifies "which nouns it may appear with<br/>as well as how it may appear with certain<br/>nouns". (HERNDON, 1976: 201).

- SUFFIX:An affix added after the base, e.g., -ly(sadly), -ing (running), -ed (jumped).
- SYNTACTIC FEATURES: "properties that determine how [a word] might be used in combination with other categories of words". (HERNDON, 1976:156).
- TENSE VOWELS: Vowels produced with noticeable muscular tension in the articulators: /i,e,o,u /. Also called long vowels.
- TRANSFORMATIONAL "a rule that account[s] for and describe[s] RULE: the relationship among different types of patterns". (HERNDON, 1976: 23).
- TRANSPARENT WORDS: Derived words which preserve the phonology of the base word, e.g. <u>dance</u> - <u>dancer</u>.
- TRUNCATION RULE: A rule which deletes a morpheme that is internal to an affix, e.g., nominate nominee.
- UNRESTRICTED A variant that is not conditioned by envi VARIANT: ronmental elements.
- WORD FORMATION Rules of the lexicon which generate words. RULES:

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#### OS SUBSTANTIVOS AGENTIVOS EM INGLÊS

EM

-er, -ee, -ant, -ist e -ian

uma abordagem gerativa

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Dissertação de Mestrado apresentada ao Departamento de Letras Modernas da Faculdade de Filosofia, Letras e Ciências Humanas da Universidade de São Paulo

Esta dissertação teve como finalidade estudar os substantivos agentivos da língua inglesa formados com o acréscimo dos sufixos <u>er</u>, <u>ee</u>, <u>ent</u>, <u>ist</u> e <u>-ian</u> a uma base a fim de determinar se esses sufixos são variantes de um único morfema agentivo ou se cada sufixo representa um morfema agentivo distinto.

Em nosso trabalho adotamos a teoria gerativa de formação de palavras de Aronoff. Sagundo o Autor, todos os processos de formação de palavras têm como base uma palavra, i.e., uma forma livre da língua. Forma-se uma nova palavra aplicando-se uma regra de formação e uma palavra ja existente. Assim temos:

 $\begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix}_{A} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix}_{A} \begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix}_{B}$ 

onde tanto  $\begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix}_A$  como $\begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix}_A = Y \end{bmatrix}_B$  são formas livres.

As Regras de Formação de Palavras (RFP) operam sobre um determinado grupo de palavras: a base da regra. Cada RFP especifica uma única operação fonológica - geralmente o acréscimo de um afixo - que ocorre com a base e confere identidade sintática e subcategorização à palavra resultante da operação, bem como específica o seu conteúdo semântico.

Seguindo o modelo de Aronoff, analisamos cada um dos sufixos agentivos, considerando seu comportamento fonológico e morfológico quando são acrescentados a uma base, as características sintáticas dessa base e o conteúdo semántico da base, do sufixo e da combinação resultant**a**.

As conclusões de nosso trabalho se situam em quatro áreas principais: a fonologia, a morfologia, a sintaxe e a semântica.

## Fonologia

Demonstramos que não existe condicionamento fonológico determinando a ligação de um determinado sufixo a uma base, no entento a fonologia da forma derivada tem um papel de grande importância na produtividade das RFPs. As palavras transparentes, que preservam a fonologia da base (<u>worker</u>, <u>receptionist</u>, etc.) são mais produtivas do que as palavras opacas, aquelas que se distanciam fonologicamente de suas bases (<u>celebrant</u>, <u>physician</u>, etc.)

Nesseparte, analisamos também as alterações morfofonêmicas que ocorrem quando um sufixo é acrescentado a uma base.

#### Morfologia

De um modo geral es características morfológicas das bases não limitam o acrescimo dos sufixos agentivos. Os agentivo deverbais formados com o sufixo -er (<u>dancer, writer</u>, etc.) são um bom exemplo: derivam de bases com cualquer cons tituição morfêmica. Quando isto ocorre, aumenta a produtividade da regra. Uma RFP que apresenta poucas restrições morfológicas nas bases a que se liga é altamente produtiva.

Na derivação dos agentivos em <u>ian</u>, por outro lado, as características morfológicas das bases, terminadas na sua maior parte em <u>Xic</u>, diminuem a produtividade da regra.

Encontramos um único exemplo de derivação condicionada exclusivamente pelas características morfológicas de suas bases, independente de seu conteúdo semântico: as palavras terminadas em <u>Xgraphy</u>, que formam seus agentivos em <u>er</u> (<u>geography</u> <u>geographer</u>, etc.).

No decorrer do trabalho colocou-se o problema da derivação com bases presas, que parece gerar grande discordância entre os linguistas. Nos acreditamos que se pode estabelecer uma relação formal entre os elementos de uma palavra derivada com base presa (<u>butcher</u>, <u>hedonist</u>, etc.). As bases <u>butch-</u> e <u>hedon-</u> têm um sentido latente que alcança completa realização sintática e sementica quando estas são ligadas aos sufixos -er e -ist que conferem à palavra resultante uma categoria gramatical.

## Sintaxe

Não podemos classificar os sufixos segundo a categoria gramatical das beses a que se ligam, uma vez que eles se ligam e palavras de diferentes categorias.

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O sufixo -er tem como base substantivos (<u>banker</u>), verbos (<u>singer</u>) e bases presas (<u>butcher</u>).

O sufixo -ee tem como base verbos -transitivos (absentee, escapee).

O sufixo -ant tem como base principalmente verbos com + Sujeito humano (assistant) e algumas bases presas (merchant).

O sufixo -ist tem como base substantivos (<u>geologist</u>), verbos (<u>cyclist</u>), adjetivos (<u>naturalist</u>) e bases presas (<u>atheist</u>).

## Semantica

A semantica tem um papel muito importante na produtividade dos sufixos. Cada RFP tem uma função semantica e confere um conteúdo específico às palavras por ela derivadas, podendo-se conseqüentemente predizer o sentido de qualquer palavra formada pela mesma regra.

No decorrer da dissertação, através de multiplos exemplos e contrastes, demonstramos que, embora os cinco sufixos estudados formem substantivos agentivos, eles apresentam diferenças semánticas e portanto constituem morfemas separados.

	SENTIDO	EXEMPLOS
Xer	aqueleque Xs. É o agente não marcado que denota simples agentividade independente de quaisquer circunstâncias.	driver dencer
Xee	aquelecue Xs forçado por uma ação ou situação pré- via contra a qual não tem poderes para reagir.	escapee refugee
Xant	aqueleque tem direito de X devido a apoio oficial.	dependant servant
Xist	aqueleque se dedica a X de modo profissional e sistemático.	geologist novelist
Xian	aqueleque é perito em X	musician physician

Resumindo os sentidos principais de cada agentivo temos:

Em base a todos os aspectos estudados, podemos concluir que cada sufixo estudado forma um morfema agentivo distinto com seu proprio conteúdo seméntico.

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