CHAPTER III
DEFINITIONS OF LINGUISTIC TERMS

3.0. Introduction

This chapter discusses the meanings and definitions of all the linguistic terms used in this present study which is followed by working definitions for an understanding of such terms.

3.1. Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process by which the root or stem of a word or part of it repeats. It is used both in inflection to convey grammatical function such as plurality, intensification, etc. and in lexical derivation to create new words. It is often, but not exclusively iconic in meaning. Reduplication, found in a wide range of languages and language groups, though its level of linguistic productivity varies.

According to Abbi (1992), reduplication stands for repetition of all or a part of lexical item carrying a semantic modification. Reduplication thus, can be either partial or complete. For example, bəcca bəcca ‘child child’ in Hindi is an example of complete reduplication. Da -dale ‘strike intensively’ in Munda is an instance of partial reduplication.

According to Abbi (ibid), reduplication can be divided into two types – Morphological and lexical reduplication.

Morphological reduplication refers to the minimally meaningful and segmentally indivisible morphemes which are constituted of iterated syllables. Morphological reduplication consists of expressives. These expressives have been termed as onomatopoeias, sound symbolism, imitations, ideophones, and expressives by various grammarians from time to time without any specific and clear-cut definition. Onomatopoeias are generally considered to be those lexical items (which may or may not be reduplicated) which represent sounds. sound symbolism is considered a
“phenomenon in which the affective component of meaning exceeds the referential component in particular utterance” (Vatter, 1969:101). Imitatives, mimic words are compounds which represent natural sounds and feelings verbally. Ideophones are words, “displaying phonological symbolism of any kind (acoustic, articulatory, structural) and having distinct morphosyntactic properties; …..ideophones include onomatopoeic forms as a subclass.” (Diffloth, 1976:249).

Lexical Reduplication: Lexical reduplication is divided into Echo Formations, Compounds and Word Reduplication. Abbi (1992) defines, Lexical reduplication as “Complete lexical reduplication is constituted of two identical (bimodal) words, e.g. bai♭he bai♭he ‘while sitting.’ Partial lexical reduplication, on the other hand, is constituted of partial repetition of a word either phonologically or semantically. Echo-words or compounds are cases of partial lexical reduplication. Echo words such as khana vana ‘food etc’ or compound such as khana –pina (eat+drink) ‘standard of living’ are cases of partial reduplication. Lexical reduplication thus refers to the repetition of any sequence of phonological units comprising a word. Most often reduplicated structures have distinct morphosyntactico properties that give them different from other lexical items in the lexicon of the language.”

Word reduplication: Word reduplication is divided into complete, partial and discontinuous word reduplication. Complete reduplication refers to those paired constructions when a single word or a clause i.e. repeated once in the same sentence without any phonological or morphological variation (Abbi, 1975). Partial word reduplication is that when only a part of the word is repeated. The kind of word reduplication that are disjoined by an interfixation of a syllable is termed as continuous word reduplication\(^\text{15}\).

The above classification can be presented into form of a diagram.

3.2. **Affixation**

Affixation is one of the morphological processes. It can be either derivational or inflectional. There are three types of affixes, they are prefixes, infixes and suffixes. When new words are formed when attached to the root words, it is known as derivational affixes. When morphemes are attached at the beginning of the word, it is called prefixation, in between of the word it is called infixation and at the end of the word it is called suffixation.

3.3. **Classifiers**

Allan (1977) states classifiers “classifiers have meaning in the sense that a classifier denotes some salient perceived or imputed characteristics of the entity to which an associated noun refers”. These observations regarding the feature properties of entities under the same can also be seen in some cross linguistics works.

A classifier sometimes called a measured word, it is a word or morpheme used in some languages to classify the referent of a countable noun according to its meaning. In languages that have classifiers, they are
often used when the noun is being counted or specified i.e., when it appears with a numeral or a demonstrative. Classifiers are not used in English for instance, ‘people’ is a countable noun, and to say ‘three people’ no extra word needs to be added, but are common in East Asian languages. The classifiers classify the nouns on the bases of the qualities of the object, it is identified by the noun. The qualities include the physical shape, size, the state, etc. When the numeral is added to a noun, the noun takes a classifier which is selected on the above basis. Classifiers are actually small class which mark important feature in term of human, non human, inanimates, size, colour, shape, etc.

In a language with noun classifiers, a noun may or may not be accompanied by a noun classifier, which shows a conceptual classification of the referent of a noun and is commonly used when. Noun classifiers are not grammatical but lexical items, and a language may have hundreds of classifiers. For instance, in Bengali

\[
\text{noe -ta gho} \quad \text{Clf}
\]

Nine Clf clock

‘Nine clocks’

### 3.4. Quantifiers

As the name suggests, quantifiers express quantity. Quantifiers can be a single word or a phrase and are used with nouns. They can be used with both countable and uncountable nouns.

A quantifier is a determiner whose meaning expresses some notion of quantity like many, lots of, few, some, etc. Some analysts regard quantifiers as forming a distinct category from determiners, but this distinction is difficult to justify in syntactic terms\(^\text{16}\).

\[^{16}\text{Trask, R. L. 1995. } A \text{ dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics, p. 227}\]
The term quantifier indicates that in numeration of nouns there is always specification of the type of unit by which the species indicated by the noun is counted. The units indicated are of various kinds, either measured units of non-discrete entities (a quart of liquid, an acre of land) or discrete entities are classed by various criteria (e.g., human vs animal, animates vs non-animates, long and thin vs flat and thin). English has lots of quantifiers such as a ton of coal, two acres of land, three herds of cattle, etc\(^\text{17}\).

3.5. Causative

Those verbs which provide the case frame for a causer and causee are called causative verbs. On such constructions, the agent manifested as the subject will be the causer of the action and the causee will be the performer of the action\(^\text{18}\).

A causative is a form that indicates that a subject causes someone or something else to do or be something or causes a change in state of a non-volitional event.

All languages have ways to express causation, but differ in the meanings. Some languages have morphological devices such as inflection that changes the verbs into the causative forms, or adjective into verbs of becoming. Other languages employ periphrases, with idiomatic expression or auxiliary verbs. Some languages also have lexical causative forms such as English rise – raise.

The causative construction generally represents a linguistic expression which denotes a complex macro-situation or component events – the causing event in which the causer does or initiates something in order to bring about a different event (i.e. the cause event), and the caused event in which the causee carries out an action or undergoes a change of condition or

\(^{17}\) Emeneau, M. B. 1956, India as a Linguistic Area.

\(^{18}\) Abraham, P. T. 1985. Apatani Grammar, p. 68
state as a result of the causer’s action. The following English sentence thus denotes a causative construction, for instance.

Elizabeth made the chef eat the leftovers.

In this example, the causer (Elizabeth) did (or said) something, and as a result of that action the causee (or the chef) in turn carried out the action of eating the leftovers, thereby satisfying the causer’s wish\textsuperscript{19}.

### 3.6. Adposition

An adposition is a term used for prepositions and postpositions. It is a member of a closed set of items that occur before or after a complement composed of a noun phrase, noun, pronoun, or clause that functions as a noun phrase, and form a single structure with the complement to express its grammatical and semantic relation to another unit within a clause.

### 3.7. Person

A person is a deictic category which primarily distinguishes among entities in terms of their role, if any, in a conversational exchange. The three-way distinction among first person (the speaker), second person (the addressee) and the third person (everyone and everything else) appears to be universally expressed in languages. The expression of person is often intersected by the expression of other grammatical categories such as number, sex and gender, but no clear example is known of a language which exhibit more than this three-way person contrast. One of the typically small and closed sets of lexical items with the principal function of distinguishing among individuals in terms of the deictic category of person but often also expressing certain additional expression distinction of number, animacy, gender or other categories\textsuperscript{20}.


\textsuperscript{20} Trask, R. L. 1995. *A dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics*, p. 206
English has three classes of personal pronouns, denoting, respectively, the person(s) speaking (or a group of persons including the person speaking) known as first person; the person(s) spoken to that is second person, and third person refers to other person(s) or thing(s). The personal pronouns of the first and third persons have distinct forms singular and plural. The third person singular has distinct forms for masculine, feminine and for the neuter. The second person makes none of these distinctions.\textsuperscript{21}

Most other languages have comparable sets of personal pronouns, though the particular distinctions expressed vary significantly from one language to another, and some languages have only first- and second-person personal pronouns, using demonstrative or other deictic items for third-person reference. Some languages, however, particularly in South East Asia, make little or no use of personal pronouns; the functional of personal pronouns in these languages is chiefly performed by lexical nouns or noun phrases. For example, in Malay proper names and such nouns as tuan ‘sir’, guru ‘teacher’, tukang ‘craftsman’, amah ‘nurse’ and mak ‘grandmother’ are used more frequently than personal pronouns.

3.8. Number

Number is the grammatical category, most often associated with nouns and pronouns, whose primary correlation is with the number of distinguishable entities. English has a simple two-way number contrast between singular and plural (dog/dogs; child/children; radius/radii), but some other languages exhibit more elaborate number systems involving dual, trial and faucal forms as well as singular and plural. Except perhaps in pronoun systems, number is not universally present in languages in which number contrast are generally absent.\textsuperscript{22}

\textsuperscript{21} Zandvoort, R. W. 1972. \textit{A Handbook of English Grammar}, p. 128

\textsuperscript{22} Trask, R. L. 1995. \textit{A dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics}, p. 192
3.9. Gender

The realisation of the value for gender on the target is the canonical instance of the need for a syntactic rule of agreement (Corbett 2006:126).

Gender is an inherent feature of nouns, and a contextual feature determined through agreement for any other elements that have to agree with the nouns in this feature (e.g. adjectives, verbs, etc.). Typically, gender is lexically supplied and its value is fixed for the noun. However, on some nouns (multi-gendered nouns such as English ‘baby’ and hybrid nouns such as Russian vrač 'doctor') gender can be a semantically selected feature, where one gender value is selected from a set of options. Therefore, the lexical entries of nouns in a gendered language must specify either that the noun has a fixed gender value or that it is capable of taking on different gender values as dictated by the semantics.

Grammatical gender is a special type of noun classes where the gender of the subject is referred by the structure of the word. Every noun must belong to one of the classes and they should be very few that belong to several classes at once. 'Gender' most commonly refers to classes of nouns within a language which are 'reflected in the behavior of associated words' (Hockett 1958:231). The term is used both for the particular classes of nouns (so, a language may have two or more genders) and for the whole grammatical category (so, a language may or may not have the category of gender).

The origin of gender systems is certainly not a well understood phenomenon. A reason lies in the heterogeneous nature of gender markers whose origin is known: sources for gender markers are numerous, and of different types (Aikhenvald 2004). In addition, the history and the development of many gender systems can at best be reconstructed, but not
directly observed. Lack of parallel developments clearly attested in different language families results in reconstructions often remaining speculative.

Gender fulfills two different functions, i.e. nominal classification and cross reference of constituents through agreement. Besides the generally acknowledged possibility of a grammaticalization process that may lead classifiers to become gender markers, gender systems may also arise as a consequence of special agreement patterns connected with differential marking of core arguments. It is argued that different origins of gender systems imply higher relevance of either function of gender in individual languages, and that this may have consequences on the values of gender within specific gender systems.

It is taken as the definitional characteristic of gender that some constituent outside the noun itself must agree in gender with the noun. In other words, a language has a gender system only if we find different agreements ultimately dependent on nouns of different classes (Corbett 1991:146ff; 2005:126).

Hockett (1958:231), Genders are classes of nouns within a language which are 'reflected in the behavior of associated words'. (Corbett 1991:147-150; cf. Zaliznjak 1964:30), genders are agreement classes which may be defined as, an agreement class is a set of nouns such that any two members of that set have the property that whenever they stand in the same morphosyntactic form, they occur in the same agreement domain and they have the same lexical item as agreement target, then their targets have the same morphological realization.

Standing in the same morphosyntactic form' means that, crucially, the nouns have to have the same number and case. Unlike gender, these two features can often be justified without reference to agreement, only on the basis of the morphological material on the noun itself. Thus, when number
and case are taken out of the equation, the remaining distinctions between agreement classes, if there is any, identify these classes of nouns as belonging to different genders.

3.10. Cases

Cases exhibit the relation between verbs and nouns (or pronouns) in a sentence. It may also indicate the relationship between the nouns. Sometimes it is demonstrated by adpositions known as prepositions or postpositions occurring with or without morphological change in the nouns they are attached to (Abbi 1992).

“Case is a grammatical category that can express a number of different relations between nominal elements” (Quirk. et al 1972).

Silverstein (1981) develops a ‘functions morphosyntax’ of case marking, concentrating on a grammatical case. The main feature of Silverstein’s approach is that he treats case marking not as a mean for the expression of some other, more abstract grammatical phenomenon, e.g. grammatical relations or semantic (thematic) relations, but rather as the expression of a complex set of interacting factor. Accordingly, in order to understand what it is that case marking marks, a variety of phenomena must be investigated. Silverstein summarises his approach as ‘the morphosyntactic phenomenon of (surface) case marking is treated as a Dependent Variable, the various attested configuration of which are the results of the interaction of a number of Independent Variables of referential-and-predicational meaningful of ongoing linguistic discourse’23.

In grammar, the case of a noun or pronoun is a change in form that indicates its grammatical function in a phrase, clause, or sentence. For example, a noun may play the role of subject ("I kicked the ball"), of direct

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object ("John kicked me"), or of possessor ("My ball"). Languages such as ancient Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit had ways of altering or inflecting nouns to mark roles which are not specially marked in English, such as the ablative case ("John kicked the ball away from the house") and the instrumental case ("John kicked the ball with his foot"). In ancient Greek those last three words would be rendered τῶ podi (τῶ ποδί), with the noun pous (πούς, foot) changing to podi to reflect the fact that John is using his foot as an instrument (any adjective modifying "foot" would also change case to match). Usually a language is said to "have cases" only if nouns change their form (decline) to reflect their case in this way. Other languages perform the same function in different ways. English, for example, uses prepositions like "of" or "with" in front of a noun to indicate functions which in ancient Greek or Latin would be indicated by changing (declining) the ending of the noun itself.

More formally, case has been defined as "a system of marking dependent nouns for the type of relationship they bear to their heads." Cases should be distinguished from thematic roles such as agent and patient. They are often closely related, and in languages such as Latin several thematic roles have an associated case, but cases are a syntactic notion, while thematic roles are a semantic one. Languages having cases often exhibit free word order, since thematic roles are not dependent on position in a sentence.

The eight historic Indo-European cases are as follows, with examples:

- The nominative case, which corresponds to English's subjective case, indicates the subject of a finite verb:
  
  **We went to the store.**

- The accusative case, which together with the dative and ablative cases (below) corresponds to English's objective case, indicates the direct object of a verb:
The clerk remembered us.

- The dative case indicates the indirect object of a verb:
  *The clerk gave [to] us a discount.*

- The ablative case indicates movement from something, and/or cause:
  *The victim went from us to see the doctor.*
  *He was unhappy because of depression.*

- The genitive case, which corresponds to English's possessive case, indicates the possessor of another noun:
  *John's book was on the table.*

- The vocative case indicates an addressee:
  *John, are you O.K.? or Hey John, are you O.K.?*

- The locative case indicates a location:
  *We live in China.*

- The instrumental case indicates an object used in performing an action:
  *We wiped the floor with a mop.*

All of the above are just rough descriptions; the precise distinctions vary from language to language, and are often quite complex. Case is arguably based fundamentally on changes to the noun to indicate the noun's role in the sentence. This is not how English works, where word order and prepositions are used to achieve this; as such it is debatable whether the above examples of English sentences can be said to be examples of 'case' in English.

Modern English has largely abandoned the inflectional case system of Indo-European in favor of analytic constructions. The personal pronouns of

24 http://encyclopedia.thefreedictionary.com
Modern English retain morphological case more strongly than any other word class or other pronouns, and all nouns, adjectives, and articles, case is indicated only by word order, by prepositions, and by the genitive clitic -'s.

Languages with rich nominal inflection typically have a number of identifiable declension classes, or groups of nouns that share a similar pattern of case inflection. While Sanskrit has six classes, Latin is traditionally said to have five declension classes, and ancient Greek three declension classes.

In Indo-European languages, declension patterns may depend on a variety of factors, such as gender, number, phonological environment, and irregular historical factors. Pronouns sometimes have separate paradigms. In some languages particularly Slavic, a case may contain different groups of endings depending on whether the word is a noun or an adjective. A single case may contain many different endings, some of which may even be derived from different roots. For example, in Polish, the genitive case has -a, -u, -ów, -i/-y, -e- for nouns, and -ego, -ej, -ich/-ych for adjectives. To a lesser extent, a noun's animacy and/or humanness may add another layer of complication.

3.11. Tenses

Comrie (1985) defines tense as, “tense is grammaticalised expression of location in time.” This definition, of course, means that there are two respects in which one’s view of tense as grammaticalisation in times more than purely definitional.

First, Comrie means, it is conceivable that, using the above definition of tense, one might examine grammatical categories across languages and find that there are none which match the definition. It is therefore an empirical claims of Comrie that tense does not exist, i.e. that there are languages which express location in time by means of grammatical categories.
Secondly, there are very heavy constraints that languages impose on the range of expressions of location in time that can be grammaticalised. In fact, all clear instances of tense cross-linguistically can be represented in terms of the notions of deictic notion.

Present tense coincidence of the time of the situation and the present moment; Past tense means location of the situation prior to the present moment; Future tense means location of the situation after the present moment.

A more characteristic use of the present tense is in referring to situations which occupy a much longer period of time than the present moment, but which nonetheless include the present moment within them. In particular the present tense is to speak of states and processes which hold at the present moment. Past tense is located in time prior to the present moment. Future tense locates a situation at a time subsequent to the present moment.

3.12. Working Definitions

3.12.1. Linguistic Area

A linguistic area is an area which includes languages belonging to more than one family but showing traits in common which are not found to belong to other members of one of the families.

3.12.2. Micro-linguistic Area

Micro-linguistic area is an area which is small but has speakers from different linguistics communities.

3.12.3. Areal Features

An areal feature is the feature shared by languages within the same geographical area as a consequence of linguistic diffusion.
3.12.4. **Reduplication**

Reduplication is the morphological feature in which a stem or a root or a part of it is repeated.

3.12.5. **Affixation**

Affixation is the morphological process in which a new word is derived by means of affixing.

3.12.6. **Classifier**

Classifier is called a measured word. It is a word or morpheme to classify countable nouns – human, non-human and inanimate objects.

3.12.7. **Quantifier**

A quantifier can be a single word or a phrase which is used with countable and uncountable nouns.

3.12.8. **Causative**

Those verbs which provide the case frame for a causer and causee are called causative verbs. On such constructions, the agent manifested as the subject will be the causer of the action and the causee will be the performer of the action.

3.12.9. **Adposition**

Adposition is a cover term used for preposition and postposition. It is a member of a closed set of items that occur before or after a complement.

3.12.10. **Person**

A person is a grammatical category which primarily distinguishes among entities in terms of their role, if any, in a conversational exchange.
The three-way distinction of first, second and third person appears to be universally expressed in languages.

3.12.11. Number

Number is the grammatical category, most often associated with nouns and pronouns, whose primary correlation is with the number of distinguishable entities.

3.12.12. Gender

Gender refers to classes of nouns within a language which is reflected in the behaviour words. The term is used both for the particular classes of nouns and for the whole grammatical category.

3.12.13. Case

Cases exhibit the elation between verbs and nouns (or pronouns) in a sentence. It may also indicate the relationship between the nouns. Sometimes it is demonstrated by preposition or postposition.

3.12.14. Tense

Tense denotes the time at which an action takes place. Tense has three divisions of time – present tense, past tense and future tense. Present tense denotes present times, past tense means location of the situation prior to the present moment; future tense means location after the present moment.