Chapter V Word-formation Processes

One of the most note-worthy characteristics of any human language is that one can always produce and understand new words. In any language, words may be altered, added or lost. The meaning of words may broaden, narrow or shift. The lexicon may also shrink as older words become obsolete. There are lots of new words brought to the language both consciously by language trends or advertising and unconsciously through language change over time. New words may be introduced into a language by borrowing or by coinage. There are a number of word-formation processes which help producing new words according to the current requirement of the user.

The store of words is by no means fixed for ever. It enlarges by the processes which may be linguistic or non-linguistic. Whenever a new object, process or concept is discovered, a word has to be found for it. The word can come from anywhere: from an ancient language, from a foreign language or from the discoverer’s imagination. Sometimes the new word may be recycled from morphemes already existing in the language. Such words are always content words since the store of function words is fixed for ever. The new word has corresponding morpheme and this morpheme will then be subject to the same rules of combination and realization that apply to other morphemes of its class.

Before starting the study of various word-formation processes, the point raised by Quirk et al. must be given attention to:

Rules of word-formation are therefore at the intersection of the historical and contemporary (synchronic) study of the language, providing a constant set of 'models' from which new words, ephemeral or permanent, are created from day by day. Yet on a larger scale, the rules themselves (like grammatical rules) undergo change: affixes and compounding processes can become productive or lose their productivity; can increase or decrease their range of meaning or grammatical applicability. (976)
These processes may gain or lose prominence; new processes may emerge. The important thing to be borne in mind is that new words had been formed, are being formed and will be formed by one means or the other.

The major sources of producing nouns in English and Gujarati are borrowings and some common word-formation processes.

**Borrowings (Loan Words)**

Borrowing is the process of obtaining a word from another language with little or no transformation. The borrowed words are called loan words. English language is full of words of foreign origin. The linguistic acquisitiveness has urged English to go farther afield in search of words. From the period of the Renaissance voyages through the days when the sun never set upon the British Empire and up to the present, a steady stream of new words has flowed into the language to match the new objects and experiences English speakers have encountered all over the globe.

Borrowing requires that the borrowing language and the source language come in contact with each other. Speakers of the borrowing language must learn at least some minimum of the source language for the borrowing to take place. English is accommodating enough to accept words from various languages. Scientific terminology relies heavily on words of Latin and Greek origin. The other major source languages are French, Italian, Spanish, German and the Scandinavian languages. From Native American languages, American English has borrowed place names (Chicago), river names (Mississippi), animal names (opossum) and plant names (hickory). The note-worthy thing about the loan words is that most of them are nouns; only some of them are verbs or adjectives. These borrowed nouns are later changed to fit the verbal forms of the language.

Delahunty and Garvey note about the transformation a borrowed word undergoes: "The borrowed word never remains a perfect copy of its original. It is made to fit the phonological, morphological, and syntactic patterns of its new language. For example, the Spanish pronunciation of *burritos* is very different from the English pronunciation. At the very least, the two languages use different /tr/s and /t/s, and the
plural marker {-s} is voiced in English but voiceless in Spanish." (137) This is true for all the languages accepting words from other languages.

**Loan-words in English**

- Words from Arabic and Persian through north Indian languages, used especially during the British Raj: *dewan, durbar, mogul, sepoy, shroff, vakil, zamindar*

- Words taken directly from Sanskrit usually with religious and philosophical associations: *ahimsa, ananda, chakra, guru, nirvana, rajas, sattva, tamas, yoga, yogi*

- Words from indigenous languages such as Hindi and Bengali.
  - Some are earlier and more Anglicized in their spelling: *anna, bungalow, cheetah, chit/chitty, dacoit, dak bungalow, jodhpurs, juggernaut, Mulligatawny, pice, pukka, pundit, rupee, sahib, tus sore.*
  - Some are later and less orthographically Anglicized: *achcha, basmati, chapatti, crore, goonda, jawan, lakh, lati, masala, paisa, panchayat, samosa, Sri/Shri/Shree, Srimati/Shrimati/Shreemati*

The great variety of mixed and adapted usages exists both as part of English and as a consequence of widespread code-mixing between English and especially Hindi:

- Hybrid usages (one component from English and one from a local language, often Hindi): *brahminhood, coconut paysam, goonda ordinance, grameen bank, kaccha road, lathi charge, pan/pan shop, policewala, swadeshi cloth, tiffin box*

- Local senses and developments of general English words: *batch-mate, body-bath, by-two coffee, communal, Englandreturned, eve-teasing, foreignreturned, four-twenty, head-bath, interdine, intermarriage, issueless, military hotel, out of station, outstation (cheque), pre-pone, ration shop*

- Words more or less archaic in British English and American English, but used in Indian English: *dicky, needful, stepney, thrice*
Creation of English names for trees, fruits, birds, and beasts has been prolific in India. For example: Indian fig-tree (banian) Indian gooseberry, drum-stick, firefly, flying bat, sweet apple (sitaphal), shoe flower, tailor bird, wood apple, wood oil

G. Subba Rao rightly comments on the character of the Indian words found in English: "They have not left so deep or wide a mark on the English vocabulary as to modify its character and structure... they are to the language what curry and Pilau are to the daily fare – not absolutely indispensable, but certainly delicious and desirable." (9)

**Other Borrowed Words in English**

Cantonese Chinese – dim sum, gung ho, kowtow, kumquat, ketchup, typhoon

Czech – pistol, robot

Dutch – leak

Finnish – sauna

French – croissant

German – biology, boxer, ozone

Hebrew – behemoth, hallelujah, Satan, jubilee, rabbi

Irish – galore, whiskey, phoney, trousers, Tory

Italian – diva, prima donna, pasta, pizza, paparazzi, umbrella, piano

Japanese – honcho, sushi, tsunami

Malay – kampong, amok

Mexican – taco, burrito

Portuguese – albino, palaver, lingo, verandah, coconut, almirah, ayah, caste, peon

(Words from local languages through Portuguese: bamboo, betel, coir, copra, curry, mango)

Scots – cuddle, eerie, greed

Spanish – buckaroo, barbecue, alligator, rodeo, savvy; states' names like Colorado and Florida

Swedish – smorgasbord, ombudsman

Turkish – jacket, yoghurt, kiosh
Sometimes, the word is changed to a more familiar form that usually keeps its original meaning. For example: the Spanish word 'cucaracha' was borrowed and transformed to 'cockroach'.

Loan Words in Gujarati
As Gujarati is an Indo-Aryan language descended from Sanskrit, its vocabulary contains four general categories of words:

- **Tatsam**: Set of words accepted from Sanskrit language.
- **Tadbhav**: Set of words from Sanskrit language adopted with change in phonological form.
- **Native**: Words which are specific to Gujarati language (deshaj).
- **Loan Words**: Words which are accepted from different languages.

**Tatsam**

તત્સમ `tatsam` means 'same as that (Sanskrit)’. While Sanskrit eventually stopped being spoken vernacularly, it was standardized and retained as a literary and liturgical language for long after. The `tatsam` words are the borrowed words of more or less pure Sanskrit character. They serve to enrich Gujarati in its formal, technical and religious vocabulary. They are recognizable by their Sanskrit inflections and markings. They are thus often treated as a separate grammatical category unto themselves. For example: lakhnār (writer), jītnār (winner), vikaseluN (developed), jāgvānuN (awakening), namaskār (a kind of greeting), manan (reflection), ārādhanā (worship), prabhāv (influence)

Many `tatsam` words have changed their meanings or have had their meanings adopted for modern times. For example: `prasāran` means 'spreading' but now it is used for 'broadcasting'.

**Tadbhav**

તદ્ભવ `tadbhav` means ‘of the nature of that (Sanskrit)’. They are the words of Sanskritic origin that have demonstratively undergone change over the ages ending up characteristic of modern Indo-Aryan languages. They tend to be non-technical, everyday, crucial words; part of the spoken vernacular. For example: `huN` (I),
khasvun (move), āpuN (give), nishāl (school), pāmvuN (obtain), vāgh (tiger), samuN (equal), sau (all), sūraj (sun), dāNt (tooth), paNkhī (bird), fāgan (a month of that name)

It is also noteworthy that in some cases, tatsam and its derived tadbhav words for same Sanskrit word co-exist with same or different meanings with the former holding a higher one. For example: The tatsam word dharma and its tadbhav equivalent dharam have the same meaning 'Religion'. But the following pairs of tatsam and tadbhav words have different meanings in both the forms:

- **Tatsam**: karma = work (dharmic religious concept of works or deeds whose divine consequences are experienced in this life or to the next)
- **Tadbhav**: kām = work (without any religious connotations)
- **Tatsam**: kshetra = Field (abstract sense, such as a field of knowledge or activity; khāngī kshetra – private sector. Physical sense, but of higher or special importance; raṅkshetra – battlefield)
- **Tadbhav**: khetar = field (in agricultural sense)

The borrowings consist mainly of Persian, Arabic, English, Portuguese and Turkish. While the phenomenon of English loanwords is relatively new, Perso-Arabic has a longer history behind it. Both English and Perso-Arabic influences are quite nationwide phenomena in a way paralleling tatsam as a common vocabulary set or bank. The Perso-Arabic set has also been assimilated in a manner characteristic and relevant to the specific Indo-Aryan language it is being used in bringing to mind tadbhav.

**Perso-Arabic**

India was ruled for many years by Persian-speaking Muslims. The language of the rulers had left its impact on the native languages of India. The entry of Persian and its Arabic loans into the Gujarati lexicon is evident.

Perso-Arabic words are etymologically foreign. They have been in certain instances and to varying degrees grammatically indigenized. As the words have been adopted since centuries and the Persian education and power had ended since long, Perso-Arabic loans are quite unlikely to be thought of or known as loans and these loans have often been Gujarati-ized. For example: dāvo (claim), fāydo (benefit), natījo
(result) and *hamlo* (attack), *gusso* (anger) carry the Gujarati masculine gender-marker *-o*; *khānuN* (compartment) has the neuter gender-marker *-ū* and *kharādī* (shopping), *shardī* (cold), *jindgī* (life) have the feminine gender-marker *-ī*.

Some other unmarked loan words are given below:

Nouns – feminine: *bāju* (side), *chīj* (thing); neuter: *makān* (house building), *nasīb* (luck), *shaher* (city), *medān* (plain); Adjectives – *tājuN* (fresh), *juduN* (different, separate), *najīk* (near), *kharāb* (bad), *lāl* (red)

### English

With the end of Perso-Arabic inflow, English became the current foreign source of new vocabulary. English had and continues to have a considerable influence over Indian languages. Loanwords include new innovations and concepts, first introduced directly through British Colonialism and then streaming in on the basis of continued Anglosphere dominance in the post-colonial period. Besides the category of new ideas is the category of English words that already have Gujarati counterparts which end up replaced or existed alongside with. The major driving force behind this latter category has to be the continuing role of English in modern India as a language of education, prestige and mobility. In this way, Indian speech can be sprinkled with English words and expressions, even switches to whole sentences.

As English loanwords are a relatively new phenomenon, they adhere to English grammar, as *tatsam* words adhere to Sanskrit. Though that is not to say that the most basic changes have been underway: many English words are pluralized with Gujarati *'-o'* over English *'-s'*. Also, with Gujarati having three genders, genderless English words must take one. Though often inexplicable, gender assignment may follow the same basis as it is expressed in Gujarati: vowel type and the nature of word meaning.

Portuguese
The smaller foothold the Portuguese had in wider India had linguistic effects. Gujarati took up a number of words. Comparatively, the impact of Portuguese has been greater on coastal languages and their loans tend to be closer to the Portuguese originals. For example: istrī (iron), mistrī (carpenter), sābu (soap), chāvī (key), tamāku (tobacco), kobī (cabbage), kāju (cashew), pāũ (bread), baṭāko (potato), anānas (pineapple), pādrī (Father), aNgrejī (English), nātāl (Christmas)

Other Borrowed Words in Gujarati

Indian Languages
Bengali – mahāshay, bābu, bānī, shilp
Dravidi – pūjā, sāḍi, nāḍī, dhotī
Hindi – bahār, krupayā, baNsī, joban, bhalmansāī, āsānī, ārzu, gāyakī
Kannad – idaḍāN, elachī
Marathi – bhāNg, nishān, aṭkal, gap, paNtuji, āi, chalva
Urdu – pardo, mahāvro, mafat, anāmat, bāj, bādshāh

Foreign Languages
African – gorīlā, zebrā, chimPāNzī
Australian – kāNgāru, būmreNg
Dutch – valaNdā
French – restarāN, kāfeṭeriẏā
Japanese – kimono
Latin – bishap, charch
Malay – bāMbū
Moratias – moras
Russian – sputńik
Turkey – top, dārogā, begam

Thus the Gujarati language has rich set of words derived from Indian languages as well as foreign languages.
Acronyms

Acronym formation is a process of producing words from the initial letters of a phrase. The words thus formed were called abbreviations previously. But with the passage of time, they started being taken as independent words. As mentioned in Aspects of Language, "The name 'acronym' has now come to be confined to such abbreviations-turned-words, while the 'abbreviations' themselves are now generally labelled as 'alphabetisms' or 'initialisms' to distinguish them from abbreviations of other kinds like clippings, for example." (IGNOU 86)

The latest means and modes of communication demand brevity of expression. Acronyms provide the required economy of expression. Memos, email, and text messaging are modes of communication that give rise to both clippings and acronyms, since these word formation methods are designed to abbreviate.

Some acronymic terms clearly show their alphabetic origins. For example: FBI, UN, UK, BSF, GNFC. They are also called initialisms and are pronounced as a sequence of letters. Alphabetism is the other term sometimes used to describe abbreviations pronounced as the names of letters.

Some other such formations are pronounced as single words instead of as a succession of alphabetical letters. For example: NASA, NATO, WHO, UNESCO, SAARC, CAG

Many organization names are used in this acronymic form. For example: World Health Organization WHO; Gujarat Public Service Commission GPSC. Almost all the educational degrees are shortened in this way. For example: B. A., M. A., B. Ed., MBBS

Occasionally, not just letters but a whole or part syllable can be used in the formation of an acronym. If such a form is written in lowercase, there is no longer any formal clue that the word began life as an acronym. For example: radar (radio detecting and ranging).

One of the most interesting things to be noticed about this word-formation process is that it creates only nouns.
Mohsen Yousefi gives the following elaborate classification of acronyms:

- pronounced as a word, containing only initial letters:
  - FNMA: (Fannie Mae) Federal National Mortgage Association
  - laser: light amplification by the stimulated emission of radiation
  - NATO: North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
  - scuba: self-contained underwater breathing apparatus

- pronounced as a word, containing non-initial letters:
  - Amphetamine: Alpha-methyl-phenethylamine
  - Gestapo: Geheime Staatspolizei ("secret state police")
  - Interpol: International Criminal Police Organization
  - radar: radio detection and ranging

- pronounced only as the names of letters
  - BBC: British Broadcasting Corporation
  - DNA: deoxyribonucleic acid
  - LED: light-emitting diode
  - OB-GYN: obstetrics and gyn(a)ecology or obstetrician and gyn(a)ecologist

- shortcut incorporated into name
  - 3M: (three em) originally Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Company
  - E³: (e three) Electronic Entertainment Exposition
  - W3C: (double-u three cee) World Wide Web Consortium

- Recursive acronyms, in which the abbreviation itself is the expansion of one initial (particularly enjoyed by the open-source community)
  - GNU: GNU's Not Unix!
  - HURD: HIRD of Unix-Replacing Daemons, where "HIRD" stands for "HURD of Interfaces Representing Depth"
  - VISA: VISA International Service Association
  - XNA: XNA's Not Acronymed – Microsoft's new game development framework

- Pseudo-acronyms are used because, when pronounced as intended, they resemble the sounds of other words:
  - ICQ: "I seek you"
  - IOU: "I owe you"
• OU812: "Oh, you ate one, too?", a Van Halen album
• CQR: "secure", a brand of boat anchor

• multi-layered acronyms:
  o GTK+: GIMP Tool Kit, *i.e.* GNU Image Manipulation Program Tool Kit, *i.e.* GNU's Not Unix Image Manipulation Program Tool Kit
  o VHDL: VHSIC Hardware Description Language, *i.e.* Very High Speed Integrated Circuits Hardware Description Language

Some other types of acronyms are:
• Pronounced as a combination of initialism and acronym: CD-ROM, JPEG
• Recursive initialisms, in which the abbreviation refers to itself: PHP – PHP hypertext pre-processor
• Initialisms whose last abbreviated word is often redundantly included anyway: PIN Number, ISBN Number

*shabda utpādan* (Word-manufacturing)

In Gujarati also, this kind of formulative or equational (*sūtrātmak*) shortening of a long phrase takes place. For example: the titles *dhadhūpapū* (*dharmadhūraNdhar parampūjya*) and *rā. rā* (*rājmān rājshrī*)

The names of organizations or institutions are abbreviated in this manner. For example: *nā. che. mā. kanyā vidyālay* (*nānchaNd chelājī mādhyamik kanyā vidhyālay* = Nanchand Chelaji Secondary Girls’ School), *sa. ī. ko. rā.* (*sarakarī ījanerī kōlej, rājkot* = Government Engineering College, Rajkot)

All the English acronyms are used in Gujarati as acronyms only. Acronymy is one of the less productive word-formation processes in Gujarati.
**Back-formation**

*Back-formation* is a process of removing a real or hypothetical affix (prefix or suffix) from a word to create a new one. It can be explained as a creative reduction due to incorrect morphological analysis. For example: peddler (n) → peddle (v), scavenger (n) → scavenge (v), sculptor (n) → sculpt (v), burglar (n) → burgle (v), editor (n) → edit (v). The nouns involved in the process are not agentive nouns derived from the corresponding verbs. They are nouns describing occupations.

This process always involves only reduction, no addition. The examples mentioned here indicate that the process of back-formation is used to create verbs from nouns.

Some other examples are television (n) → televise (v), enthusiasm (n) → enthuse (v), abduction (n) → abduct (v), automation (n) → automate (v), investigation (n) → investigate (v), appreciation (n) → appreciate (v), grovelling (n) → grovel (v)

Mohsen Yousefi writes:

Back-formations are shortened words created from longer words... For example, the noun resurrection was borrowed from Latin, and the verb resurrect was then backformed hundreds of years later from it by removing the -ion suffix. This segmentation of resurrection into resurrect + ion was possible because English had many examples of Latinate words that had verb and verb + -ion pairs – in these pairs the -ion suffix is added to verb forms in order to create nouns (such as, insert/insertion, project/projection, etc.).

A large number of verb compounds are results of back-formation. A few common verb compounds and their noun sources are given below:

babysitter (n) → babysit (v), gatecrasher (n) → gatecrash (v), globetrotter (n) → globe-trot (v), chain-smoker (n) → chain-smoke (v), housekeeper (n) → house-keep (v), bottle-feeding (n) → bottle-feed (v), brainwashing (n) → brainwash (v), sightseeing (n) → sight-see (v), window shopping (n) → window-shop (v),
sleepwalking (n) → sleepwalk (v), tape-recording (n) → tape-record (v), back-formation (n) → back-form, typewriter (n) → type-write (v)

Among the more common verb compounds of this type are blacklist, cold-shoulder and short-circuit. They are all cases of conversion from noun compound.

praṭī ṣaṅg-sidhi (pūrvagāmī ghadtar)

Gujarati examples of back-formation: ānaNd (n) → ānaNdvuN (v) (to be happy), ajvāluN (n) → ajvālvuN (v) (to enlighten), kājal (n) → kajlāvuN (v) (to blacken), hiNchko (n) → hiNchakvuN (v) (to swing), tūNkuN (a) → tūNkāvuN (v) (to shorten), lāMbuN (n) → laMbāvavuN (v) (to lengthen), kaṣṭ (n) → kaṣṭāvuN (v), harakh (n) → harkhāvuN (v) (to be happy)

Blending

Blending is a popular word formation process. It involves taking two or more words, removing parts of each and joining the residues together to create a new word whose form and meaning are taken from the source words. In blending, part of one word is stitched onto another word, without any regard for where one morpheme ends and another begins. The morphemes generally overlap. (motel = motor + hotel) or one is infixed into the other (chortle = snort + chuckle). Sometimes, the two elements are put together without any overlap (brunch = breakfast + lunch).

The fundamental characteristic of a blend is that it cannot be broken into meaningful parts. If it is so, it is not a blend but a compound. The second element is usually the semantic head which decides the meaning of the blend.

Blends are created in various ways:

- The beginning of the first word and the end of the last one are put together. This is the most common method of blending. Examples are – spork (spoon + fork), bromance (brother + romance), smog (smoke + fog), splog (spam + blog), stagflation (stagnation + inflation), advertainment (advertisement + entertainment), prissy (prim + sissy), simulcast (simultaneous + broadcast),
Spanglish (Spanish + English), telethon (telephone + marathon), heliport (helicopter + airport), slide (slip + glide), slender (slight + tender), flare (flame + glare), glimmer (gleam + shimmer)

- The beginnings of both the words are put together. For example: cyborg (cybernetic + organism), biopic (biographical + picture), hazmat (hazardous + material), telex (teleprinter + exchange)

A whole word combined with a part of another one: guesstimate (guess + estimate), mockumentary (mock + documentary), cheeseburger (cheese + hamburger), mocktail (mock + cocktail), webinar (web + seminar), carjacking (car + hijacking), fanzine (fan + magazine)

- The blending of celebrity couple names is done. For example: Brangelina (Brad + Angelina), Bennifer (Ben + Jennifer)
- Two words are blended around a common sequence of sounds. For example: Californication (California + fornication), electrocute (electric + execute)

Sometimes blends are referred to as portmanteau words. They are two different words with completely unequal meanings put together to form a new word with a new meaning. As mentioned in Aspects of Language, "However, blends created by playful copywriters do not usually enjoy a long life and are often criticised as jargon." (IGNOU 82) If the new blend has wider scope of utilization, it survives. But those having only local or incidental use prove to be short-lived.

\textit{sankan} (Association of two words)

In Gujarati, a few blends are found. For example: \textit{chappu + chāku} = \textit{chakku} (knife), \textit{dhakko + muśhtī} = \textit{mukko} (punch), \textit{melvuN + mūkvuN} = \textit{mekvuN} (to put), \textit{gap + chup} = \textit{gupchup} (secretly), \textit{ḍakho + ḍolvuN} = \textit{ḍakhoḷavuN} (to stir violently), \textit{abīr + gulāl} = \textit{abīlgulāl}
Clipping

Clipping or truncation is a process of dropping a significant portion of an existing word in order to find only a base word to be used freely. It is a type of abbreviation of a word in which one part is 'clipped' off the rest and the remaining word means essentially the same thing as what the whole word means or meant. It is the process of reducing a word to one of its parts. It is also known as shortening. There are four types of clipping:

(1) **Back clipping**: This is the most common type of all. It is also called apocope – dropping or omission of a letter or syllable from the end of a longer word. The beginning of a word is retained and the end of a word is chopped off. The unclipped original word may be either a simple or a composite one. For example: ad (advertisement), cable (cablegram), doc (doctor), exam (examination), gas (gasoline), math (mathematics), memo (memorandum), gym (gymnastics, gymnasium), mutt (muttonhead), pub (public house), pop (popular concert), photo (photograph), vamp (vampire), pants (pantaloon), Feb (February), lab (laboratory), mike (microphone), matrix (matriculation), hippo (hippopotamus), demo (demonstration)

(2) **Fore-clipping**: It is also called aphaeresis – the omission of one or more sounds or letters at the beginning of a word. The final part of a word is retained. This is less common in English. For example: round (around), varsity (university), chute (parachute), coon (raccoon), gator (alligator), pike (turnpike), burger (hamburger), bike (motorbike), phone (telephone), plane (aeroplane), boat (steamboat)

(3) **Middle clipping**: Here, the middle part of a word is retained. This is rare. For example: flu (influenza), tec (detective), polly (apollinaris), jams (pyjamas), shrink (head-shrinker), fridge (refrigerator).

(4) **Complex clipping**: Clipped forms are also used in compounds. One part of the original compound most often remains intact.
For example: cablegram (cable telegram), opart (optical art), org-man (organization man), linocut (linoleum cut)
When both halves of a compound are clipped (navicert – navigation certificate), it becomes difficult to know whether the resulting word should be treated as a clipping or as a blend as the border between the two types is not always clear.

Clipping may be irregular. For example: fax (facsimile), specs (spectacles), maths (mathematics)

Clippings sometimes do not form a part of the standard lexicon of a language. They originate as a terminology of a special group like schools, army, police, the medical profession, etc., in the familiarity of a milieu where a hint is sufficient to indicate the whole. For example: school – exam, math, lab; stock-exchange – spec(ulation), tick(et = credit); army – vet(erin), cap(tain). Clipped words of the influential groups find their place in the language of common usage.

katraṇ

In Gujarati also, a few clipped words are found. "આ પ્રકાશ્યાથી ઘડાયેલા શબ્દો, શબ્દના એક અંશના હાસભાંધી બનેલા હોય છે. એ માત્ર મોટા ઉપનામ, લાભાદ્ધ મૂલ્ય વચ્ચે નાના ઉપો નથી.... મોટા ઉપો શિખ લાભાના છે, જચારે ટેકિ ઉપો ગ્રામ-શક્તેદર (slang) લાભાના છે." (Desai, Rupshastra 191) The larger words belong to the standard language; whereas the shortened forms are mainly used in slangs. They have linguistic value.

For example: vālpāpī – pāpī (a vegetable), vājāpe/pevāju – pe (harmonium), baḷad gāduN – gāduN (bullock cart), japmālā – mālā, āg gādī – gādī (train), vidyābhyaś – abhyaś (education), gulābhāMbu – jāMbu (a sweet). Some of them are English words. For example: moṭarkār – moṭar, moṭarbāık – bāık. Some others are combination of Gujarati and English words. For example: relgādī – gādī, āgbot – bot.

Compounding

Compounding is putting together two or more words to form a new word. Compounding is one of the most productive word-formation processes in English.
Words, particularly adjectives and nouns, are combined into compound structures in a variety of ways.

A word modified by an adjective ‘a luxurious car’ is different from a compound word ‘a sports car’. In order to differentiate between them, what must be noticed is the degree to which the preceding word changes the essential character of the noun and the degree to which the modifier and the noun are inseparable.

No part of a compound can be modified separately. A compound cannot be divided by inserting some other material between the two parts. For example: the compounds ‘high chair’ and ‘sweetheart’ cannot be changed to ‘higher chair’ and ‘sweeter heart’ by introducing the comparative degree inflection on the adjective. This is because 'high' and 'sweet' do not function as full adjectives in compounds, but merely as parts of single words.

The rules for compounding differ in productivity. In English, the Noun + Noun pattern is extremely creative. Therefore, novel compounds are created freely and are hardly noticed. On the other hand, the Verb + Noun pattern is infertile and limited to a few lexically listed items.

The part of speech of the components of a compound may differ from the part of speech of that word. In other words, a compound may belong to different part of speech than those of its components. For example:

pick-pocket (Verb + Noun = Noun), blackbird (Adjective + Noun = Noun), hang over (Verb + Preposition = Noun)

One thing must be noted that the meaning of a compound is not always the sum of the meanings of its parts. For example: olive oil – oil made from olives; baby oil – oil for babies and not oil made from babies

Some compounds have more than two component words. These are formed by successively combining words into compounds. For example: pick-up stand, ice-cream parlour, no-claim bonus. Even more complex examples: top-rack dishwasher safe, beauty product shop, micro-wave safe cookware.
Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives are hyphenated when compounded with other modifiers: the lowest-cost house, the shortest-term agreement, the higher-degree education. Adverbs ending in ‘-ly’ are not hyphenated when compounded with other modifiers: a highly talented teacher, a partially refunded ticket, a beautifully dressed actress.

Modifying compounds are often hyphenated to avoid misunderstanding. ‘An old-house keeper’ is a man keeping an old house whereas ‘an old house keeper’ is a house keeper who is old. When compound modifiers precede a noun, they are often hyphenated: full-time clerk, five-rupee note, water-proof wristwatch, high-speed train, first-rate theatre. If these same modifying words come after the noun, they are not hyphenated: a note worth five rupees, a wristwatch that is water proof, a train that runs at high speed.

When modifying a person with his or her age, the compounded phrase is hyphenated: his five-year-old daughter. However, ‘His daughter is five years old’.

**Compounds versus Phrases**

Compounds are different from their corresponding phrases in many ways. Some of its distinct features are mentioned here:

(1) The stress pattern of the compound word is usually different from the stress pattern in the phrase composed of the same words in the same order. In the compounds the main stress is on the first word; in the phrases the main stress is on the last word. For example:

**Compounds** - 'Red Fort,' 'Green House'  
**Phrases** – red 'fort, green 'house

(2) The meaning of the compound may differ to a greater or lesser degree from that of the corresponding phrase. For example: a blackbird is a species of bird, regardless of its colour; whereas a black bird is a bird which is black, regardless of its species; a humming-bird is a kind of bird, regardless of its current activity; whereas a humming bird must be a bird that is currently humming.
Thus, the meanings of compounds are not always predictable from the meanings of their constituents. Therefore, the dictionaries provide individual entries for them. But no separate entries are given for phrases, unless the meaning of the phrase is idiomatic and consequently not derivable from the meanings of its parts. For example: once in a blue moon, raining cats and dogs

(3) A compound may differ from its corresponding phrase as far as the sequence of the constituents is concerned. For example: dining table (table for dining), cooking gas (gas for cooking), apple cart (cart full of apples)

(4) Compound nouns allow no modification to the first element. This contrasts with noun phrases as they allow modification to the modifier. For example: an extremely White House (incorrect) – an extremely white house (correct); a really blackbird (incorrect) – a really black bird

**Classification of Compounds**

There are several ways of approaching the classification of compound words:

(1) The most reachable of them is to classify them according to the part of speech of the compound and then sub-classify them according to the parts of speech of its constituents.

1. **Compound Nouns**
   - Noun + Noun: bath tub, girl-friend, birthday party, chair person, garden restaurant
   - Verb + Noun: drop-box, stop-watch, swim-suit, walk-stick, work place, breakfast
   - Noun + Verb: sunrise, soft drink, disc throw, nosebleed, sunshine
   - Verb + Verb: make-believe
   - Adjective + Noun: cold coffee, soft toy, hard drive, deep structure, botanical garden
   - Preposition + Noun: in-crowd, down-town, update
   - Adverb + Noun: after thought, after shock
Verb + Preposition: break through, count-down, run-through, hold-over, login, drop-out
Phrase Compounds: daughter-in-law, brother-in-law, son-in-law

2. Compound Verbs
- Noun + Verb: shower-bathe, sky-dive, brain wash, window-shop
- Adjective + Verb: white wash, fine-tune
- Preposition + Verb: overlook, overbook
- Verb + Verb: make-believe

3. Compound Adjectives
- Noun + Adjective: card-carrying, fun-loving, waterproof, ice-cold
- Verb + Adjective: fail safe
- Adjective + Adjective: open-ended, deaf-mute, bitter-sweet
- Adverb + Adjective: thinly covered, cross-modal, highly qualified
- Preposition + Adjective: over-protected, under-fed, upcoming, upbringing, over-qualified
- Noun + Noun: coffee-table
- Verb + Noun: roll-neck
- Adjective + Noun: high speed, round table, red-brick, blue-collar
- Preposition + Noun: in-service, off-shore, in-depth
- Verb + Verb: kick-start, go-go, make-believe
- Adjective/Adverb + Verb: low-rise, high-rise
- Verb + Preposition: take away, see-through, tow-away

(II) Another approach is to classify compounds in terms of the semantic relationship between the compound and its head. The head is modified by the other constituents of the compound.

In English, heads of compounds are typically the rightmost constituent excluding any derivational and inflectional suffixes. For example: in 'coffee house', 'house' is a head modified by 'coffee'. Linguists distinguish three different semantic relations between the head and modifier(s) of compounds:

(1) Endocentric Compounds: A (modifier) + B (head) = a special kind of B
The compound represents a subtype of whatever the head represents. That is, the head names the type and the compound names the subtype. For instance: 'a chocolate bar' is a type of bar, 'a jute bag' is a kind of bag, 'a lunch box' is a type of box, 'an ice-cream parlour' is a kind of parlour.

Mohsen Yousefi explains thus:

An endocentric compound is framed by a head and modifiers. The head carries the meaning of the whole compound and modifiers restrict this meaning. For example: 'Flower-pot' is a pot in which flowers are kept (pot – head and flower – modifier). It is evident from the example that the endocentric compounds retain the same part of speech as their head. These compounds are called 'karmadharaya' in Sanskrit.

(2) Exocentric Compounds: A + B = compound with an unexpressed semantic head
The compound names a subtype but the type is not represented by either the head or the modifier. There is another word not included in the compound that represents the type of which the compound represents the subtype. For example: dish washer, soda maker, atta maker, hair drier, nail cutter are types of machines or tools.

Mohsen Yousefi comments: "An exocentric compound does not have any head and its meaning often cannot be clearly guessed from its constituent parts. For example, 'Butter polish' has nothing to do with either butter or polish. The part of speech of an exocentric compound is determined lexically, ignoring the class of the constituents. For example, 'Have-nots' is a noun."

(3) Copulative Compounds: there are compounds in which both the constituents are heads each contributing equally to the meaning of the whole and neither is subordinate to the other. "They could be said to have two semantic heads, none of them being subordinate to the other. Given that no member is semantically prominent, but both members equally contribute to the meaning of the compound, these compounds have been labeled copulative compounds (or dvandva compounds in Sanskrit grammarian terms)." (Yousefi)
The copulatives fall into two classes depending on their interpretation:

(a) $A + B =$ different descriptions for a common referent
Each form in a compound refers to one entity that is characterized by both members of the compound. This type of copulative compound is sometimes called 'appositional compound'. For example: producer-director, singer-songwriter, writer-producer, scientist-explorer, professor-doctor, poet-translator, hero-martyr

(b) $A + B =$ the relationship between A and B
The dvandvas denote two entities that stand in a particular relationship with regard to the following noun. This second type of copulative compound is also known as 'coordinative compound'. For example: the student-teacher activity, the doctor-patient gap, the main-subordinate relationship, the nature-nurture debate, an adjective-noun combination, a modifier-head structure, the India-China war, the mind-body problem

(III) In this mode of classification, the compounds are analyzed and classified according to the relationships among their constituents when the meaning of the compound is expressed as a phrase or clause. Compounds are formed by the words having different syntactical relationships with each other. These relationships may be genitive, locative, instrumental, etc. For example:

- Phrases – paper cut (a cut by a paper), memory test (a test of memory), washing machine (a machine for washing), boyfriend (a friend who is a boy), killer plant (a plant that is a killer), solar cooker (a cooker using solar energy), electric heater (a heater powered by electricity), self-control (someone able to control self)
- Clauses – sunrise (when the sun rises), sunset (when the sun sets)

**Compounds with Prepositions**

English has a large number of compounds consisting of a preposition as the first element and a verb as the second element. Though most of them are nouns, quite a few of them also occur as adjectives and verbs. For example: the compound ‘upset’ occurs as noun, adjective and verb.
The stress is generally on the first element when the compound occurs as a noun. For example: 'bypass, 'uplift, 'upset. It shifts to the second element when the compound occurs as a verb. For example: up'lift, up'set but 'bypass. Some compounds occur only as nouns. For example: downfall, downpour, outburst, outcome, outlook, underwear, upkeep.

It may be noted that the literal meaning of compounds of this type cannot always be expressed in an associated sentence. For example: bypass (x passes by y), downfall (x falls down), outcome (x comes out of y) and so on. There is no such sentence for ‘upset’ or ‘offspring’. All compounds of this category may be considered exocentric.

There is also a construction consisting of a preposition and a noun. The compounds created are generally nouns. For example: after – after-effect, afterglow, afterthought; out – outhouse, outpost, outdoor, outnumber; over – overcoat, overdraft, overtime; under – undercurrent, undergrowth, underdog.

**Spelling of Compounds**

There are no predetermined rules for writing compound words. They can be written in various ways. In the same manner, these words have different stress patterns. Martina Wagner has writely put the problem in words: "The difficulty with compounds is to work out which words are more heavily pronounced in their first and which ones in their second part. Another problem, also for native speakers, may be to detect which compounds are written how, because some compounds are hyphenated, others are written seperately and some are written as one word." (5)

There are three written forms of compound words:

1. Closed form in which the words are written together as a single word: football, downtown, keypad, snowflakes, makeup, rainfall, sunrise
2. Hyphenated form: mother-in-law, ready-to-eat, fire-fighters, work-to-rule, high-rise, bluish-grey, well-wishers, semi-colon, baby-shower
3. Open form in which the words are written as different words: notary office, upper class, half moon, step brother, Supreme Court, power play, copy editor, apple pie, spin doctor, washing machine, address book
Plurals and Possessives of Compounds

The hyphenated and open compounds are regularly made plural by the addition of the plural inflection to the element that is subject to the change in number. In other words, the pluralizing -s is attached to the element that is actually being pluralized. For example: mothers-in-law, half-tickets, sergeants-in-arms, doctors of philosophy, courts-martial etc.

In compounds, the most significant word – generally the noun – takes the plural form. The significant word may be at the beginning, middle, or end of the term. For example: volleyballs, nail-paints, attorneys general.

The possessive of a hyphenated compound is created by attaching an apostrophe -s to the end of the compound itself: his son-in-law's house, a cousin of mine's book. It is advisable to avoid the apostrophe -s form and use an 'of' phrase (the post genitive) instead to form the possessive of pluralized compounded words: the party of the mothers-in-law, the schedule of half-moons.

Suspended Compounds

In some compounds with a series of nearly identical words, the final term is delayed until the last instance allowing the hyphen to act as a kind of place holder. For example: many second- and third-grade films; all full- and part-time teachers; a few 3-, 4- and 5-year-old children

Samas

Compound words appear in a slightly different manner in Gujarati. “આમ તો સમાસસિદ્ધ એ કોઈએ પ્રક્રિયા એ જ શબ્દઘટકોમાંથી શબ્દ ઘટક વસે છે; રૂપોંદ્રી જુદો નથી. આમ, સમાસ એ શબ્દકોશીય ઘડતર છે; વ્યાકરણિક ઘડતર નથી.” (Desai, Rupshastra 229) Gujarati samas formation is a process creating words from words; not morphemes from morphemes. It is a lexical process and not a grammatical one. Two distinct Gujarati words are joined together to form a single compound word. The union of words is termed samas. Samas is considered to be a single entity; it cannot
be broken and nothing can be added between its constituents. It is, thus, an indivisible and uninterrupted form.

The meaning conveyed by the *samas* reflects the underlying relationship prevailing between the components of that *samas*. The words put together to form a *samas* are related to each other through some suffixes, conjunctions, postpositions or other words. These connective links are dropped to create a single word. Though the link-markers are absent, the underlying relationship is significant to decide the meaning of that *samas*. The newly formed word gets itself connected to the other words of a sentence as a single entity. It may be inflected or uninlected for gender, number and case. The end word belongs to a part of speech and that class of word decides its future behaviour in the language.

"समासनुं काय लाघवती – संख्याती अभिव्यक्ति साधवतुं अने अर्थ व्यक्त करवातं हे.... समास पदव्यस्त, वाक्यांश, के आणि वाक्यनी अवेजमां वपरातुं पाह घेण."

(Desai, *Vyakaranvimarsh* 344) A *samas* is used in the place of a phrase or a clause. Its function is, thus, to attain brevity and preciseness. It is a condensed form of language which expresses accurate meaning. It helps language users keep their expressions brief.

The difference between a *samas* and a word-cluster or a phrase is the same as that in English. If it is a phrase, the elements are pronounced separately with equal stress on them and also written separately as two or more distinct words. On the other hand, if it is a *samas*, it is pronounced as a single word with the stress on the first element and also written as a single word. For example: *māruN man maNdirmāN chhe. mārā manmanmaNdirmāN tuN chhe.*

"समासों हे क्रमांक विशेषण, विशेषणवाचक, विशेषणवाचकानी, सबवाचकानी, सबवाचकानी. हे आधारी संख्याना समासे सैद्धी वधू व्यापक घेण. पछी विशेषण, विशेषण, विशेषणां अने विशेषणवाचकाना समासे आवे. सैद्धी नाना..."
Samas can be formed by various combinations of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, participles, verbs and adverbs. The most frequent amongst them are those of nouns; then those of adjectives, participles, verbs and adverbs. The smallest group is that of pronoun compounds. Two different parts of speech can also be put together to form samas. The common combinations of samas are Noun + Adjective, Adjective + Noun and Noun + Verb.

Some of these combinations are productive. With the passage of time, they go on increasing in number. For example: bārī-bārā. Some other combinations are non-productive as there is very less possibility for the formation of this kind of new words. They are limited in number. For example: pagpesāro (correct), hāthpesāro (incorrect).

**Classification of Samas**

There are four different ways of classifying samas:

1. This classification takes into consideration the place of the centre of the samas. The centre of a samas plays a major role in deciding the type of that samas.

   - Endocentric – if the centre is inside the word, it is called endocentric samas. For example: sāsarvās
   - Exocentric – if the centre is outside the word, it is called exocentric samas. For example: shāhīchūs

2. This classification takes into consideration the importance of the words put together to form a samas.

   - One word important – a samas in which only one element is important is called ekpadpradhān samās. For example: vanvās
   - All the words important – a samas in which all the elements are important is called sarvpadpradhān samās. For example: bhāibhāNdhu
   - External word important – a samas in which some external element is important is called anyapadpradhān samās. For example: makhkhīchūs
(3) This type of classification follows the English pattern of compound words. *Samas* may be classified according to the part of speech of its components or the part of speech to which the *samas* itself belongs. For example: Noun + Noun = Noun (*bhāībahen*), Adjective + Adjective = Adjective (*bhaluNbhofuN*)

(4) This is an ancient way of classification originally given by the Sanskrit grammarians. According to that, the *samas* are classified under the titles *dvandva*, *tatpuruś*, *madhyampadlopī*, *karmdhāray*, *bahuνrihi* and *upapad*. Here, the relationships existing between the components of *samas* are taken into consideration. It is important here to identify the way in which the components of a *samas* are put together to derive certain meaning. This is the generally accepted classification. A few examples are given below in the table based on that od Desai (*Vyakaranvimarsh* 346):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Sub-types</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Endocentric</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sarvapadpradhān</td>
<td>dvandva</td>
<td>ḥāṭhpag, mābāp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(All components important)</td>
<td>vaikalpik</td>
<td>nokṛīḍhaNdho, bechār</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>krutak</td>
<td>ādōshīpādōshī, vāsaṅkāśaṅ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tatpuruś</td>
<td>dvigu</td>
<td>ḱhāḍibhaNdar, ghrākām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karmdhāray</td>
<td>anya</td>
<td>navṛāt, paNchshīl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>madhyampadlopī</td>
<td>advaiti</td>
<td>gaṅgāmaiya, varrājā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upamān-</td>
<td>anya</td>
<td>fūlgulābī, saNṣārṣāgar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upameya</td>
<td></td>
<td>jāṅbhedu, hīrāghasu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Exocentric</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anyapadpradhān</td>
<td>bahuνrihi</td>
<td>ekḍhyān, pāṭaḷpeṭuN, māṭīpaguN, ekḍhāruN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(External word important)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upapad</td>
<td>vastragāl, ḡāṭhchhaḍ, gaḷḍāūm, muṭṭḥībhar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are a few *samas* having the combination of Gujarati and English words. For example: *kōlejvistār*, sāṅkalsavār, moṭargāḍī, relgāḍī etc.

(1) *sarvapadpradhān*

In this kind of *samas*, all the components are important; none is main and none is subsidiary.
**dvaNdva samās**

It is the compound formed by two or more co-ordinate members connected by implied *ane* (and). Both the components of this kind of *samās* are equally important. These components have the same relationship with the rest of the sentence.

Taylor notes: "Words closely allied in meaning are occasionally associated in this Dvandva Samāsa, in order to indicate by the compound-word an entire class of objects or their aggregate. Thus, māl (goods) ane milkat (property), hence mālmilkat (goods and chattels); sagāN (relatives) and vāhlāN (friends), hence sagāNvāhlāN (a circle of one's relatives and friends)." (111-112)

The components in this *samās* may be: meaningful + meaningful (*bhāībhābhī*), meaningful + meaningless (*dhaNdhodhāpo*) or meaningless + meaningless (*oliyogholiyo*). The relationship the components share with each other is that of either synonyms or complements.

A characteristic feature of dvaNdva *samās* is that the constituents can occur with gender-number-case-markers. For example: *kharokhoṭo*, *kharīkhoṭī*, *kharuNkhoṭuN*, *kharākhoṭa*, *kharāNkhoṭāN*, *jeṇetoṇ*, *ānuNtenuN* etc.

*dvaNdva samās* are of three types: itaretar, vaikalpik and krutak

a) **itaretar** – In this type of *samās*, both the words are complementary to each other. When separated, they use *ane, tathā* or *temaj* (and). For example:

- Noun + Noun = Noun – *bolchāl, sukhshāNti, chāpānī*
- Adjective + Adjective = Adjective – *ekvīs, tājuNmājuN, lāMboṭuNko*
- Pronoun + Pronoun = Pronoun – *konkoṇ, māruNtāruN, jenetoṇ*
- Verb + Verb = Verb – *āvejāy, khādhuNpīdhuN, ūṭhes*
- Participle + Participle = Participle – *bhānelgaṇel, khātuNpītuN*
- Postposition + postposition = Postposition – *aNdarbahār, uparnīče*
• Adverb + Adverb = Adverb – jyāNjyāN, jyārejyāre

b) vaikalpik – In this type of sam samas as, both the words are synonymous to each other. When separated, they use ke or athvā (or). For example:

• Noun + Noun = Noun – nokrīdhaNdho, kāgalpatra, naḍīnāḷuN
• Adjective + Adjective = Adjective – vaheluNmoduN, lālpīḷuN, ūNchuNnīchuN
• Pronoun + Pronoun = Pronoun – jete, amāruNtamāruN
• Verb + Verb = Verb – lemūk, khāvuNpīvuN
• Participle + Participle = Participle – nāhyuNdhoyuN, līdhuNdīdhuN, āvyuNgayuN
• Postposition + Postposition = Postposition – āgalpāchhaḷ
• Adverb + Adverb = Adverb – jemtem, jyāNtyāN, jyāretyāre

Some samas fall into both of these categories itaretar and vaikalpik. Their type or meaning can only be decided through the context in which they are used.

c) krutak – In this type of samas, minimum one out of two words is meaningless. The words may be synonymous or complementary to each other. The context decides the relationship between the words. For example:

• One component meaningless – ārchūraṇparchūraṇ, ṭhāṭhmāṭh, doḍdhām, vāṭchit
• Both components meaningless – ācharkuchar, ṭāpṭīp, achakomachako, ṭhāgāṭhaiyā

dvaNdva samās is the most commonly found and most productive samas among all. New words are easily created in this category.

(2) ekpadpradhān

In this kind of samas, only one component is important. This main component bears relationship with the other parts of the sentence. The other secondary or subsidiary component bears relationship with the main component and adds to its meaning.

1) tatpuruṣh samās

The samas in which the components are related through the case relations are called tatpuruṣh samās. The first word stands in a subordinate relation to the second.
Beames, studying the seven Aryan languages, notes:

That simplest of all methods of forming compound words, which the Sanskrit grammarians call Tatpurusha, is still in force in our seven languages, as it is in most modern languages of the Indo-Germanic family, being a special characteristic of that family, and surviving through all the changes brought about by time. The seven languages therefore have formed compounds of this sort from their own stores, from Tadbhava and Desaja words. Under this class are included those compounds formed from two nouns one of which governs the other; .... Further, it is not only in the genitive relation that the dependent word stands; according to the grammatical rules of each language, it might stand in many of the other cases or relations. In some of the languages, consequently, the dependent word, when put first, takes the oblique form, which is common to all cases of the singular, and by itself denotes simply the state of dependence, the particular kind of dependence being indicated by case-particles, which are omitted in the compound. (123-124)

For example: gharno dhaṇī (master of the house) – ghardhaṇī. Sometimes the connective link through which two words are joined together to form a samas does not disappear. Rather, it becomes a part of that samas. This type of samas is called aluk tatpurush samas. For example: ghodosavār, gaḷepaḍuN, raNGehāth, pichhehaṭh (the locative or instrumental suffix -e is retained.)

**a) Noun + Noun = Noun**

Here, two nouns are generally put together with the possessive case-markers (-no/ni/nuN/nā/nāN). The other case-relations are rare. For example:

- Possessive – āMbāvāḍī, kūḷdipak, devdvāḷī, gulābjaḷ, rājkuNvar, dorīsāNchār, matdān
b) Noun + Adjective = Adjective

A noun and an adjective are put together to form a *samās* which is used as an adjective. For example:

- **Agent** – *mājanyuN, devdīdhuN* (*māe janyuN*)
- **Patient** – *mangamtuN, īshvarādhīn* (*manne gamtuN*)
- **Instrument** – *āshābharyuN, ratnajaḍ* (*āshāthī bharyuN*)
- **Recipient** – *lokopayogī, sarvasulabh* (*lokone upayogī*)
- **Source** – *ruṇmukt, sthānḥbrasṭ* (*ruṇmāNthī mukt*)
- **Possessive** – *hāthchhūṭo, peṭbalyuN* (*hāthno chhūto*)
- **Locative** – *jagjāher, vyavahārkuśal* (*jagmāN jāher*)

2) karmdhāray samās

(i) visheṣṭha-viṣheṣhya karmdhāray samās

a) Adjective + Noun = Noun

For example: *avalmati, pardesh, joḍākshar, navchetnā, vadīsāsu, sambhāv* (avīlī mati, pārko desh)

dvigus samās

The constituent words may be a noun qualified by a preceding numeral. All the compound numerals are *dvigus*.

**Numeral + Noun = Noun**

For example: *chomāsuN, navrāt, paNchpātra, ekṭānuN, adhmaṇ, navlakh* (chār mās, nav rātrī)

b) Adjective + Adjective = Adjective

For example: *adhhūluN, samchoras, eksarakhruN, doḍhdāhyuN* (*aḍḍhuN khūleluN, samān choras*)

(ii) upmān-upmey karmdhāray samās

a) Noun + Noun = Noun

For example: *chīlzaḍap, gharsaNsār, chhokarmat, vihaNgāvlokan* (chīl jevī zaḍap, ghar e j saNsār)
advait samās
Both the constituent nouns are identical to each other.

Noun + Noun = Noun
For example: chāNdāmāmā, sūrajdādā, dhīNgālībāī, hiNdmātā, nānubhāī (chāNdo e j māmā, sūraj e j dādā)

b) Noun + Adjective = Adjective
For example: kājalkāluN, fūlgulābī, madhmīṭhuN, jugjānuN (kājal jevuN kāluN, fūl jevuN gulābī)

3) madhyampadlopī samās
The constituent words may be two nouns from which the meaning of the samās has to be inferred, the relation between the two members not being formally expressed. The words indicating the relation between the two nouns are dropped.

Noun + Noun = Noun
For example: aNikaḏī, dīvādNḏī, bhīNpatra, rūprekhā, gōḷkerī (aNtnā aksharthī sharu thatī kaḍī)

4) upapad samās
Noun + Verbal Adjective (Agentive) = Adjective
The words forming samās have case-relations.
For example: parvatkheḍu, hīrāghasu, gaḷepaḍu, hīrāpārkhu, gharrakhu (parvatno khednār, hīrāno ghasnār)
The most widespread variety of ekpadpradhān samās are saMbaNdh tatpuruṣā and upapad.

(3) anyapadpradhān
"आ प्राकार एक पदार्थ को प्रधान होता है। तदनुसार वाक्यांश को वाक्य प्रधान घोषणा करता है। अथवा एक पदार्थ को प्रधान रूप से विभाजित किया गया है।" (Desai, Vyakaranvimarsh 355) The two elements coming together to form this kind of samās indicate the third element or an element lying outside the samās. This is the exocentric variety samās.
1) bahuvrīhi samās

a) Noun + Noun = Adjective
For example: kesarvaraṇuN, billīpaguN, patalpeṭuN, vījīveguN (kesar jevo varṇ jeno chhe te)

b) Adjective + Noun = Adjective
For example: ekdhāruN, bejīvuN, chopaguN, moNghāmūluN (ek dhār chhe jenī te)

A Bahuvrīhi-compound suggests something denoted by neither of its members. It attributes that which is expressed by its second member and determined or qualified by what is denoted by its first member. For example: shvetāMbar (clothed in white garments) (a sect of the Jains).

"Bahuvrīhi-compounds, the first member of which is a cardinal, resemble in form, but differ in meaning from, the Dvigu-tatpurusha compounds. This difference is seen in the following examples:

Dvigu: chāturmās - the four months (of the monsoon)
   trilok - the three worlds
Bahuwṛīhi: chaturmukh - he of the four faces (Brahmā)
   chaturbhuj - he of the four arms (Viśṇu)
   trilochan - he of the three eyes (Shiva),
   sahasrāksh - he of the thousand eyes (Indra)." (Taylor 113)

When -ādi (first) is suffixed to a Gujarati word, it has the implied meaning 'and others' or 'et cetera'. The samas of which this -ādi forms the second element is a bahuvrīhi-compound. For example: indrādi, vastrādi

2) upapad samās
The words forming samas have case-relations.

a) Noun + Verbal Noun = Adjective
For example: jaḍbātōd, manbhar, sāchāboluN, hāthchhaḍ (jaḍbuN tode te, hāth vade chhaḍeluN te)

b) Adjective + Verbal Noun = Adjective
For example: ākhāboluN, ochhāboluN, mīṭhāboluN, juthāboluN (ākhuN bole te, ochhuN bole te)
A major point of difference between the English compounds and Gujarati *samas* is the manner of writing them. Gujarati *samas* are always written as a single word.

**Conversion**

Conversion (functional shift) is the process by which new words are created without the addition of an affix. It is the process of using a word belonging to a particular part of speech as a different part of speech. It is a process of assigning an already existing word to a new syntactic category. This makes the word perform a different grammatical function too. In conversion, a new use of an already existing word can be seen as a new word derived from an old one and identical to it in form. For example: watch (v) – a wrist watch (n), list (n) – to list a few (v), book (n) – to book tickets (v), butter (n) – to butter the bread (v); permit (v) – an entry permit (n); empty (adj) – to empty the litter-bin (v); must (v) – doing the homework is a must (n), jump (v) – a high jump (n)

The first thing to note about conversion is that it is a process of derivation though it does not add any derivational affixes. In this respect, i.e. in respect to their effect on stems, conversion is like suffixation. The term ‘conversion’ denotes the converting of the base from one part of speech to another. The consequences of such change are very important, since the resulting words are used very differently from the bases. As compared to this change, the changes in meaning are less important and can mostly be predicted from the change in grammar.

The parts of speech converted to nouns through conversion display many qualities of nouns. When a word belonging to one part of speech is converted into another word in such a way that it shows all the characteristics of another part of speech, we call it a case of full conversion. Partial conversion occurs when a word does not show all the characteristics of the part of speech to which it belongs after conversion.

The noun ‘intellectual’ in the following example is a case of full conversion since it shows all the characteristics of nouns.
He is an intellectual person. → He is an intellectual. (Adjective → Noun)

The converted noun can take –

- Determiners – an intellectual
- Number-markers – intellectuals
- Possessive case-marker – an intellectual’s
- Modifiers – well-known intellectual

'Poor' and 'rich' in the following example do not show all the characteristics of nouns. They are, therefore, treated as cases of partial conversion.

Poor people are getting poorer, rich people richer. → The poor are getting poorer, the rich richer. (Adjective → Noun) The converted nouns display various restrictions:

They can only be used with the determiner ‘the’.
They only have a plural reference and there is no singular form.
Unlike full nouns, they can still be inflected for degree. For example: the poorer, the richer.

**Classification**

The only way of classifying conversion grammatically is to note the part of the speech of the base and the part of speech of the word resulting from conversion. In this way, the cases of conversion can be divided into different classes: conversion from noun to verb; from verb to noun, from adjective noun, from noun to adjective, etc. Following is the classification given in *The Structure of Modern English* (BAOU 36):

I) Conversion to Noun

a) From verb base: deverbal
b) From adjective base: deadjectival
c) From other bases

II) Conversion to Verb

a) From noun base: denominal
b) From adjective base: deadjectival
c) From other bases

III) Conversion to Adjective

a) From noun base: denominal
b) From verb base: deverbal
c) From other bases

I) Conversion to Noun

a) From verb bases (deverbal nouns)

When verbs are converted into nouns, various kinds of meaning changes take place. The noun may express any of the following meanings:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning/Function</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agent</td>
<td>cheat, rebel, spy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object</td>
<td>catch, find</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instance (event or activity)</td>
<td>attack, attempt, collapse, cry, felt, hit, laugh, look, murder, search</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument</td>
<td>cover, lift, wrench</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>dump, retreat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling, emotion, state of mind</td>
<td>desire, dislike, doubt, love, need, taste</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) From adjective bases (deadjectival nouns)

Almost any adjective may take the definite article and function like a plural noun. For example: the poor, the rich. But such cases do not show all the properties of nouns. They are treated as cases of partial conversion.

Some nouns derived from adjectives, however, show all the characteristics of nouns and therefore are treated as cases of full conversion. They can be used as subjects, objects etc. They can also be inflected for number and case and can be modified by adjectives. There are two main types:

i) Words like criminal, intellectual, natural, noble, progressive etc.

For example: The queen was dethroned by her own nobles.

ii) Words like daily, weekly, monthly, annual, etc. usually referring to newspapers and magazines. These nouns are derived by shortening an adjective + noun phrase.

For example: a weekly magazine. Therefore sometimes they are not treated as cases of conversion but as the cases of shortening.
When the adjectives are used as nouns, the idea of persons and the qualities indicated by those adjectives come together in our mind. Thus, these words used as nouns have an adjectival meaning.

c) From other bases
Nouns are sometimes also derived from particles, auxiliaries, conjunctions, affixes and whole phrases. For example:
Particles: ..... the ups and downs of life ....
Auxiliaries: This is a must.
Conjunctions: .... ifs and buts...
Affixes: ...the other isms of the modern world
Phrases: a has-been, high-ups, know-how
Pronoun + Preposition: ....his friend's whereabouts
Interrogative Pronouns:…. whys and hows of the problem…
Pronoun: The he in this letter…. 

It is to be remembered, however, that the above cases are shifting of the use or of words rather than of their meaning. The instances of complete conversion of one part of speech into another are rarely found.

II) Conversion to Verb (Noun to Verb)
Verbs which are converted from nouns convey various kinds of meanings which can be expressed in another way by using the noun. For example: the verb to fish, which is derived from the noun fish, conveys the meaning which can be expressed as 'to catch fish'. Sometimes meanings of a whole set of verbs can be expressed in ways which are identical.
Here are a few sets of verbs whose meanings can be specified in this way:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To take on the role denoted by the noun</td>
<td>captain, father, pilot, tailor, tailor, umpire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To perform the action implied in the noun</td>
<td>campaign, notion, orbit, parade, queue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To put, or to be, in/on the place, container, etc. denoted by the noun</td>
<td>bottle, can, catalogue, floor, ground, land, pocket, table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To perform an action by means of what the noun denotes</td>
<td>brake, cart, hammer, mirror, nail, screw, x-ray, knife, stone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To provide with, apply, etc. the substance denoted by the noun</td>
<td>butter, grease, mask, plaster, powder, salt, wax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To produce or make the thing denoted by the noun</td>
<td>flower, seed, joke, echo, steam, coin, tunnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To change into the thing denoted by the noun</td>
<td>cash, triple, group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To remove the object denoted by the noun from someone or something</td>
<td>dust milk here stir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To send or go by the means of communication denoted by the noun</td>
<td>nail, ship, bicycle, boat, motor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**III) Conversion to Adjective (Noun to Adjective)**

The number of adjectives derived from nouns is rather small. This may be due to the fact that nouns can often be used in an adjective function while still remaining nouns. They are often placed before nouns in the modifying function. For example: a brick house, a gold chain. They can also occur after the verbs like adjectives. For example: ‘its beauty’ instead of ‘it’s beautiful’. ‘He's a fool’ instead of ‘He’s foolish’. However, a very few nouns are such that they can occur both before a noun and verb. For example: ‘a paper cup’ not ‘a cup is paper’. ‘Naresh is a fool’ but not ‘fool Naresh’. If a noun can occur in both these positions, it can be regarded as a denominal adjective. For example:

A brick house → The house is brick.
The head teacher → This teacher is head.
A concrete floor → The floor is concrete.
**Deciding Primary Part of Speech**

In a pair of words related by the zero affix, it can easily be made out which meaning is primary and which is derived. Nouns are names of objects, persons and things; verbs denote actions and adjectives denote qualities. If the primary meaning of the word is identified, the base can easily be established.

For example: carpet, stone and table are primarily nouns as they denote objects. Therefore, the verb forms are regarded to be derived. On the other hand, attack, help and laugh are primarily verb since they denote actions. Therefore, the noun forms are regarded to be derived.

**Phonology of Nouns in Conversion**

The word 'house' can be used as a noun and as a verb. In both the cases, its pronunciation differs – the final sound is changed from /s/ to /z/. But the change of the final sound is not reflected in spelling. One more example of the same kind is use (n) – use (v).

However, there are other words which show the change in pronunciation as well as in spelling. For example: advice (n) – advise (v), belief (n) – believe (v), half (n) – halve (v). Generally, the change in pronunciation consists in turning the final voiceless consonant into the corresponding voiced one and the change in spelling, when it occurs, reflects this change.

Some other words show different kind of change in the sounds – a change in the position of the stress. For example: convert (v), discount (v), insult (v), permit (v), transfer (v). All these cases show stress on the second syllable in verb but on the first syllable in noun.

In some cases there is also a change in a vowel sound. For example: conduct, conflict, extract. There is, however, no addition of a suffix either in the noun or in the verb. Therefore, they can be treated as the cases of conversion with modification of form.
Conversion in Gujarati

Some words are used as nouns as well as verbs without any change in forms. When they are used as nouns, they take nominal inflections and when they are used as verbs, they take verbal inflections. Some such words are – ughād, op, kas, gher, chūk, jap, tol, padkār, faḷ, bol, rop, olakh, kaḷ, chamak, chir, chāṭ, jod, zadap, zūl, tahel, dod, pakād, bheṭ, mahek, shīkh, shodh, samaj, sāz, khel, taḍap. These forms are called NV (noun-verb) forms.

Yogendra Vyas comments on the peculiarity of such forms:

आ उपोनी एक विशिष्टता चे चे के आमानं के उपोनी विकल्प धर्मात्त्व हीय तेमानो मुक्त उप तरीके वपरातो विकल्प ज मात्र संजा दियासूयक उप तरीके आवे भे. दा. त. माप, घप, गाण, थाल, थाक, लाब, नाव, हार, मार, घाप, छांट, जंश, टाक, ताला, नाक. लांघ, पांघ, मांघ, हार, हांघ, माप वजिेरे. आ उपोनी व्यंजन + अ- + व्यंजन धर्मात्त्व विकल्प के ज मोटेलाला विविध हीय भे तेमात्र दियासूयक उप तरीके ज वपराय भे. दा. त. मप-,-, घप-,

These words have two forms – bound forms and free forms. The bound forms are used as verbs and the free forms are used as nouns.

Desai writes, "असमुप शबद्धर्तनी आ आस प्रक्षया अविसरण (conversion) तरीके पलो ओतताय भे. जमके विशिष्टक > दिया, दिया > संजा, दिया > विशिष्टक अने आ अविसरण लगेह भी ज व्याकरणिक वंधारजनन अप्लास्मा मुख्य विलायातक अने पृथकरयातक मूळिका लहरे भे. अंगशिल्कमी अविसरणसी त्यारे ज वात करी शक्य
She believes that the process of conversion can be considered a derivational process only when the derived word changes its part of speech or lexical category.

Derivation

Derivation, also called affixation, and inflection are commonly found processes in English and Gujarati. In Gujarati, they are called aNgсидди and padsिडdi respectively. Both of them have to do with the affixes in both the languages. Affixes are bound morphemes. They are divided into two categories: derivational (lexical) and inflectional (grammatical). The process using the derivational affixes is related to different lexemes whereas the process using the inflectional affixes is related to different forms of the same lexeme. Informally, derivation rules form new words (lexemes), while inflection rules yield variant forms of the same word (lexeme). Therefore, though both of them use affixes, derivation is a word-formation process but inflection is not.

The major difference between the two is that the new words produced by adding the derivational affixes may or may not change the part of speech; whereas the words generated by adding the inflectional affixes do not change their part of speech. Rather, they are added for purely grammatical purpose. Inflectional affixes are all suffixes; derivational affixes occur both as prefixes and suffixes.

- For example: Derivation: create (v) – creative (adj) – creation (n)
  \( \text{rātuN} \) (red) (adj) – \( \text{ratāsh} \) (redishness) (n), \( \text{het} \) (n) (love) – \( \text{hetāḷ} \) (adj) (loving)
- For example: Inflection: play (v) – playing (v-continuous) – played (v-past)
  \( \text{paNkhī} \) (bird) (singular) – \( \text{paNkhīo} \) (birds) (plural)

Derivation is the process of adding one or more affixes to a root. The roots and affixes are combined along their edges. One morpheme follows the next and each one has identifiable boundaries. The morphemes do not overlap. For example: encircle, befriend, hopeful, happiness, multinational

Gujarati morphology also has the same concepts. Root (\( \text{dhātu} \)) is an element to which various types of affixes are attached and which cannot be further divided into smaller
parts. Base (aNg) is an element to which an affix may be attached. It may but need not be a root morpheme. Stem is an element or combination of elements to which an affix is attached. It is thus synonymous with the term ‘base’.

Base means the remaining part of a word from which all the case-markers are removed. A base (aNg) may consist of one or more roots or one or more suffixes. It may produce another base with an affix or may produce an independent word with an affix. A word (pad) means a self-contained element which directly becomes a part of a sentence. It does not take any other affixes.

"અંગસાધક પ્રત્યય ધારણાંકું પ્રૂતિ કે અંગના મૂલ અંગને ઘેરેલે લિંગવાચક પ્રત્યયો બાદ કરતાં બાકી રહેતા અંગને લાગે. ઉ.દ.એ. છોકર + મત. ઘડ + પાણ, ઘડ + પાણ ... જેયારે પદસાધક પ્રત્યયો લિંગવાચક, વિલકતચાંગ કે પ્રકૃવત પ્રત્યયાંા અંગને લાગે. ઉ.દ.એ. છોકરણીને, છોકરાને, છોકરશાને... " (Desai, Rupshastra 204) In Gujarati, Derivational suffixes are generally attached to the root after removing the gender suffixes; whereas inflectional suffixes are attached to the stem after the gender-number-case suffixes.

“પદ અને પદસાધક પ્રત્યયઓની વસ્ત્રા જે અને ઘેરથી પ્રત્યયો આવે તે બધા અંગસાધક પ્રત્યયો રહી શકાય.” (Desai, Vyakaranvimarsh 311) The affixes occurring between a root and an inflectional affix are called derivational affixes. This is true about English also.

In Gujarati, there are two types of derivational suffixes: nominal and verbal. "નામિક, પરપ્રત્યયો સંકલને લાગતા, વિશેષજ્ઞને લાગતા, સર્વનમ્ભા લાગતા, અંગવસ્તારક તથ્યા લિંગવાચક ચેમ પાંખ પ્રકાત માંગને હો. તેમાં અંગવસ્તારક અને લિંગવાચક પ્રત્યયઓની વિયારશા અલગવાઈ કરવામાં આવી છે. કારણા કે આ પ્રત્યયો અને અંગની..."
Nominal suffixes are of five types: nominal, adjectival, pronominal, stem-enlarging and gender suffixes. The last two of them have different meaning and function from those of the rest of them. Therefore, they are discussed separately. For the purpose of delineating word-formation process, the first three of these suffixes are discussed elaborately. They can be summarised thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominal Suffixes</th>
<th>Base Form</th>
<th>Final Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Abstract Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Agentive/Genitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Instrumental Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pronoun</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Adverb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The process of derivation changes the meaning but in a way that the final word is still closely related to the original word. For example: nature – natural – unnatural, *nisarg* – *naisargik* (nature – natural). The effect of derivational affixes on the meaning of the stems cannot be predicted with regularity, though subsets of stems may show partial regularities. For example: the suffix -fy creates verbs from nouns and adjectives.

N → V: beauty – beautify, class – classify

A→ V: pure – purify, clear – clarify

In Gujarati, the suffix -tā creates nouns from adjectives: *suNdar* – *suNdaratā* (beauty), *laghu* – *laghutā*

Derivational affixes outnumber inflectional suffixes. They do not allow any generalizations. No common derivational rule can be applied to all the forms of a language. For instance, nouns accept a large number of derivational affixes in both the languages. But there is not a single affix which can be attached to every noun in the language. The new words created by the addition of derivational affixes are treated as separate words and are listed separately in dictionaries.
Derivation creates new words having lexical meaning. The effects of the bound lexical morphemes on the meaning of the words are not predictable. Derivation does not trigger agreement in the way inflection does.

Derivational affixes are not restricted to one part of speech. Some affixes can be attached to more than one part of speech. For example: dis-, the negative prefix, can be attached to adjectives (disloyal), nouns (disorder) or verbs (disobey); the suffix -hood can be attached either to nouns (boyhood) or to adjective (falsehood) and so on. In Gujarati, the negative suffix *a*- can be attached to nouns (*akāraṇ* – without reason) as well as adjective (*asuNder* – not beautiful).

Unlike inflectional suffixes, derivational affixes are never attached freely to all the members of a particular part of speech. For example: though *-er* is attached only to verbs, it cannot be attached to all the verbs – dancer, player, worker, reader, runner, writer are acceptable but stealer, hoper, expresser, arranger are not acceptable. Similarly, though *-ness* is attached only to adjectives there are some adjectives with which *-ness* is odd and unusual if not impossible.

For example: clearness, longness, fatness, freeness, corruptness. In the same manner, the Gujarati suffix *-āsh* is attached to adjectives to form nouns. But it cannot be attached to all adjectives. For example: *kadvuN* – *kadvāsh* (bitter) (correct) but *luchchuN* – *luchchāsh* (cunning) (incorrect)

The process of derivation in Gujarati works in a slightly different manner. Some roots undergo some changes before turning into stems and then accept the derivational affixes. This is more common in suffixation than in prefixation. For example: *līluN* → *līla + āsh = līlāsh* (green-ness)
Derivational Affixes

Derivational affixes, in both the languages, can be of two types depending on their position: prefixes and suffixes. In Gujarati, both of these affixes can be attached to verbal stems or nominal stems i.e. to nouns, pronouns, adjectives.

Prefixes are added to the beginning of another morpheme and suffixes are added to the end. When applied together to a single word, prefixes and suffixes are called circumfixes. They are attached to another morpheme at the beginning and end.

- **Prefix**: co + passenger = co-passenger; un + tie = untie; su + putra = suputra (worthy son); bin + jarurī = binjarurī (unnecessary)
- **Suffix**: beauty + ful = beautiful; create + or = creator; namṇuN + āsh = namṇāsh; shaher + ī = shaherī (urban)
- **Circumfix**: un + friend + ly + ness = unfriendliness; be + javāb + dār + ī + pūrvak = bejavābdārīpūrvak (irresponsibly)

In these last examples, the prefix can only be attached to the noun after adding the first suffix.

A stem to which a derivational affix is added may become a further source for producing another stem. For example:

- nation + -al = national + -ize = nationalize + -ation = nationalization
- a- + dekhuN = adekhuN + -āī = aadekhāī (jealousy)

“પતયોની નોંધ ઉપરથી એટલું તો સપથ શાય છે કે પૂર્વ પતયોની છ છે. જયારે આભાસિક પરપતયો સોળ છે અને નામિક પરપતયો આધારિત છે.” (Desai, Vyakaranvimarsh 332) In Gujarati, prefixes are six, verbal derivational suffixes are sixteen and nominal derivational suffixes are thirty. Any such figures cannot be given for the English affixes as English goes on accepting various new affixes as per the requirement of the speakers.

In Gujarati, suffixes show a peculiarity. They may be marked or remain unmarked for gender. Prefixes are never marked for gender.
Maintaining and Changing Word-Classes with Derivation

A significant point of difference between prefixation and suffixation is the change of syntactic word class. Normally, prefixation is class-maintaining in that it retains the part of speech of the base and suffixation is class-changing in that it transforms the part of speech of the base. Though prefixes and suffixes modify the meaning of the word, suffixes also affect the word grammatically while prefixes do not. Bearing one or two cases, prefixes do not change the part of speech of the stems to which they are attached.

"પૂવથ પ્રત્યય જે અંગને લાગે તેના વ્યાકરણિક મોધલ પર કોઈ જનતી પકડ રાખવા વગર તેને માત્ર બિકૃત કરે (modify). એટલા પૂવથ પ્રત્યય વગરના ઉપની જે કક્ષા હોવ તે જ કક્ષા પૂવથપ્રત્યયવાળા ઉપની હોય, જયારે પરપ્રત્યયવાળા અંગોમાં પરપ્રત્યય જ વ્યાકરણિક અને શબ્દાધિકારક સ્વભાવે પ્રભાવક તત્વ હોય." (Desai, Rupshastra 219)

Prefixes do not affect the grammatical category of the word but suffixes do affect. Suffixes are the determining factor as far as the grammatical category and the meaning are concerned. The exception to this is Gujarati stem-enlarging suffixes.

In short, prefixes seldom change the class of word. For example: do (v) – redo/undo (v), write (v) – rewrite (v), healthy (adj) – unhealthy (adj), regular (adj) – irregular (adj). The same is true for Gujarati prefixes. For example: prāmāṇik (adj) (honest) – aprāmāṇik (adj) (dishonest), paraMparāgat (adj) (traditional)– binparaMparāgat (adj) (untraditional), āvāDAT (n) (skill) – anāvāDAT (n), vaparāyel (participle) (used)– vanvaparāyel (participle) (unused), marajī (n) (willingness) – nāmarajī (n)

But there are exceptions. Prefixes may bring about a shift of word class: sure (adj) – ensure (v), mask (n) – unmask (v), friend (n) – befriend (v), circle (n) – encircle (v), rich (adj) – enrich (v), large (adj) – enlarge (v), slave (n) – enslave (v), bitter (adj) – embitter (v), bark (n) – debark (v), stick (v) – non-stick (adj), horse (n) – unhorse (v), siege (n) – besiege (v), head (n) – behead (v)
In Gujarati, "પૂવથપ્રત્યયો આખ્યાવતક અને નાવમક અંગોને લાગીને મુખ્યત્વે વરસભ્રનમ જ 
બનાવે છે. સંજ્ઞા તો બહુ થોડી બનાવે છે."
(Desai, Vyakaranvimarsh 313) Gujarati prefixes are attached to nouns and verbs and create mainly adjectives and a few 
nouns. Thus, they sometimes change the class of a word. For example: chaḷ (v) – achal (adj), lop (n) – alap (adj), nam (v) – annam (adj), mūl (n) – aṇmūl (adj), chot (n) – sachot (adj)

A suffix generally changes the syntactic class of the word to which it is attached. For 
example: safe (adj) – safety (n), celebrate (v) – celebration (n), beauty (n) – beautify (v). But exceptions are found here too. Suffixes may have no effect on the word class: 
king – kingdom, fellow – fellowship, prince – princess (noun pairs); kind – kindly, 
economic – economical (adjective pairs). In Gujarati, stem-enlarging suffixes do not 
change the word-class. For example: vhāluN (dear) – vhālakaḍuN, nānuN (small) – nānkuN

The derivational suffixes have meaning and often indicate specific parts of speech. 
The change of the syntactic class brought by suffixes is sometimes predictable. For 
example:

English:
- -ly transforms adjectives to adverbs: slow → slowly
- -ize and -fy transform adjectives to verbs: rational → rationalize, pure → purify
- -al transforms nouns to adjectives: nation → national
- -able transforms verbs to adjectives: afford → affordable
- -ness transforms adjectives to nouns: bright → brightness

Gujarati:
- -pūrvak transforms nouns to adverbs: sāvdhānī (caution) → sāvdhānīpūrvak
- -n transforms verbs to nouns: pahervuN (wear) → paheraṇ
- -ār transforms verbs to nouns: dhabakvuN (beat) → dhabkār
- -āsh transforms adjectives to nouns: kāḷuN (black) → kāḷāsh
**English Prefixes**
The meanings conveyed by the English prefixes are negation, privation, pejorative, number, location, time, order, attitude and degree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base Form</th>
<th>Final Form</th>
<th>Prefixes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>re-, dis-, over-, un-, mis-, out-, be-, co-, de-, fore-, inter-, pre-, sub-, trans-, under-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>un-, im-/in-/ir-/il-, non-, dis-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gujarati Prefixes**
The meanings conveyed by the Gujarati prefixes are deprivation, negation, privation, inappropriateness, badness. Most of the prefixes have negative connotations. Only \textit{s-} is an exception meaning good or together.

Prefixes are very limited in number. They are only six. They are attached to both verbal and nominal stems. They produce adjectives and a few nouns.

The classification of Gujarati prefixes is given by Desai (\textit{Vyakaranvimarsh} 314):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Adjective Forming</th>
<th>\textit{a-}, \textit{aṅ-}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Noun Forming</td>
<td>\textit{a-}, \textit{aṅ-}, \textit{s-}, \textit{k-}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Adjective Forming</td>
<td>\textit{a-}, \textit{aṅ-}, \textit{k-}, \textit{n-}, \textit{vaṅ-}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are a few stems in Gujarati which belong to both verbal and nominal group. When prefix is attached to them, the meaning of a newly created word helps decide whether the stem is a verbal one or a nominal one. For example: \textit{athāk} (untiring) – \textit{thāke} \textit{nahīN evuN} (verbal) / \textit{thāk} \textit{vagarnuN} (nominal); \textit{amāp} (immeasurable) – \textit{mapāy} \textit{nahīN evuN} (verbal) / \textit{māp} \textit{vagarnuN} (nominal)

When prefixes are attached to verbal stems producing adjectives, sometimes they indicate past actions and some other times they indicate present actions. For example: \textit{aḍag} (\textit{ḍage} \textit{nahīN tevuN}) (determined) indicates present tense whereas \textit{abhaṇ} (\textit{bhanya}
vagarnuN) (illiterate) indicates past tense/time. Present tense indication is more frequent than the past one.

**Derivational Suffixes**

**Classification of English Derivational Suffixes**

This can be attempted in various ways. Only a few of them are mentioned here. The following is the classification based on the one given in *The Structure of Modern English* (BAOU 21):

1. **Suffixes forming Nouns**
   - Denominal: attached to noun stems
   - Deadjectival: attached to adjective stems
   - Deverbal: attached to verb stems

2. **Suffixes forming Adjectives**
   - Denominal: attached to noun stems
   - Deadjectival: attached to adjective stems
   - Deverbal: attached to verb stems

3. **Suffixes forming words which can occur either as Nouns or as Adjectives**
   - Denominal: attached to noun stems
   - Deadjectival: attached to adjective stems

4. **Suffixes forming Verbs**
   - Denominal: attached to noun stems
   - Deadjectival: attached to adjective stems

5. **Suffixes forming Adverbs**
   - Denominal: attached to noun stems
   - Deadjectival: attached to adjective stems
Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base Form</th>
<th>Final Form</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>-ment, -ion/-tion, -ation, -ication, -ition, -ution, -sion, -ssion, -ant, -ent, -ant, -ent, -ance, -ence, -ism, -ysis, -al, -age, -ry, -ery, -ure, -acy, -er, -ar, -or, -ant, -ist, -yst, -ing, -ee, -and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>-ness, -ity, -ion, -acy, -ery, -ry, -ment, -ism, -ance, -ancy, -ence, -ency, -escence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>able, -ible, -ous, -ive, -ory, -al, -ant, -ent, -some, -f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>-y, -ly, -ish, -ous, -ic, -ics, -ical, -ary, -ar, -ful, -less, -al, -ial, -eal, -ate, -ine, -ian, -ean, -ese, -en, -esque, -able, -ible, -ose, -iac</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>-en (or -n), -ify (or fy), -ise (or ize) and -ate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>Suffix -en or prefix en-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Classification of Gujarati Derivational Suffixes

This classification is given by Desai (Vyakranvimarsh 316 and 323):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Base Form</th>
<th>Final Form</th>
<th>Action/Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Attached to Verbs</td>
<td>Noun Forming</td>
<td>Noun Forming</td>
<td>Action/Result</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>-ø, gender suffixes, - nylon, -år, -ålf, - t, -äd, -k, -tar, - t, -åsh</td>
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<td>Instrument</td>
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<td>-ø, gender suffixes, - nylon, - d, - iy</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attached to Verbs</td>
<td>Adjective Forming</td>
<td>Noun Forming</td>
<td>Action/Result</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-ø, gender suffixes, - når, - u, - ny, - kan, - au, - är</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Attached to Nouns</td>
<td>Noun Forming</td>
<td>Noun Forming</td>
<td>Action/Result</td>
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<td>Abstract Noun</td>
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<td>-ø, gender suffixes, - af, - vañ, - aï</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Relational Noun</td>
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<td>- iy, - är, - hår, - gar</td>
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<td>Instrumental Noun</td>
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<td>- iy,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Attached to Adjectives</td>
<td>Adjective Forming</td>
<td>Noun Forming</td>
<td>Action/Result</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Attached to the stems except numerals</td>
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<tr>
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<td>- ø, - aï, - åsh, - p, - pañ, - añ, - m, - vañ</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Attached to the numeral stems</td>
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<td>- ø, - s, - sh, - k</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Attached to Adjectives</td>
<td>Adjective Forming</td>
<td>Noun Forming</td>
<td>Action/Result</td>
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<td>Attached to the stems except numerals</td>
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<td>- er</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Attached to the numeral stems</td>
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<td>- m, - gañ, - vad</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attached to Pronouns</td>
<td>Adjective Forming</td>
<td>Noun Forming</td>
<td>Action/Result</td>
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<td>Attached to the stems except numerals</td>
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<td>- tal, - v, - vad, - ik</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Attached to the numeral stems</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- m, - å, - är, - hiN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Noun-forming Suffixes

Nouns can be identified sometimes through the suffixes they take:

English:

- **-ness**: richness, fairness, usefulness, darkness, boldness
-ity: accountability, prosperity, majority, curiosity, superiority
-tion/sion: addition, supervision, deletion, creation, revision
-ment: fulfillment, refreshment, basement, enlightenment, placement
-ance/ence: condolence, dependence, significance, entrance, governance
-ship: comradeship, kinship, companionship, apprenticeship, internship
-hood: boyhood, parenthood, brotherhood, manhood, babyhood
-age: package, carriage, linkage, bandage, shortage
-ism: Hinduism, castism, heroism, favouritism, Buddhism
-or: dictator, conductor, creator
-tude: similitude, solicitude, servitude
-ist: motorist, artist, activist

There are exceptions: assuage, disparage, augment, lament, worship can be verbs.

Gujarati: Some of these suffixes also take gender-markers.

Unmarked:
-vaṭ: ṭāvaṭ, jamāvaṭ, chhaṇāvaṭ (analysis), banāvaṭ (treachery), sajāvaṭ (decoration)
-i: praharī, telī (oil-trader), vepārī (trader)
-tā: bhavyatā (splendor), namratā (modesty), kushalatā (skillfulness)
-tar: jaḍtar, paraṇetar, ghaḍtar (moulding), jīvtar (life), bhaṇtar (education), vaḷtar (compensation)
-āsh: bolāsh, vaprāsh (usage), ratāsh (redness)

Marked:
-ār: vartāro (prediction), mūNzāro (perplexity), dhrujārī (shivering), lavārī (vain talk)
-n: samjan (understanding), bhalāman (recommendation), āNjan, kāNtan, kamānī (income), kelvani (nurturing), ūNknuN, ūNpānuN
-āt: ushkerāt (excitement), ghughvāt, pamrāt, maghmaghāt, vasvāt, ghughvātō, uakḷāṭo (rage)
-āī: kamāī (income), jogvāī (provision), ghaḍāī (making), sudhrāī, silāī (stitching)
• -t: āvdat (skill), kahevat (proverb), bachat (savings), bharat (embroidery), chaḍtī (success), bhartī (tide), samjūtī (agreement)
• -k: āvak (earnings), jāvak (debit), beṭhak (seat), kūdko (jump), ghasarko (scratch), sūzko, chhūṭko

Many nouns take the adjective-forming suffixes. For example:

English:
• -y: cream – creamy, lusty – lusty, thirst – thirsty, juice – juicy, ice – icy, oil – oily
• -like: child – childlike, man – manlike
• -ous: religion – religious, study – studious, harmony – harmonious, adventure – adventurous
• -ful: duty – dutiful, harm – harmful, success – successful
• -able/-ible: envy – enviable, love - lovable
• -al: mathematics – mathematical, function – functional
• -ful: beauty – beautiful, help – helpful
• -ic: art – artistic, history – historic
• -ive: intuition - intuitive, attraction – attractive
• -less: sleeve – sleeveless, ground – groundless

Gujarati:
• -īy: rāṣṭrīy (national), prāNīy (provincial), jātīy (sexual), eksūtrīy
• -īk: nāmik (nominal), dhārmik (religious), sāmājik (social)
• -ī: shaherī (urban), prabhāvī (influential)
• -ū: grāmīn (rural)
• -āu: ṭakāu (durable), vechāu (for sale), kamāu (earing)

Many nouns can accept the verb-forming suffixes. For example:

English:
• -fy: example – exemplify, note – notify, glory – glorify
• -ise: drama – dramatise, system – systematise
• -en: strength – strengthen, length – lengthen, mistake – mistaken
In Gujarati, verbs cannot be created using derivational suffixes in the way they are formed in English.

**Inflectional Suffixes Related to Derivation**

The comparative degree suffix -er is an inflectional suffix. But it can also be used as a derivational suffix. It creates new words instead of giving a different form of the same words. For example: teach (v) – teacher (n), sing (v) – singer (n), wipe (v) – wiper (n)

The same is true for the suffixes -ed/en and -ing. They are verb suffixes. But when they are used to create past and present participles, they become derivational suffixes as participles can be used as nouns and adjectives. For example: write – writing, dry – dried

In Gujarati, the gender suffixes are inflectional suffixes. But when used as diminutives they are derivational suffixes. For example: pāghḍī (f) – pāghḍo (m) (turban)

**Multiple Affixations**

Reattaching the same morpheme again and again is permitted, but unusual. For example: great great great great grandson. What is common is multiple affixations of different affixes. For example: nation / nation-al / national-ise / denationalis-at-ion / anti-denationalisation / pre-antidenationalisation. Where several prefixes or suffixes occur in a word, their place in the sequence is normally rigidly fixed.

Gujarati examples: *be-fikar-āī* (carelessness), *a-safał-tā* (failure), *rāṣṭr-īy-tā* (nationality)

**Conversion (Zero Derivation)**

Both the languages allow the change in the part of speech of a word without any change of form. As a result, identical forms belonging to different parts of speech are found. This is called conversion. In other words, conversion is a derivational relationship between two words of different parts of speech but without any formal marking of the difference.
It is a word-formation process in which no change of form takes place. Unlike other such processes, this process does not trigger any modification in the form of the word. Transformation of part of speech without any corresponding formal change is also called 'functional shift' or 'zero derivation'. For example:

Verb → Noun: to alert – alert, to call – call, to cover – cover, to experience – experience, to feel – feel, to hope – hope, to visit – visit

Noun → Verb: bottle – to bottle, can – to can, email – to email, Google – to google, host – to host, name – to name, shape – to shape

Adjective → Verb: green → to green

In Gujarati, conversion does not work in the same manner as it does in English. Here, only verb to noun conversion is found. For example:

Unmarked Nouns:
- Masculine – ughād, upād, chāl, nāch (dance), rop (plant), val (bend), uchher (rearing), banāv (incident)
- Feminine – chāl, upaj (produce), olakh (identity), chamak (shining), jīt (victory), chhāp (print), țahel (stroll), shodh (invention)
- Neuter – khamaṇ, chhīṇ, māp (measure), reṇ, víNdḥ (pierce)

Marked Nouns:
- Masculine – umero (addition), ātho (fermentation), chhūNdo, ṭahuko, fāko, ropo (plant), sudhāro (improvement), utāro (boarding), vadhāro (increase)
- Feminine – āNī, chūrī, chūmī (kiss), joḍī (pair), zāNkhī (glimpse), bolī (dilect)
- Neuter – teđuN, pārkhuN, chhāpuN (news paper), joḍuN (couple), notruN (invitation)

The peculiarity of the conversion in Gujarati is that the verb forms used as nouns are all imperatives.

**Cranberry Morphemes**

This is the peculiarity of English word-formation. The complex words can also be formed by combining two bound morphemes. These morphemes are attached to each other and create new words. They do not have a meaning of their own. They are
called cranberry morphemes. For example: ceive – perceive, receive, conceive, deceive; mit – submit, permit, remit, omit; duce – reduce, deduce, produce; sanct – sanctify, sanctum, sanctuary, sanctity; tox – toxic, toxicology, intoxicate, detoxify

**Gujarati Stem-enlarging Suffixes**

This is one of the major peculiarities of Gujarati language. These suffixes are attached to noun and adjective stems. They do not change the class of the word to which attached. They create forms which may be gendered or may not be gendered. Their function is different from the other nominal suffixes.

According to Bhayani, these are called the stem-enlarging suffixes as they extend the stem. Traditionally, they were called diminutives. They are mainly used to express
negative feelings like smallness, inferiority, triviality, hatred, neglect, pettiness, lowliness, meanness and positive feelings like love, fondness, tenderness, sweetness, empathy etc.

Gujarati has many stem-enlarging suffixes. A few of them are considered to be central ones. The rest of them are the extended forms of the main ones with addition of a vowel or vowel + consonant. Even after this, some suffixes take a linking vowel + -īy- suffix.

Many stems accept more than one stem-enlarging suffix. They are called double stem-enlarging suffixes. For example: āNkhalḍī (eye), sāchakuN (true), daḍuliyo (ball), nānakaḍuN (small)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Central Suffix</th>
<th>First Enlarging Suffix</th>
<th>Second Enlarging Suffix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender-suffixes</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ū</td>
<td>-v-</td>
<td>-ūḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-k-</td>
<td>-kudi Railway-</td>
<td>-kudi Railway-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-k-</td>
<td>-kudi Railway-</td>
<td>-kudi Railway-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-kḥ-</td>
<td>-kudi Railway-</td>
<td>-kudi Railway-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ṭ-</td>
<td>-ṭ-</td>
<td>-ṭ-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-l-</td>
<td>-l-</td>
<td>-l-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-l-</td>
<td>-l-</td>
<td>-l-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-l-</td>
<td>-l-</td>
<td>-l-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“... ઘણુાંખરુાં આ પ્રકિયાનો કાવ્યભાષામાં તથા લાભલત્યનો સાથ વયેક કરવા માટે ઉપયોગ થાય છે... આ અંગવિવસ્તારક પ્રત્યયો વ્યક્તિવાચક સંહા (proper nouns)ના પણ લાગાવવામાં આવે છે.” (Desai, Vyakaranvimarsh 333) These kind of suffixes are used in poetic language to create beauty. They can be attached to proper nouns also. For example: lāliyo, māṅkī, zamkuḍī, kānudo

No such suffixes are found in English. A few diminutives indicating smaller size are -let and -kin. For example: book – booklet, man – mannkin

*Parsarg* (પરસાર્ગ)

In Gujarati, there are some bound morphemes which are not affixes. They are not attached to the root. Instead, they are attached to the stem i.e., to the oblique form of the root. For example: karvāvāḷī, vaḍilpanuN, ghelāvedā

Desai notes about the *parsarg*:

َا آંશી પૂણ શબ્દઘટકો અને પ્રત્યયોની વયોજ આવતા આવતા
અંશી છે. શબ્દઘટકની જેમ તેના બાજુએ - આગળ
અને પાછળ વિવિધ વયોજ આવી રહે છે અને પ્રત્યયની જેમ તે
હક્ક દ્વારા શક્તકારક છે. શબ્દઘટકની જેમ મુક્ત દ્વારા નથી
છતા તેનું પ્રકાર પ્રત્યયના જેવું છે. આવા અંશોને પરસાર્ગ
ક્રમ છે. વ્યાਪકતાની પ્રથમે વિવિધતા તો પ્રત્યયો
ગણાતર અંશોને જ લાગાઈ શકાય. જ્યારે પરસાર્ગો તે તે

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They occur between the word and the suffixes. They are bound morphemes and function like affixes. Unlike affixes, they can be attached to almost all the forms of a class. They do not form an indivisible unit as the affixes do. They are attached to nouns or adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base Form</th>
<th>Final Form</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Abstract Noun</td>
<td>-paṇuN, -vedā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agentive</td>
<td>-vāḷ-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>-vāḷ-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Abstract Noun</td>
<td>-paṇuN, -vedā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>-gaṇ-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

-paṇuN and -vedā do not take gender-markers but they accept the oblique case-marker and then the other case-suffixes. -vāḷ- and -gaṇ- take both gender and case-markers.

**Reduplication**

Reduplication is a morphological process in which the root or stem of a word or part of it is repeated exactly or with a minor change. It is used to show plurality, distribution, repetition, customary activity, increase of size, added intensity, continuance etc. It is found in many languages, though its level of linguistic productivity varies from language to language.

It is a special kind of compounding. This is a process of repeating a syllable or the word as a whole (sometimes with a vowel change) and putting it together to form a new word. For example: bye-bye (exact reduplication), super-duper (rhyming reduplication) or chitchat (ablaut reduplication).
The exact reduplication creates a kind of rhyming word generally used in baby-talk or conversation by/with children evoking a sense of playfulness. It is usually used to sound casual.

Reduplication is the standard term for this phenomenon in the linguistics literature. Other terms that are occasionally used include 'cloning', 'doubling', 'duplication' and 'repetition'. They are also called 'rhyming compounds'.

**Form**

Reduplication can be phonologically described in two different ways: (1) as reduplicated segments in the form of consonants and vowels sequences and (2) as reduplicated prosodic units in the form of syllables. Besides, reduplication also needs to be described morphologically as a repetition of linguistic constituents – words, stems or roots. Reduplication may be initial, final or internal. Internal reduplication is much less common than the initial and final types.

Reduplicative words can be 'true' or 'quasi'. In true reduplicative words, both words are actually real words and have meaning in the language in which it is used. In quasi reduplicative words, at least one of the words does not have a meaning. For example: true – hartuNfartuN; quasi – adkodadko, achkomachko

**Full and Partial Reduplication**

When the entire word is reduplicated, it is called full reduplication. Reciprocal forms are derived from reflexive forms by total reduplication. When only a part of a word is repeated, it is called partial reduplication.

**English Reduplicatives**

There are words that are formally very similar to rhyming compounds, but are not quite compounds in English because the second element is not really a word – it is just a nonsense item added to a root word to form a rhyme. Examples: higgledy-piggledy, tootsie-wootsie
This formation process is associated in English with child talk (and talk addressed to children), technically called hypocoristic language. Examples: bunnie-wunnie, Henny Penny, snuggly-wuggly, Georgie Porgie, Piggie-Wiggle

Another word type that looks a bit like rhyming compounds comprises words that are formed of two elements that almost match, but differ in their vowels. Again, the second element is typically a nonsense form: pitter-patter, zigzag, tick-tock, riffraff, flipflop (*Words in English Public Website*)

English uses reduplication mostly for informal vocabulary. Most of the English reduplicatives are rhyming compounds. They are used to imitate sounds (tick-tock bow-wow), to suggest alternating movements (dingdong, zig-zag, ping-pong), to intensify the meaning of the word (teeny-weeny, hush-hash). They are also used to suggest indecision (dilly-dally), useless talk (little-tattle), nonsense (hocus-pocus), lack of substance (wishy-washy) etc.
English reduplicatives are found in the following varieties:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reduplicatives</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phonological</td>
<td>Morphemes/words</td>
<td>Exact Reduplicatives</td>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>Denote sounds, continuation, monotonous repetition</td>
<td>thump-thump, tick-tick, clump-clump, quack-quack, clunk-clunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes</td>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>Pejorative, contemptuous</td>
<td></td>
<td>goody-goody, pretty-pretty, hush-hush</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reduplicatives</td>
<td>Both Meaningful words</td>
<td></td>
<td>Black-Jack, Brain-drain</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>One meaningful word</td>
<td></td>
<td>hanky-panky, numbo-jumbo, nitty-gritty, walkie-talkie, wishy-washy, razzle-dazzle, teenie-weenie</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No meaningful word</td>
<td></td>
<td>roly-poly, harum-scarum, helter-skelter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablaut</td>
<td>movements</td>
<td>Movement, activity</td>
<td></td>
<td>dilly-dally, ping-pong, pitter-patter, seesaw, riff-raff, criss-cross, flip-flap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ablaut reduplicatives are formed by changing internal vowels. It must be noticed that almost all of these ablaut reduplications use the vowel 'i' in the first part of the reduplication and either 'a' or 'o' in the second part. The ablaut reduplication is used to denote motion.

There is another form of reduplication called shm-reduplication. It is used as a deprecative. For example: baby-shmaby, cancer-schmancer, fancy-schmancy. "An interesting fraction of reduplication is the shm-reduplication, where shm- (or sometimes schm-), originating from the Yiddish, is added to the beginning of the target word, e.g. "Oedipus, Schmoedipus" (Peters 2010). Shm-reduplication is used to indicate mockery or irony and is also used as a diminisher." (Wagner 5)
None of the above types of reduplication are productive. The sets mentioned above as examples are fairly fixed and new forms are not easily accepted.

**Gujarati Reduplicatives**

In Gujarati, reduplication is a very productive process of word formation. Gujarati reduplicatives can also be considered as a variety of *samas*. "કૃષ્ણમાણે પુનરાવતનની પ્રક્રયા છે, જેમાં મૂળ પાયાના ઉપનું કે તેના અંશનું પુનરાવતન થતું હોય છે. જે કૃપશાલી, કોશગત, વાક્યાંશના, વાક્યના ... એમ અનેક સ્તરે દેખાતી પ્રક્રયા છે."

(Desai, *Rupshastra* 242) Reduplication is the process of repetition in which the whole word or a part of it gets repeated. It can be seen at morphological or lexical level. It can also be seen at phrase or clause level. For example:

**Words** – *gharghar, jyāNtyāN, shākbāk*

**Phrases** – *huN manmāN ne manmāN mūNzāyo. vāt vātne ñhekāne rahī.*

Taylor comments on the nature of reduplicatives:

In order to express intensity of meaning, a compound word may be formed by the repetition of a verbal stem (often onomatopoetic), or of a word. For example: balbaḍ (murmurs, mutterings); kachkach (tittle-tattle, wrangling); doḍādoḍī (hurried running about).

A word may be made to chime with itself, the compound jingle serving to express a class of objects. For example: sāmānbāmān (furniture in general, things); ramatgamat (playing and trifling); adlābadlī (an exchange); āgtāsvāgtā (hospitality); arasparas (reciprocally). (114)

**Functions of Reduplicatives**

- Reduplication is used to form plurals. – *gādegāḍāN, tolețolāN*
- It extends, modifies or intensifies the meaning of a word. – *adoād, bhavobhav*
- It conveys emphasis and exaggeration. – garamāgaram, rātorāt
- It shows re-occurrence or continuation of the action. – vāNchvāNch, lakhir
- It is used to increase the force of a verb. – doḍādoḍ, ūbhāūbh
- It is often used to mean etcetera. – shākbāk, kāgalbāgal
- It indicates reciprocity. – adlābadli, lenādenī
- It increases or decreases the intensity of an adjective. – lāllāl, kāluNgheluN
- It is used to mark diminution or decrease. – achrokachro
- It shows 'each-ness'. – gāmegām, mānasmsānas
- It indicates 'whole-ness'. – khūnekhuNe, pānepānuN
- It suggests meaning duplication. – bhetsogād, kachropāNjo
- It is often used as a literary device like alliteration in poetry and other compositions.

**Classification of Reduplicatives**

There may be complete reduplication or partial reduplication. In complete reduplication, the whole word is repeated. For example: therther, pāNchpāNch. In partial reduplication, a part of the first element dropped. For example: āṭātuN, tevêtuN. Sometimes, connective forms are inserted between the two elements of reduplicatives. For example: pūchhāpūchh (a), deshedesh (e), kānkān (o), doḍaMdoḍ (aM)
### Reduplicatives (Structural)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Repetitive</th>
<th>Complete Reduplication</th>
<th>With Connectives</th>
<th>Without Connectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-ā-</td>
<td></td>
<td>kādākād, chhedāchhed, sāmāsāmi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-e-</td>
<td></td>
<td>chhadechhaduN, pūrepūruN, kharekhar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-o-</td>
<td></td>
<td>aqload, bhavobhav, chhalochehal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-aM/aN-</td>
<td></td>
<td>parMparā, vārMvār, khullMkhullā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>vidhvidh, chakchak, bolbol</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Repetitive</th>
<th>Partial Reduplication</th>
<th>With Connectives</th>
<th>Without Connectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-aM/aN-</td>
<td>bhūlbhūlaṇā, laglagāṭ, babdāṭ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>chhaNchheduN, khaNkhervuN, dhaNgholvuN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Rhyming

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reduplicatives (Structural)</th>
<th>Both Constituents Meaningful</th>
<th>Without Connectives</th>
<th>With Connectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tanman, avar javar, kāluNgheluN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reduplicatives (Structural)</th>
<th>One Constituent Meaningful (One Constituent Echoing)</th>
<th>Without Connectives</th>
<th>With Connectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>lagbhag, gapsap, adalbadal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-ā-</td>
<td>adābī, adābādī, kapākāpī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-o-</td>
<td>dāṇodāṇī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reduplicatives (Structural)</th>
<th>Onomatopoeic</th>
<th>Without Connectives</th>
<th>With Connectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Complete Reduplication</td>
<td></td>
<td>kilkī, khadkhadāt, sūrsūriyuN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial Reduplication</td>
<td></td>
<td>kalbal, zarmar, rumzum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-ā-</td>
<td>zapāzap, chasāchas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-aM/aN-</td>
<td>dhadaMdhadā, tadaMtaḍā</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-o-</td>
<td>khīchokhīch, chapochap, ṭapoṭap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some reduplicatives are rhyming words. Both the constituents of such reduplicatives can be meaningful. Or, one of them is just an echo of the other having no meaning of its own. For example:

- Both constituents are meaningful: *chadāpādī, lenādenī, harfar*
- One constituent is meaningful: *chupchāp, dhāNkodhāMbo, hoshkosh, thāthmāth*

Various parts of speech can be reduplicated. For example:

- Noun – *galīegalī, gherger*
In this special section, onomatopoeic words are found. They include words indicating the sensual experience got through ears, eyes, nose, tongue and skin. For example: sarsar, kalbalāṭ, zagmag, tamtam, galgaliyāN. These words are peculiar in usage. A single element of these words cannot stand independently as they do not have any meaning. They become meaningful only when they are used in duplication. For example: zalhaḷ is a reduplicative but zal and haḷ are meaningless.

Reduplicatives can be formed by using symonymous words. Some such reduplicatives are formed using one or both loan words. And some others are formed using two native words. They look more like samas than reduplicatives. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reduplicatives (Meaning)</th>
<th>Types</th>
<th>First Word</th>
<th>Second Word</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Synonyms of two different languages</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>Hindi</td>
<td>pāNuroṭī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>silmahor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hindi</td>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>khetamāśho, bhāibaNdh-dostār</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>Sanskrit</td>
<td>fikarchiNṭā, kāgalpatra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sanskrit</td>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>lājsharam, dhandolat, mānmaratabo, jīvjān, tanbadan, dukhdard, nāmnishān</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Synonyms of the same language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>kāmkāj, jīvaNṭu, bālbachchāN, pālanposhaṇ, raNgrāg, gharbār, pūjāpāṭh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"शब्द घडतरी प्रक्रियाओं देखते ही सबसे दृष्टिगत अनुमति दिने उन समासोजोणांसह संयोजनांसह एक प्रकार गळाया, अलावा, संस्कृततंत्र स्तंभाओं आगि विशेषता से तीव्र इस समासोजोणाली जुडी पडे हे." (Desai, Rupshastra 158) If considered as a process of word-formation, reduplication is a type of samas. But it is different from samas due to its repetitive structure.
Minor Word-formation Processes

Transfer of Personal, Place or Product Names

With the passage of time, names of people, places or things may become generalized vocabulary items. The name of a product is extended from a specific reference to a more general one. Here, the proper nouns are commonly used for an idea it is associated with. The names of persons or places used to label some particular things are also called eponyms. For example: sandwich, jeans, watt, fahrenheit, hertz, volt, celsius, denim, diesel, mackintosh

Coinage is the invention of totally new words. The typical process of coinage usually involves the extension of a product name from a specific reference to a more general one. For example, think of Kleenex, Xerox, and Kodak. These started as names of specific products, but now they are used as the generic names for different brands of these types of products. (Yousefi)

Often the trademark names are adopted by the masses and used as everyday words. For example: chemical or technical term like 'Aspirin' (acetylsalicylic acid) is adopted as the trademark term and it often replaces standard term like 'painkillers'. ‘Colgate’, though the name of a particular brand, is used for any toothpaste.

Creative Respelling

Sometimes words are formed by simply changing the spelling of a word that the speaker wants to relate to the new word. Product names often involve creative respelling, such as Mr. Kleen or Krunch.

Imitation of Sounds / Onomatopoeia

Onomatopoeia is the process of transforming sounds into words. It depicts the sound associated with what is named. It is the formation of a word imitating the sound of the thing or action which it signifies. Such a process is also known as 'Echoism'. Such words look like the sound when pronounced. For example: bow-vow, mew, ticktack, hiss, chirp, murmur, trickle, boo, chirp, click, meow, splash. Onomatopoeic words
like 'bang' or 'boom' are often used in comic books to let the reader know what kind of sound is associated with the action.

In Gujarati, onomatopoeia and reduplicatives overlap heavily. For examples: *rumzum, khakhaḍāṭ, salvaḷāṭ, khilkhilāṭ, hoNchī-hoNchī, chūN-chūN*

**Novel Creation or Creative Coinage**

It is the creation of new words without reference to the existing morphological resources of the language. In novel creation, a speaker or writer forms a word without reusing any existing words. Once in a while, a word is created instinctively out of the creative play of pure imagination. This is a very rare and uncommon method to create new words. The only easily available example is ‘googol’ meaning 10100. In some cases, the meaning of these words is broadened. For example: 'to google' means not always 'to use google to find something on the internet' but to 'search the internet'.

Some other examples of such creative coinages are *boondoggle (work of little or no value done merely to look busy), blimp (any elderly pompous reactionary ultranationalistic person), bling (flashy, ostentatious jewellery), slang (informal language consisting of words and expressions that are not considered appropriate for formal occasions)*. But most such inventive brand-new words do not gain sufficiently widespread use to gain dictionary entry unless their coiner is well known enough so his or her writings are read, quoted and imitated.

In Gujarati, efforts are made to coin new words form Sanskrit and English. Narmad, Navalram and Kalelkar have given competent equivalents for some English words. Kothari notes:

> લાભ જેમ પરભાષામાંથી શબ્દો લે છે તેમ જરૂર પડશે નવા શબ્દો પણ ઘડે છે. નવા શબ્દો ઘડવાના પ્રથમ પછુ ગુજરાતિમાં ધરા છે, જે તે અંદરૂની સંસ્કૃતકી સહાય ધરાવી મોટી તે... નમેડ - નવલારભ્ય માડીને કહ્યુ
Gujarati creative writers have coined a lot of new words in order to bring some English concepts into their mother tongue. Some of them are mānavvaNshshāstra (anthropology), samājshāstra (sociology), sauNdaryashāstra (aesthetics), stridākshiṇya (chivalry), navalkathā (novel), navalikā (short story), vāsarikā (diary), vishvakosh (encyclopaedia), saNgūkāvyā/ārmikāvyā (lyric), saNgūṭak (opera), karunprashasti (elegy), vīraskāvyā (epic), akhaNd padya (blank verse), taraNg (fancy), kāḷvyutkram (anachronism), ruppradhān/sauṣṭhaypriya (classical), raNgpradhān/kautukpriya (romantic), ātmalakṣī (subjective), parlakṣī (objective), kalpan (imagery), pratirup (prototype) etc.

**Calque / Loan Translation**

Loan-translation or calque is a phrase that is introduced into a language through translation. In French, 'calque' means 'copy', from 'calquer' (to trace by rubbing).

Calque is a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word or root-for-root translation. In this, the meaning or idiom is lent rather than a lexical item. The word 'loanword' is itself a calque of the German 'Lehnwort'. The stems are literally translated and then put back together; the meaning is the same as in the loan word. Other such example is the word 'telephone'. It is a Greek word for 'far talk'. It is translated as 'durbhāṣh' in Gujarati.

There are many examples in English of common phrases that are calques, translated from other languages. For example: ‘An Adam's apple’ is a calque of the French ‘pomme d'Adam’ and ‘beer garden’ is a calque of the German ‘Biergarten’. In both cases, the English phrases came from a direct, literal translation of the original.
A sub-category of calquing is the semantic loan. It is the extension of the meaning of a word to include new, foreign meanings. For example: skyscraper (English) – *gaganchuMbi* (Gujarati)

Calques from Indian local languages: *dining-leaf* (a banana leaf used to serve food), *cousin brother* (a male cousin), *cousin sister* (a female cousin).

**Multiple Processes**
Sometimes the creation of a particular word involves more than one process. For example: telephone – phone (clipping) – to phone (conversion), teleprinter exchange (compounding) – telex (blending)

The above mentioned word formation processes are the most frequent or important in the English language, but it is rarely the case that only one process occurs in one word. Words can be loaned and then back formed, later on gaining an affix. There are practically no boundaries to those processes other than human ingenuity.

Apart from the words created by these word-formation processes, new words are found in different dialects of a language. Again, there are different styles or registers (such as contractions) depending on the context. Slang is also used in informal communication. Jargon refers to the unique vocabulary pertaining to a certain area. Words or expressions referring to certain acts that are forbidden or frowned upon are considered taboo. These taboo words produce euphemisms, words or phrases that replace the expressions that are being avoided. The use of words may indicate the attitude of a society toward sex, bodily functions or religious beliefs. They may also reflect racism or sexism in a society. Language itself is not racist or sexist, but the society may be. Such insulting words may reinforce biased views. Changes in society may be reflected in the changes in language.

**A peculiar Feature of English Nouns: the ‘-nyms’**
In English, various -nyms are found. They are given distinct names to differentiate them from each other as all of them display meanings in different ways. In Gujarati also, such words are found but they are not given different names. All of the following -nyms are closely related to nouns.
1) **Antonyms**: They are the words opposite in meaning.  
Complementary pairs: day × night, light × dark, alive × dead  
Gujarati examples: divas × rāt, zāňkhun × gheruN, jīvaNt × mrut  
Gradable pairs: long × short, fat × thin, big × small  
Gujarati examples: lāMbuN × tūNkuN, jāduN × pāṭluN, moṭuN × nānuN

2) **Capitonyms**: They are the words with identical spellings except for a difference in the capitalization but different meanings. Capitonyms may have identical or different pronunciations.  
For example: 
Mercury (noun) – a planet; mercury (noun) – a chemical element  
Polish (adjective) – originating from Poland; polish (verb) – to shine, to make shiny  
As there is no provision for capitalization in Gujarati, no such words are found.

3) **Eponyms**: They are generally the names of persons used to denote a place, thing, institution or concept. In science and technology, discoveries and innovations are often named after the discoverer. For example: diesel (Rudolf Diesel), Parkinson's disease (James Parkinson), Sandwich (John Montagu, Fourth Earl of Sandwich), pasteurization (the French chemist), quixotic (the hero of Cervantes' great romance Don Quixote), amp and ampere (from André Marie Ampère)  
These words are used in Gujarati in the same form.

4) **Homographs**: These are the words having same spelling but different pronunciations, meanings and origins. For example: bow, minute, wind, tear, wound  
Gujarati examples: gol, bol, chorī, kosh (difference of open and closed vowel)

5) **Homonyms**: These are the words having same spelling and same pronunciation but different meanings.  
The meanings have nothing in common or no semantic connection. They are identical in sound but different in sense. For example: bank, kite, bat, band, current, fine, ground, mean  
Gujarati examples: karōḍ, khāṯar, ghā, chāṭ, jarā, jān, tīr, toḍ, daṟ, bhāṯ, mojuN, rāg, lākh, vār, haraṉ
6) **Homophones:** These are the words having the same pronunciation but different spellings and different meanings. For example: red – read, right – write, ate – eight, fair – fare, loan – lone, sail – sale, mask – masque, pain – pane, road – rode, site – cite – sight, buy – bye – by, to – too

No such pairs of words can be found in Gujarati.

7) **Hyponyms and Hypernyms:** Hyponyms are used to indicate sets of related words. Hypernyms are more general terms used to indicate more than one word. For example:

Hyponyms – table, chair and bed are hyponyms of the word 'furniture'; fork, knife and spoon are hyponyms of the word 'utensil'

Hypernyms – 'gemstone' is a hypernym for diamond, emerald and ruby

Gujarati examples:

Hyponyms – hīrā, māṇek, pannā are hyponyms of the word 'ratno'; thāḷī, vāṭko, glās, chamchī are hyponyms of the word 'vāsan'

Hypernyms – 'pāgraṇ' is a hypernym for gādlāN, oshīkāN, chādar and ochhāḍ; 'ghareṇāN' is a hypernym for hār, baNgḍī, buṭṭī and viNṭī

A word can be both a hypernym and a hyponym. For example:

Colour (hypernym) – red, blue, purple (hyponyms); purple (hypernym) – violet, lavender (hyponyms)

Creatures (hypernym) – animals, birds, insects (hyponyms); bird (hypernym) – sparrow, parrot (hyponyms)

Gujarati examples: sajīvo (hypernym) – prāṇī, paNkhī, jaNtu (hyponyms); paNkhī (hypernym) – mor, bulbul, chaklī (hyponyms)

Not every group of hyponyms has a hypernym. For example: English does not have a higher-level word that refers exclusively to man and wife. Interestingly, Gujarati does. The word 'daMpatī' encompasses both man and wife. Again, English has a hypernym 'parents' for father and mother. But Gujarati does not have any such word. English word 'child' and Gujarati word 'saNtān' mean a son and/or a daughter.
8) **Metonyms:** They are words used in place of another to convey the same meaning. They are the words used in a transferred sense. Metonymy is a figure of speech which substitutes for the name of a thing the name of an attribute of it or of something closely related. For example: crown (a royal person/monarchy), Washington (American government), dish (an entire plate of food), eyes (sight), sword (military might), the name of a sports team (its individual members).

Gujarati examples: *kalam* (lakhān), *dili* (kendra sarakār), *thāḷī* (vāngīthī bharel thāḷī)

9) **Paronyms:** These are the words derived from different or from the same root. They are derivatives or cognate words. A paronym is a word of one language which translates a word of another with only a difference of termination or other slight change. It is adaptation of a foreign word to native word-types. For example: preface is a paronym of Latin 'prefatio'.

10) **Polysemy:** The meaning of a lexical word is extended in such a way that it can be applied to another idea or object through a slight reinterpretation of the original meaning. The extension of meaning is based on the perception of a certain similarity of shape or function. The multiple meanings are related conceptually. For example: mouth = an opening (bag, cave, bottle, tunnel).

Gujarati example: *mukh* = *modhun* (prānīnuN, boṭalnuN, gufānuN, gharnuN, suraNguN)

11) **Retronym:** They are the words providing new names for something to differentiate the original from more recent forms or versions. Advances in technology are often responsible for retronym coinage. For example: the term 'acoustic guitar' was coined at the advent of 'electric guitars' and 'analog watche's were thus named to distinguish them from 'digital watches'.

The new words coined with the passage of time to name scientific and technological inventions and discoveries are now used in Gujarati in the same form.
12) **Synonyms**: These are the words having the same general sense but different shades of meaning or implications appropriate to different contexts. For example: serpent – snake; ship – vessel; compassion – fellow-feeling – sympathy; enormous – excessive – immense; glad – happy – joyful – joyous


**Some Peculiarities of Gujarati Language and Usage**

1) Homonyms distinguished by gender: These are the nouns spelt alike, but different in gender and meaning. For example: uttar (m/f), kas (m/f), guṇ (m/f), chāl (m/f), bhāt (m/f/n), vās (m/f), hār (m/f), mahī (f/n), bāj (f/n)


3) Some nouns have more than one spelling. For example: sud – sudi, kuṭir – kuṭīr (hut), chāku – chākū (knife), khanij – khanīj (mineral), dosī – dosī (old woman), vinaNti – vinaNtī (request), vetāl- vetāl, sutār – suṭhār (carpenter), shikhaN – shrīkhaN

4) Some pairs of words having long and short vowels differ in meaning. For example: pāṇi – pāṇī, chir – chīr, tāmil – tāmil, rāshi – rāshī, sur – sūr, upahār – upāhār

5) There are many single letter nouns. For example: kho, gho, so, chā, bā, mā, bī, ghī, shrī, gau, sau, huN, jū, hrīM

6) There are some nouns having the same meaning but occurring in specific context. For example: āmaNtraṇ – nimaNtraṇ, ābohavā – vātāvaran, aNt – chheḍo, dhajā – patākā – vāvṭo, hiNdolo – hiNchko, boj – bhār

These types of words are also found in English. For example: border – boundary, climate – weather, campus – premises, earth – land
7) There is a range of words showing various familial and social relationships. For example: bhāī – bhābī, māmā – māmī, kākā – kākī, māsā – māsī, fuā – foī, nānā – nānī, bāpujī – bā, sasārā – sāsu, naṇadoī – naṇaNd etc. The first noun in these pairs refers to the male relative and the second noun refers to the female relative.

8) There are many words which are used as verbs as well as nouns. They have utterly different meanings in both of their usages. For example: pāḍ, sār, gāḷ, bāḷ, vāḷ, chār, ṭhār, tār, upāḍ, bagāḍ, ukel, chod, fod, fāḍ, tod

9) Several sub-standard words are found. They form a part of slangs or dialects. For example: lūlī (tongue), chārsovīs (rogue), chamcho (flatterer), paNtuji.

There are plenty of names for professionals, traders, trees, fruits, flowers, animals, birds, animal habitats, baby animals, vegetables etc. found in both the languages. In Gujarati, thousands of names are found for gods and goddesses.
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