

THE OLD ENGLISH SUFFIX *-bora* IN LEXEME-MORPHEME BASE MORPHOLOGY*

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Resumen: Este artículo analiza el sufijo del inglés antiguo *-bora* frente al grupo más amplio de derivados nominales a los que se han adjuntado los sufijos *-a*, *-e*, *-en*, *-end*, *-ere/-re*, *-icge*, *-estre/-istre/-ystre*, *-o* y *-u*. Estos sufijos forman derivados verbales, como en *(ge)spreca* ‘spokesman’ ~ *(ge)sprecan* ‘to speak’, pero el caso de *-bora* es diferente, así *wīgbora* ‘fighter’ ~ *wīg* ‘war’. El sufijo *-bora* es un elemento verbal, morfológicamente relacionado con el verbo *beran* ‘bear’. En este sentido, Quirk y Wrenn (1994) lo consideran un sufijo, mientras que Kastovsky (1992) no. La conclusión es que *-bora* representa una forma trabada y, como tal, un sufijo por dos razones. Primero, aunque los derivados de *-bora* son considerablemente transparentes, también hay algunos ejemplos de lexicalización. Y, segundo, *-bora* como forma libre es muy infrecuente. De acuerdo con *The Dictionary of Old English*, *bora* ‘bearer’ aparece tan solo una vez en el corpus.

Palabras clave: Inglés antiguo, sufijación, derivación, Morfología de Base Lexema-Morfema

Abstract: This paper analyzes the Old English suffix *-bora* against the wider setting of the nominal derivatives to which the suffixes *-a*, *-e*, *-en*, *-end*, *-ere/-re*, *-icge*, *-estre/-istre/-ystre*, *-o* and *-u* have been attached. These suffixes form deverbal derivatives, as in *(ge)spreca* ‘spokesman’ ~ *(ge)sprecan* ‘to speak’, but the case with *-bora* is different, thus *wīgbora* ‘fighter’ ~ *wīg* ‘war’. The suffix *-bora* is a verbal element, morphologically related to the verb *beran* ‘bear’. In this sense, Quirk and Wrenn (1994) consider *-bora* a suffix, whereas Kastovsky (1992) does not. The conclusion reached is that *-bora* represents a bound form and, as such, a suffix for two reasons. Firstly, although *-bora* derivatives are considerably transparent, we also come across some instances of lexicalization. And, secondly, *-bora* as a free form is extremely infrequent. According to *The Dictionary of Old English*, there is a single occurrence of *bora* ‘bearer’ in the corpus.

Keywords: Old English, suffixation, derivation, Lexeme-Morpheme Base Morphology

1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to analyze the Old English suffix *-bora* against the wider setting of the nominal derivatives to which the suffixes *-a*, *-e*, *-en*, *-end*, *-ere/-re*, *-icge*, *-estre/-istre/-ystre*, *-o* and *-u* have been attached. These suffixes form deverbal derivatives, as in *(ge)spreca* ‘spokesman’ ~ *(ge)sprecan* ‘to speak’, but the case with *-bora* is different, thus *wīgbora* ‘fighter’ ~ *wīg* ‘war’. The suffix *-bora* is a verbal element, morphologically related to the verb *beran* ‘bear’. In this sense, Quirk and Wrenn (1994) consider *-bora* a suffix, whereas Kastovsky (1992) does not. By taking issue with *-bora* and the other nominal suffixes just listed, this paper aims at contributing to the debate over the structure of the Old English lexicon in general and the operation of word-formation processes that is being carried out by the *Nerthus* project. With respect to the former topic, this work follows in the track of Kastovsky (1986, 1989, 1990, 1992, 2005, 2006) who has dealt with the typological shift from stem-formation to word-formation that takes place in Old English, as a result of which variable bases of derivation are replaced by invariable ones. On the topic of the word-formation processes of Old English, Martín Arista (2008, 2009, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c, fc.-a, fc.-b, fc.-c) has focused on lexical layers and derivational processes of Old English, including prefixation (*a-*, *ge-*, *un-*, etc.), adjectival suffixation and zero derivation. Another research line of the field of Old English lexicology has been concerned with the analysis of Old English semantic primes, including the works by Martín Arista and Martín de la Rosa (2006), de la Cruz Cabanillas (2007) and Guarddon Anelo (2009a, 2009b).

With this background, two types of derivational relation are examined in Old English complex nouns with verbal base of derivation to which the suffix *-bora* as well as *-a*, *-e*, *-en*, *-end*, *-ere/-re*, *-icge*, *-estre/-istre/-ystre*, *-o* and *-u* have been attached. Firstly, the explicit

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derivational relationship as in *bacan* ‘to bake’ ~ *bæcestre* ‘baker’, in which a full derivational morpheme turns up in the derivative, and, secondly, the implicit derivational relationship, such as the one holding in *rīdan* ‘to ride’ ~ *riidda* ‘rider’, in which no derivational morpheme is present from a strictly synchronic point of view. The analysis is based on the derivational functions and the types of lexical derivation and category functions proposed by Lexeme-Morpheme Base Morphology. Conclusions go along the line of the subjective vs. objective profile of derivatives and insist on the fact that *-bora* represents a bound form.

The data that I analyze as well as the methodology of analysis that I adopt draw on the lexical database of Old English *Nerthus* (www.nerthusproject.com).

2. DESCRIPTIVE AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This section offers a review of the descriptive and theoretical questions relevant to the analysis of Old English deverbals.

2.1. Old English word-formation: nominal suffixation

In Kastovsky’s words (1992: 294) “much of the OE vocabulary is derivationally related by productive word-formation patterns, and, (...) instead of borrowing a foreign, usually Latin word, the corresponding notion is often expressed by activating one of the indigenous word-formation rules, producing a so-called loan translation”. The derivational morphology of Old English uses three main processes to coin new lexemes: zero-derivation, compounding and affixation. Since this journal article focuses on noun suffixation, I offer a more detailed review of this phenomenon.

In Old English, Mitchell (1992) identifies the following nominal suffixes as the most salient ones: *-ađ/-ođ*, *-end*, *-hād*, *-ing*, *-māel*, *-rāeden*, *-đ(o)/-đ(u)*, *-ung/-ing*. Quirk and Wrenn (1994) also provide an inventory of nominal suffixes based on their frequency of occurrence. For these authors, the most frequent suffixes are *-nes(s)/-nis/-nys* and *-ung/-ing*, the suffixes of high frequency are *-dōm*, *-end* and *-scipe*, while other common suffixes include *-bora*, *-el/-ol/-ul*, *-els*, *-en*, *-ere*, *-estre*, *-et(t)*, *-hād*, *-ing*, *-ing*, *-lāc*, *-ling*, *-ođ/-ađ*, *-rāeden*, *-đ(o)/-đ(u)*. For Kastovsky (1992) the main nominal suffixes in Old English are *-d/-t/-đ*, *-dōm*, *-ele(e)/-l(a)/-ol*, *-els*, *-en*, *-end*, *-ere*, *-estre*, *-et(t)*, *-hād*, *-incel*, *-ing*, *-lāc*, *-ling*, *-ness*, *-rāeden*, *-scipe*, *-đ(o)/-t*, *-ung/-ing*, *-wist*. By drawing on these authors, I offer a brief description of each of these suffixes. Regarding *-bora*, Quirk and Wrenn (1994) consider this form bound, thus a suffix, whereas Kastovsky (1992) describes it as a free form in compounding. Very briefly, the other suffixes have the following functions and properties of distribution.

The suffixes in the series *-d/-t/-đ* create deverbals, as is the case with *ābylgđ* ‘anger’ and *hāelđ* ‘health’. The suffix *-dōm* forms denominal and deadjectival abstract nouns with the meaning ‘state, condition, fact of being, action of’. Denominal nouns include *caserdōm* ‘empire’, *martyrdōm* ‘martyrdom’, *campdōm* ‘contest’, and *læcedōm* ‘medicine’. Deadjectival nouns, among others, are *freodōm* ‘freedom’, *haligdōm* ‘holiness, sanctuary’, *wisdōm* ‘wisdom’. The group of suffixes *-ele(e)/-l(a)/-ol/-ul* are attached to action nouns, as in *scendle* ‘reproach’, *đreal* ‘reproof’ and *hwyrfel* ‘circuit, whirlpool’; agent nouns, as is the case with *æftergengel* ‘successor’, *bydel* ‘herald’ and *bæcslitol* ‘backbiter’; object/result nouns (*scytel* ‘dart, missile’, *fyndel* ‘invention’ and *bitol* ‘bridle’); instrumental nouns like *sceacel* ‘shackle’, *tredel* ‘sole of the foot’ and *spinel* ‘spindle’; and locative nouns such as *smygel* ‘burrow, retreat’, *stigel* ‘stile’ and *setl* ‘seat’. The suffix *-els* forms concrete masculine deverbals from strong and weak verbs, as in *rædels* ‘counsel’, *brædels* ‘carpet’ and *gyrdels* ‘girdle’. The suffix *-en* forms feminine nouns of action (*sien* ‘sight’, *fillen* ‘falling’, *swefen* ‘sleep, dream’), object/result (*rædenn* ‘reckoning, estimation’, *sellen* ‘gift’, *fæsten* ‘fortress’), instrument (*hlæden* ‘bucket’, *lifen* ‘sustenance’, *fæsten* ‘fastener’) and locative nouns (*hengen* ‘rack, cross’, *byrgen* ‘grave’). The suffix *-end* forms deverbals from both weak and strong verbs. The agent nouns are masculine, whereas the action nouns display the feminine gender. Masculine agent nouns include *biddend* ‘petitioner’, *lærend* ‘teacher’ and *dælnimend* ‘participle’, while object nouns include *belifend* ‘survivor’ and *gehæftend* ‘prisoner’. The suffix *-ere* forms nouns from other nouns and from verbs. Examples of deverbals include *leornere* ‘disciple’ (agent), *sceawere* ‘mirrow’ (object), *punere* ‘pestle’ (instrumental), *wordsammere* ‘catalogue’ (locative),

dirnegeligere ‘sailor’ (action), etc. Denominal nouns form agent nouns like *scipere* ‘sailor’, *scohere* ‘shoemaker’ and *sædere* ‘sower’. The suffix *-estre* forms deverbal and denominal feminine agent nouns. Deverbal nouns include *hleapestre* ‘female dancer’, *wæscestre* ‘washer’ and *tæppestre* ‘female tavern-keeper’. Denominal nouns are *byrðestre* ‘female carrier’, *fiðestre* ‘female fiddler’ and *lybbestre* ‘sorceress’. The suffix *-et(t)* forms deverbal and denominal neuter nouns. Deverbal nouns include *rewett* ‘rowing’, *hiwett* ‘hewing’ and *bærnett* ‘burning’, while *ðiccett* ‘thicket’, and *rymet* ‘space, extent’ qualify as denominal nouns. The suffix *-hād* conveys the meaning of ‘state, rank, order, condition, character’ in instances like *abbudhad* ‘rank of an abbot’, *camphad* ‘warfare’ and *cildhad* ‘childhood’. The suffix *-incel* forms neuter denominal diminutives such as *bogincel* ‘small bough’, *busincel* ‘little house’ and *scipincel* ‘little ship’. The suffix *-ing* forms masculine nouns denoting ‘proceeding or derived from’ from nouns (*wicing* ‘pirate’), adjectives (*ierming* ‘poor wretch’) and verbs (*fostring* ‘fosterchild’). The suffix *-lāc* forms masculine abstract nouns from nouns and verbs and denotes ‘state, act, quality, nature of’ from nouns and verbs. Denominal nouns include *bodlac* ‘decree’, *brydlc* ‘marriage, marriage gift’ and *lyblac* ‘witchcraft’, while *breowlac* ‘brewing’ qualifies as a deverbal noun. The suffix *-ling* derives nouns from adjectives, nouns and verbs. Deadjectival nouns are *deorling* ‘favourite’ and *geongling* ‘youth’; denominal nouns include *cnæpling* ‘youth’, *fostorling* ‘fosterchild’ and *ðeowling* ‘slave’; *hyrling* ‘hireling’, *ræpling* ‘prisoner’ and *hwirfling* ‘that which turns’ are deverbal nouns. The suffix *-ness* and its variant forms *-nis*, *-nes* and *-nys* derive feminine abstract nouns from adjectives and verbs. Deadjectival nouns include *æðelness* ‘nobility’, *beorhtness* ‘brightness’ and *biterness* ‘bitterness’, *clænness* ‘purity’. Among deverbal nouns we find *blinness* ‘cessation’, *brecness* ‘breach’ and *costness* ‘temptation’. The suffix *-oð/-að* forms masculine nouns, mainly abstract, as is the case with *drohtoð* ‘way of life’, *hergað* ‘plundering’ and *langað* ‘longing’. The suffix *-rāden* derives feminine denominal nouns with the meaning ‘state, act, condition’, as in *bebodraeden* ‘command, authority’, *broðorraeden* ‘fellowship, brotherhood’ and *campraeden* ‘war, warfare’. The suffix *-scipe* forms masculine abstract nouns from adjectives and nouns with the meaning ‘state, act, fact, condition’. Denominal nouns include *bodscipe* ‘message’, *freondscipe* ‘friendship’ and *leodscipe* ‘nation, people’, while *gecorenscipe* ‘election, excellence’, *unwærscipe* ‘carelessness’ and *hwætscipe* ‘activity, vigour’ are deadjectival nouns. The suffix *-ung/-ing* forms deverbal nouns from both strong and weak verbs. Action nouns include *binding* ‘binding’ and *huntung* ‘hunting’. Instances of agent nouns include *gaderung* ‘gathering, assembly’ and *gemeting* ‘meeting, assembly’. Among object/result nouns we find *beorning* ‘incense’ and *agnung* ‘possessions’. Instrumental nouns include instances such as *lacnung* ‘medicine’ and *wering* ‘dam’. *Cyping* ‘market’ and *wunung* ‘dwelling’ qualify as locative nouns. Finally, the suffix *-wist* derives feminine abstract nouns from nouns (*huswist* ‘household’), adjectives (*loswist* ‘loss’) and adverbs (*midwist* ‘presence’).

Along with these suffixes, which bear an explicit derivational relationship because the derivational and the inflectional parts of the ending are clearly distinguishable, there are other suffixes that bear an implicit derivational relationship because the same segment expresses the derivational as well as the inflectional function. This is the case, as González Torres (2010) remarks, with the suffixes *-a*, *-e*, *-o*, and *-u*. Indeed, a morphological relationship of derivation holds between the basic verb and the derived noun in instances like *andettan* ‘confess’ > *andetta* ‘one who confesses’, *hierdan* ‘protect’ > *hierde* ‘keeper’, *fullian* ‘fill up’ > *fyllo* ‘fillness’ and *giefan* ‘give’ > *giefu* ‘gift.’

2.2. Lexeme-Morpheme Base Morphology: An Overview

The theoretical framework chosen for this study is Lexeme-Morpheme Base Morphology, as proposed by Beard (1995) and Beard and Volpe (2005). This theory has been chosen because it allows for a decomposition of a complex notion such as derivational relationship into simpler notions and, moreover, because it provides a unified inventory of derivational and inflectional functions compatible with phenomena of continuity between inflection and derivation such as the one just mentioned.

Lexeme-Morpheme Base Morphology is known for its strict distinction between lexemes and grammatical morphemes. Morpheme-based morphology assumes that language contains

only one type of meaningful unit, the morpheme, which includes stems and affixes, all of which are signs. Lexeme-based morphology, on the contrary, assumes that only lexemes, derived or underived, are signs, and that affixes, reduplication, re-vowelling, metathesis, subtraction, stem mutation, and the like, are means of phonologically marking independent derivational operations which a lexeme might have undergone. This means that lexemes refer to something in the real world, whereas morphemes refer exclusively to universally available closed class grammatical categories (such as Tense, Aspect, and Number) and may consist of independent phonemic strings, affixes, infixes, changes in accent or tone, or even predictable omissions (zero morphemes).

The basic idea, therefore, is that the lexicon contains exclusively noun, verb and adjective stems, whereas grammatical morphemes are the output of phonological operations independent of the semantic operations they realize. In this framework, affixation is reduced to an exclusively phonological operation. This is called the Separation Hypothesis. The Separation Hypothesis splits derivation, both lexical and inflectional, into three processes: lexical (L-) derivation, inflectional (I-) derivation, and morphological spelling. Derivation comprises operations on abstract lexical and inflectional category functions such as [+Plural, -Singular], [+Past, -Present], [+1st], and the like. Spelling is the purely phonological realization of the morphological categories of any base lexeme that has undergone such derivation. Its function is to distinguish stems that have undergone derivation from those which have not. If the derivation is inflectional, the marker may be attached to the lexical stem or assigned independently to a structural position in syntax in ways which syntax alone cannot predict. Lexical derivation takes place in the lexicon and inflectional derivation in the syntax. Beard (1995) distinguishes four kinds of lexical derivation: transposition, functional derivation, feature switches and expressive derivations. Transpositions change the lexical category of a lexeme. Functional derivations add a semantically interpretable category function, such as Subject, Object, Locus and Manner. Lexical switches change the value of inherent lexical features, such as Gender and expressive derivations comprise the Augmentative and Diminutive and reflect the attitude of the speaker. The base rule component of the theory cannot be syntactic only but must accommodate both lexical operations (derivations) and high-level syntactic operations (inflections). The types of lexical derivation rules that are available to grammars, therefore, are determined by the categories of the base rule component and the lexicon. This is called the Base Rule Hypothesis.

The Universal Grammatical Function Theory stipulates that the functions of inflectional and lexical derivation are the same.

Given this overview of the theory, instances such as *bacan* ‘to bake’ ~ *bæcestre* ‘baker’ and *rīdan* ‘to ride’ ~ *ridda* ‘rider’ imply three types of lexical derivation: a transposition whose input is a verb and whose output is a noun, a functional derivation that assigns the subjective role, and a featural switch. These three types of lexical derivation are illustrated, respectively by figures 1-3, based on Beard (1995, 2005) [where NP stands for Noun Phrase, C for Complementiser, CP for Complementiser Phrase, IP for Inflectional Phrase and VP for Verb Phrase; the basic parallel is with a sentence, in which IP contains a word level category such as *will*, *must*, etc. expressing verbal inflection and the Complementiser such as *that* introduces clausal complements].

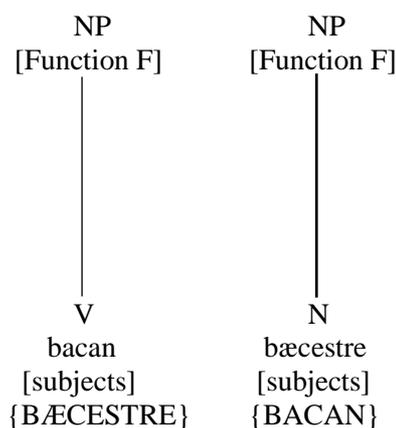


Figure 1: L-derivation in *bacan* 'to bake': *bæcestre* 'baker' (input and output of transposition)

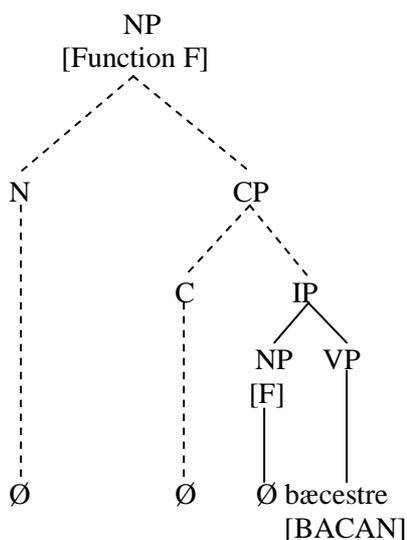


Figure 2: L-derivation in *bacan* 'to bake': *bæcestre* 'baker' (functional derivation)

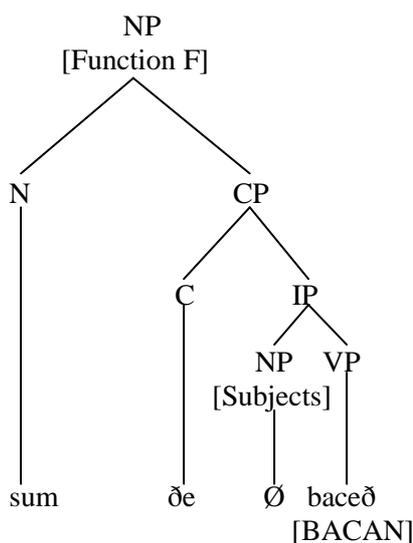


Figure 3: L-derivation in *bacan* 'to bake': *bæcestre* 'baker' (feature switch)

These representations rest on the assumption that Old English has two ways of expressing the same meaning by using an identical lexeme: one is lexical (*bæc-estre* 'bak-er'), the other is syntactic (*sum ðe bac-eð* 'one who bakes'). Moreover, the same functions are found in both expressions. In this particular case, there is a subjective function and an unexpressed objective function.

The remainder of this article focuses on the subjective and objective functions realized in the lexical derivations with *-a*, *-bora*, *-e*, *-en*, *-end*, *-ere/-re*, *-icge*, *-estre/-istre/-ystre*, *-o*, and *-u*.

3. ANALYSIS

This section presents the analysis that has been carried out. Firstly, I describe the data and then I concentrate on the derivations that comprise the suffixes at stake.

3.1. Data

The lexical database of Old English *Nerthus* turns out 480 nouns derived from verbal bases by means of *-bora* and the following affixes: *-a*, *-e*, *-en*, *-end*, *-ere*, *-estre*, *-icge*, *-o* and *-u*. The

context of this figure calls for some comment. *Nerthus* contains 30,170 headwords, of which 16,694 are nouns. By derivational process, nouns can be classified as follows. There are 4,115 basic (underived) nouns and 12,579 non-basic (derived) nouns. Within non-basic nouns there are 3,488 derived nouns and 9,091 compound nouns. Affixed nouns can be broken down into 351 prefixed and 3,137 suffixed nouns. Therefore, this presentation deals with approximately 15% of suffixed Old English nouns. The data of analysis are given in (1). The figure between brackets represents the number of types of each affix found in the database:

- (1) a. *-bora* (22)
 b. *-a* (90), *-e* (11), *-en* (14), *-end* (192), *-ere/-re* (96), *-estre/-istre/-ystre* (12), *-icge* (2), *-o* (2), *-u* (33)

3.2. Analysis

With the exception of *-bora* derivatives, the nouns selected for the analysis have a verbal base of derivation, given that in order to determine whether a subjective or an objective relationship holds between base and derivative, the base has to belong to the lexical category of the verb. This point is illustrated by (2), which displays instances with all the affixes in the group:

- (2) *(ge)spreca* ‘spokesman’ ~ *(ge)sprecan* ‘to speak’
wīgbora ‘fighter’ ~ *wīg* I ‘war’
syde ‘a decoction’ ~ *(ge)sēoðan* ‘to boil’
byrgen ‘burying place’ ~ *(ge)byrgan* ‘to bury’
unrihthāmend ‘adulterer’ ~ *unrihthāman* ‘to commit adultery’
hālsere ‘soothsayer’ ~ *hālsian* ‘to adjure’
hoppestre ‘female dancer’ ~ *hoppian* ‘to dance’
ācennicge ‘mother’ ~ *ācennan* ‘to bring forth’
gehlytto ‘lot’ ~ *gehlēotan* ‘to cast lots’
sacu ‘reproof; affliction; persecution’ ~ *sacan* ‘to struggle’

The case with *-bora* is different because *-bora* itself is a verbal element, morphologically related to the verb *beran* ‘bear’. As I have remarked above, Quirk and Wrenn (1994) consider *-bora* a suffix, whereas Kastovsky (1992) does not. With the caution just explained, *-bora* is analysed as a suffix here because, although *-bora* derivatives are considerably transparent, we also come across some instances of lexicalization such as *candelbora* ‘acolyte’ and *wrōhtbora* ‘accuser; the devil’. It is also worth pointing out that *bora* as a free form is extremely infrequent. According to *The Dictionary of Old English*, there is a single occurrence of *bora* ‘bearer’ in the corpus.

Another set of affixes that call for some attention is the one formed by *-a*, *-e*, *-o* and *-u*. As I have already pointed out regarding *ridda* ‘rider, horseman, horse-soldier’ there is no explicit morphological relationship between the strong verb and the derived noun. Some authors, including Kastovsky (1968, 1992) and Marchand (1969), treat the phenomenon under zero derivation. Others, such as González Torres (2009) consider it a case of continuity between inflection and derivation. Apart from the morphological question, I agree on the functional unification of the phenomenon in terms of lexical derivation carried out by Martín Arista (2008, 2009) because the same function is performed by *-ere* and *-a*, for instance.

In the analysis that follows I distinguish the subjective and the objective function. It must be borne in mind, regarding this question, that these functions are semantic-syntactic rather than notional. In this sense, subjective is not equated with animate and, conversely, objective is not equated with inanimate. As illustration, example (3) gives instances of the subjective semantic-syntactic function corresponding to the notion of inanimate.

- (3) *geclofa* ‘counterpart (of a document)’ (subjective)
scēarra ‘shears, scissors’ (subjective)
scinna ‘spectre’ (subjective)
staca ‘stake’ (subjective)
steorfa ‘pestilence; carrion’ (subjective)

sticca ‘stick’ (subjective)

Beginning with the results that the analysis turns out, lexical switches produce pairs like those in (4). Notice that *m* stands for masculine, *f* for feminine and *n* for neuter:

(4)	a.	<i>ācennend</i>	m	‘parent’
		<i>ācennicge</i>	f	‘mother’
	b.	<i>āðswara</i>	m	‘oath-swearing, oath’
		<i>āðswaru</i>	f	‘oath-swearing, oath’
	c.	<i>byrðestre</i>	f	‘female carrier’
		<i>byrðre I</i>	m	‘bearer, supporter’
	d.	<i>cennend</i>	m	‘parent’
		<i>cennestre</i>	f	‘mother’
	e.	<i>forspennend</i>	m	‘procurer’
		<i>forspennestre</i>	f	‘procuress’
	f.	<i>fylgend</i>	m	‘follower, observer’
		<i>fylgestre</i>	f	‘female follower’
	g.	<i>galdre</i>	m	‘wizard, magician’
		<i>galdricge</i>	f	‘enchantress’
	h.	<i>hælend</i>	m	‘Saviour, Christ’
		<i>hælestre</i>	f	‘saviour’
	i.	<i>hlēapere</i>	m	‘runner, courier; wanderer, leaper, dancer’
		<i>hlēapestre</i>	f	‘female dancer’
	j.	<i>leornere</i>	m	‘learner, disciple; scholar; reader’
	<i>leornestre</i>	f	‘a student’	
k.	<i>oferswīðend</i>	m	‘vanquisher’	
	<i>oferswīðestre</i>	f	‘victrix’	
l.	<i>plegere</i>	m	‘player’	
	<i>plegestre</i>	f	‘female athlete’	

In pairs and triplets like the ones offered in (5) it can be seen that affix selection has impact on meaning:

(5)	a.	<i>begīmen</i>	f	‘attention, observation’
		<i>begīmend</i>	m	‘guide, ruler’
	b.	<i>bepācend</i>	m	‘deceiver’
		<i>bepācestre</i>	f	‘whore’
	c.	<i>blāwend</i>	m	‘inspirer’
		<i>blāwere</i>	f	‘blower’
	d.	<i>byrgen</i>	f	‘burying place, grave, sepulchre; burial’
		<i>byrgend</i>	m	‘grave-digger’
		<i>byrgere</i>	m	‘corpse-bearer’
	e.	<i>forgifestre</i>	f	‘female giver’
		<i>forgifu</i>	f	‘gratia’
	f.	<i>gēotend</i>	m	‘artery’
		<i>gēotere</i>	m	‘founder (of metal)’
	g.	<i>lārend</i>	m	‘misleader, instigator’
		<i>lārestre</i>	f	‘instructress’
	h.	<i>sceððend</i>	m	‘adversary’
		<i>sceððu</i>	f	‘hurt, injury’
	i.	<i>ðrōwend</i>	m	‘serpent, scorpion, basilisk’
		<i>ðrōwere</i>	m	‘sufferer, martyr’
	j.	<i>wendend</i>	m	‘that which turns round’
	<i>wendere</i>	m	‘translator, interpreter’	

From the point of view of function, it is worth remarking that a correspondence has been found in a significant number of instances between a subjective derivative and another objective one. Relevant instances include those given in (6):

(6)	a.	<i>andetla</i>	m	‘declaration, confession’ (objective)
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	<i>andetta</i>	m	‘one who confesses’	(subjective)
	<i>andettere</i>	m	‘one who confesses’	(subjective)
b.	<i>byrgen</i>	f	‘burying place’	(objective)
	<i>byrgend</i>	m	‘grave-digger’	(subjective)
c.	<i>foreðingere</i>	m	‘intercessor, mediator’	(subjective)
	<i>foreðingiend</i>	m	‘intercessor’	(subjective)
	<i>foreðingræden</i>	f	‘intercession’	(objective)
d.	<i>gehlyta</i>	m	‘companion’	(subjective)
	<i>gehlytta</i>	m	‘partner, fellow’	(subjective)
	<i>gehlytto</i>	?	‘fellowship, lot’	(objective)
e.	<i>(ge)rēðra</i>	m	‘rower, sailor’	(subjective)
	<i>(ge)rēðru</i>	np	‘oars’	(objective)
f.	<i>(ge)saca</i>	m	‘opponent, foe’	(subjective)
	<i>(ge)sacu</i>	f	‘conflict, strife, war’	(objective)
g.	<i>giefa</i>	m	‘donor’	(subjective)
	<i>giefend</i>	m	‘giver’	(subjective)
	<i>giefu</i>	f	‘giving, gift’	(objective)
h.	<i>gripa</i>	m	‘handful, sheaf’	(objective)
	<i>gripu</i>	f	‘kettle, caldron’	(subjective)
i.	<i>mānswara</i>	m	‘perjurer’	(subjective)
	<i>mānswaru</i>	f	‘perjury’	(objective)
j.	<i>nýdnimam</i>		‘one who takes by force’	(subjective)
	<i>nýdnimend</i>	f	‘rapine’	(objective)
	<i>nýdnimuf</i>		‘rapine, forcible seizure’	(objective)
k.	<i>sceaða</i>	m	‘injurious person’	(subjective)
	<i>sceaðu</i>	f	‘injury’	(objective)
l.	<i>selen</i>	f	‘grant, gift; tribute’	(objective)
	<i>sellend</i>	m	‘giver; betrayer’	(subjective)
m.	<i>slaga</i>	m	‘slayer, homicide’	(subjective)
	<i>slēa</i>	f	‘slay, weaver’s reed’	(objective)
n.	<i>unna</i>	m	‘favour, approval; grant’	(objective)
	<i>unnend</i>	m	‘one who grants’	(subjective)
o.	<i>wiðercwida</i>	m	‘contradictor’	(subjective)
	<i>wiðercwide</i>	m	‘contradiction’	(objective)

It is remarkable that the suffix *-bora* is selected for the subjective function exclusively. As for the other affixes, the suffix *-a* is selected for the subjective and the objective functions. The suffix *-e* is selected for the objective function mainly. The suffix *-en* is selected for the objective function mainly. The suffix *-end* is clearly subjective. The situation with the suffix *-ere/-re* is comparable. It is overwhelmingly subjective, although there is an instance of the objective function. The suffix *-estre/-istre/-ystre* is subjective only. The suffix *-icge* is exclusively subjective. The suffix *-o* is objective only. Finally, the suffix *-u* is clearly objective. There are four instances, however, that can be considered subjective.

All in all, 480 suffixed nouns have been analyzed, out of which 391 are subjective and 89 objective. Therefore, the subjective function is clearly favored. Secondly, the 10 suffixes analyzed can be divided into three groups on functional grounds: a) those suffixes that always perform the same function; b) those suffixes that practically always realize the same function; and c) those suffixes for which no predominant function can be identified. These groups are given in (7):

- (7)
- a. *-bora* (21 subjective), *-estre/-istre/-ystre* (18 subjective), *-icge* (2 subjective), *-o* (2 objective)
 - b. *-e* (8 subjective, 3 objective), *-en* (13 objective, 1 subjective), *-end* (190 subjective, 2 objective), *-ere/-re* (95 subjective, 1 objective), *-u* (29 objective, 4 subjective)
 - c. *-a* (58 subjective, 32 objective)

These results are in accordance with the Universal Grammatical Function Theory, which predicts that the functions of inflectional and lexical derivation are the same. Indeed, suffixes

involved in explicit derivational relations such as *-estre* perform the same function, namely subjective, as other suffixes involved in implicit derivational relations, such as *-a*. The same applies to the objective function. Suffixes taking part in explicit derivational relations such as *-en* perform the subjective function, as other suffixes involved in implicit derivational relations, like *-o*, do. Finally, the fact that most of the suffixes under scrutiny perform the subjective and the objective function is in keeping with the Separation Hypothesis, in terms of which grammatical morphemes are the output of phonological operations independent of the semantic operations that they realize. Affixation is a phonological operation of affix selection, whereas lexical derivation entails lexical categories and functional relations. In this analysis I have insisted on the functional derivations that add semantically interpretable functions such as the subjective or the objective.

4. CONCLUSIONS

This article has analysed the Old English suffix *-bora* against the wider setting of the nominal derivatives to which the suffixes *-a*, *-e*, *-en*, *-end*, *-ere/-re*, *-icge*, *-estre/-istre/-ystre*, *-o* and *-u* have been attached. Beginning with *-bora*, it has been shown that it is a verbal element, morphologically related to the verb *beran* ‘bear’. There is no agreement in the literature regarding the free or bound status of the form. As has been remarked in the discussion, Quirk and Wrenn (1994) consider *-bora* a suffix, whereas Kastovsky (1992) opts for the free status of *-bora*. The analysis has evidenced that *-bora* is selected for the subjective function exclusively. This is consistent with a syntactic structure in which a nominal derivative of *beran* ‘bear’ takes an objective argument expressed by the adjunct of compounding and keeps a subjective argument, as in *wīgbora* ‘fighter’ ~ *wīg I* ‘war’, which can be paraphrased as ‘someone who bears war’. The fact that with the exception of *-bora* derivatives all the nouns selected for the analysis have a verbal base of derivation reinforces this interpretation. However, I have opted for the explanation based on the bound status of *-bora* for two reasons. Theoretically, Lexeme-Morpheme Base Morphology draws a strict distinction between inflection and derivation but unifies derivations that assign the same function. That is, the focus is not on the status of the units taking part in derivations but on the function they perform. Empirically, although *-bora* derivatives are considerably transparent, we also come across some instances of lexicalization such as *candelbora* ‘acolyte’ and *wrōhtbora* ‘the devil’. And, more importantly, *-bora* as a free form is extremely infrequent. According to *The Dictionary of Old English*, there is a single occurrence of *bora* ‘bearer’ in the corpus.

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