CHAPTER III
DEFINITION OF TERMS

3.0 Introduction

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

3.1. Terms in Phonology

3.1.1. Consonants\textsuperscript{11}: Consonants are sounds made by a closure of narrowing in the vocal tract so that the airflow is completely blocked or so restricted that audible friction is produced. Consonants sounds are described and classified according to five major criteria;

(i) The point of articulation, where the articulators make a stricture in the vocal tract.
(ii) The manner of articulation i.e. how the stricture is made in the vocal tract.
(iii) The articulators; Passive and Active. The active articulator is the one, which move during the production of speech sounds, and the passive articulator is fixed.
(iv) The states of the vocal cords i.e. open or close.
(v) The source of airstream i.e. lungs.

3.1.2. Place of Articulation:

In defining consonantal places or points of articulation, two reference points are involved: the part of the vocal tract that moves (the ‘active articulator’) and the part with which it makes contact (the ‘passive’ articulator). According to Crystal (1987), there are eleven possible places used in speech. Given below are the places of articulation used in the present study:

\textbf{(a) Bilabial:} Both the upper lip and the lower lip are involved in the Articulation of a consonant.

\textsuperscript{11} Mc Mohon (2002).
(b) Alveolar: The blade (or the tip) of the tongue touches with the alveolar ridge.

(c) Palatal: The front of the tongue touches the hard palate.

(d) Velar: The back of the tongue is in contact with the soft palate.

(e) Glottal: The vocal folds come together to cause a closure or friction—a rather different method of articulation from any of the other consonants.

3.1.3 Manner of Articulation:

Crystal (1980) mentions four main kinds of constriction made by the articulators in producing consonants. These are:

(1) Total closure which includes Plosive, Nasal and Affricate.

(2) Intermittent closure which includes Trill and flap.

(3) Partial closure refers to lateral.

(4) Narrowing refers to Fricative.

The different manners of articulation used in the present work are:

(a) Stop or Plosive: A complete closure is made at some point in the vocal tract; the soft palate is raised. Air pressure thus builds up behind the closure, which is then released explosively. The broader category of stop includes closures produced by other airstreams, as well as plosives.

(b) Fricative: Two vocal organs come so close together that the movement of air between them causes audible friction. So fricatives have a sharper sound than others, because of the greater intensity of their high frequencies. These are known as sibilants.

(3) Nasal: Nasal are those consonants in the production of which there is a complete closure of the oral passage while nasal passage remains open so that the air passes freely through the nose. The velum is lowered to allow the air free passage through the nasal cavity.

(4) Lateral: In the production of a lateral, though the centre of the oral tract is closed owing to a contact between the active and the passive articulator at some point in the vocal tract, the air escapes from the sides of the contact. This is possible because the rims of the tongue are lowered. Since the air can pass continuously the produced is a continual one that is, there is no obstruction to the passage of air.
(5) **Trill:** Active articulator taps rapidly against the passive articulator—typically the tongue tip against the alveolar ridge or the tongue back against the uvula. No closure is involved in the production of these sounds. The repeated taps of the tip of the tongue against the teeth or the back of the tongue against uvula result in the intermittent passage of air between the articulators.

(6) **Approximant.** Another kind of manner of articulation is known as approximant or semi-vowel. Approximants are vowel-like in phonetic form but function as consonants.

### 3.1.4. Vowels: According to Crystal (1980), vowels can be defined phonetically as sounds which are articulated without a complete closure in the mouth or a degree of narrowing which would produce audible friction.

To describe vowels adequately and accurately, we then need to consider three different parameters, that is, *height*, *frontness* and *rounding*. Additionally, vowels may be long or short and monophthongs or diphthongs.

1. **The front-back dimension:**
   Mc Mohan (2002) states that front vowels are produced with the front of the tongue raised towards the hard palate. On the other hand, back vowels have the back of the tongue raised towards the soft palate or velum.

   There is also a class of vowels between front and back: these are known as central vowels, and involve a raising of the body of the tongue towards the area where the hard and soft palate joint.

2. **The high-low dimension:**
   High vowels have the tongue raised most towards the roof of the mouth. Low vowels, on the other hand, are those where the tongue is not raising, but rather lowered from its resting position.

   There is a further class intermediate between high and low, namely the mid vowels. These can be further sub-classified as high-mid and low-mid depending on whether they are nearer the high end of the scale, or nearer the low end.

3. **Lips position:**
   Vowels may be either rounded, where the lips are protruded forwards, or unrounded, where the lips may be either in a neutral position, or sometimes slightly spread. However, it is overwhelmingly more common cross-linguistically for back
vowels to be rounded than for front ones, and for high vowels to be rounded than low ones.

3.1.5. Monophthong and Diphthong:

Monophthong refers to a vowel where the quality stays fairly consistent during a production.

Diphthong, on the hand, refers to a vowel where there is a change in quality during the production. They are typically transcribed with one starting point and a quite different end point.

3.1.6. Phoneme

According to Traditional Phonological Theories, phoneme is the minimal unit, which cannot be split into further smaller and simpler units in the sound system of a language.

Napoli (1996) states that single sounds that are distinctively different from other sounds in whatever language we are considering are called Phonemes.

A definition of the phoneme can be approached, by involving the phonological ideas of contrastive function, system, structure, context, parallel distribution, complementary distribution and overlapping distribution. Laver (1994) states that, the paradigmatic and syntagmatic axes of interaction described immediately above furnish the basis for definition, which is presented here in two parts. The first part of the definition focuses on the issue of contrastiveness between one phoneme and another, and the second part on the issue of the contextually distributed nature of the members of a phoneme conceived as a set of sounds.

3.1.7. Allophone:

Allophones are phonetic variants of a phoneme. Speech sounds regularly occurring in a number of different structures and contexts may be classified as members of a given phoneme if their occurrences are in complementary distribution, and if they display sufficient phonetic similarity to make it plausible to class them together as members of a common set.
3.1.8. **Consonant Cluster:**

Consonant cluster is a cluster or sequence of two or more consonants within a syllable.

3.1.9. **Syllable:** According to Crystal (1980) “a syllable is a unit of pronunciation typically larger than a single sound and smaller than a word”.

There are two main approaches to the syllable: a phonetic and a phonological approach. A phonetic approach tries to characterize syllables in terms of articulatory or acoustic events. A phonological approach tries to identify syllables on the basis of the sound patterns attested in the languages of the world.

The syllable is not a mere sequence of sounds but has an internal structure is the view which has been established by Pike and Pike 1947; Hockett 1955; Haugen 1956. All syllables have to have some sounds which function as the peak or nucleus. This peak or nucleus is formed by the most sonorous element in the word and is labelled as syllabic. Thus a syllable such as /kit/- ‘carry’ will be argued to be built around vowel /i/ as syllabic flanked by consonants. The initial consonant (s) preceding the syllabic component forms the constituent called the onset of the syllable. On the other hand, the syllabic and the consonant (s) that follow from a constituent called the rhyme which further contains the peak or nucleus and the coda which constitutes the consonant (s) following the nucleus.

The syllable is represented by the Greek alphabet ‘σ’ sigma. The internal structure of a syllable as put forward by Clements and Keyser in 1983 form the basis of most theories of syllable structure. The structure of syllable is explained in the following diagram of the word /bam/- ‘eat’

```
σ  Syllable
   / \
  /   \
Onset  Rhyme
      / \
     /   \
   Nucleus  Coda
      / \
     /   \
    b    a    m
```
3.2. Terms in Morphology:

3.2.1. Nouns:

Morphologically, nouns are inflected for gender, number and case. They usually follow the prepositions in many languages. Syntactically, however, nouns function as a subject, object or complement of a verb.

Crystal (1980) defines nouns as ‘items which display certain types of inflection such as gender, number and case, have a specific distribution i.e., they may follow prepositions and perform a specific syntactic function i.e., as subject or object of a sentence’.

3.2.2. Gender:

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

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

Hockett(1958:231) defines genders as classes of nouns which are reflected in the behaviour of the associated word. A language may have two or more genders, but the classification frequently corresponds to a real world distinction of sex (logical gender), at least in part, but often too it does not.
3.2.3. **Number:**

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

3.2.4. **Case:**

Case is grammatical category which marks dependent nouns for the type of relationship they bear to their head. According to Crystal (1980) case is defined as ‘A grammatical category used in the analysis of word classes to identify the syntactic relationship between words in a sentence, through such contrasts as Nominative, Accusative, etc.’ He mentions that the traditional classification, such as Latin Grammar is based on variations in the morphological form of a word. For example in Latin -Puella, puellam, puellae and puella is a paradigm of singular case forms of girl. Further, Crystal, states that in languages, like English, which lack morphological variations of this kind, the term ‘case’, as traditionally used does not apply. In English, with the exception of genitive case, all types of case are expressed by using preposition. Different types of case are:

1. **Nominative Case:** The nominative case indicates the subject of a finite verb.
2. **Accusative Case:** The accusative case indicates the direct object of a verb.
3. **Genitive Case:** The genitive case indicates a possessive relationship
4. **Locative Case:** The locative case indicates the location.
5. **Dative Case:** The dative case indicates the indirect object of a verb.
6. **Ablative Case:** The ablative case indicates movement from something or a cause.
7. **Instrumental Case:** The instrumental case indicates an object used in performing an action.
8. **Sociative Case:** The sociative case indicates an association of things or persons.
3.2.5. Pronoun:

Pronouns refer to sets of items which can be used to substitute a noun or a noun phrase. Crystal (1980) mentions seven types of pronouns: personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, reflexive pronouns, indefinite pronouns and relative pronouns. The types of pronouns found in the present work are:

i. **Personal pronoun:** Personal pronouns are words which are used to denote:
   a) the person(s) who speaks (or a group of persons including the person who speaks)[first person]
   b) the person(s) who spoken to[second person] and
   c) other person(s) or thing(s) spoken of[third person].

ii. **Emphatic pronoun:** Emphatic pronouns are words that emphasize.

iii. **Possessive pronoun:** Possessive pronouns are words that show possession.

iv. **Demonstrative pronoun:** Demonstrative pronoun is a word that points to the noun it is used for. Kryk (1990) states that most of the Indo-European languages show a three-way contrast with demonstratives in relation to deictic centre. These are:
   a) Proximate
   b) Medial and
   c) Remote.

v. **Relative pronoun:** Relative pronoun is a word which denotes a noun and also relates two sentences.

vi. **Reflexive pronoun:** Reflexive pronoun, in grammatical description, refers to a construction where the subject and the object relate to the same entity.

vii. **Distributive pronoun:** Distributive pronoun considers the member of the group separately rather than collectively.

vii. **Interrogative pronoun:** Interrogative pronoun is a pronoun used in order to ask question.
3.2.6. **Verbs:**

According to Crystal (1980), ‘The formal definition of a verb refers to an element which can display morphological contrasts of tense, aspect, voice, mood, person and number. Functionally it is the element which, singly or in combination with other verbs, is used as the minimal predicate of a sentence’.

3.2.7. **Tense:**

Hockett (1970) defines tense as ‘a grammatical category showing different location of an event in time’. According to Comrie (1985) ‘tense is grammaticalised expression of location in time’. Time is a universal non-linguistic concept with three divisions, viz., past, present and future. When the verbs in any language, however, make use of certain devices so as to signal a correspondence with the universal concept of time, it is known as the grammatical category of tense. Lyons (1986) defines tense as “a deictic category. The essential characteristics of this category, is that it relates the time of action, events or state of affairs referred to the sentence to the time of utterance.”

3.2.8. **Aspect:**

Shopen (2007:107) characterizes ‘aspect’ as the ‘pattern of distribution of action through time’. He further states that ‘the term ‘action’ as used here applies to a static condition- the continuance of a location or state-as well as to motion or change.

3.2.9. **Mood:**

A term used in descriptive study which refers to set of semantic and semantic contrasts signaled by alternative paradigms of a verb. Following are the different types of moods found in the present study:

a) Ability
b) Necessity
c) Conditionality
d) Obligatory
e) Probability
f) Permissive
g) Imperative
3.2.10. Adjective:

Crystal (1980) defines adjective as ‘a term used in the grammatical classification used to refer to the main set of items which specify the attributes of nouns.

3.2.11. Adverbs:

According to Crystal (1980) adverbs refers to a heterogeneous groups of items whose most frequent function is to specify the mode of action of the verb.

3.2.12. Reduplication:

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

3.2.13. Affixation:

Affixation is the morphological process in which a new word is derived by means of affixing. Affixation includes:
   a) Prefixation
   b) Infixation
   c) Suffixation.

3.2.14. Preposition:

It refers to member of a closed set of items that occur before a complement.

3.2.15. Morpheme:

Morpheme is defined as the smallest distinctive unit of language that combines both a form and a meaning. Morphemes are commonly classified into two classes:
   a) Free morphemes :A free morpheme is a morpheme which can stand alone as an independent word in a phrase or sentence. For example in English, **eat**, **girl**, **short** are free morphemes. An example can also be provided from Maram as in **sa** ‘eat’, **dic** ‘drink’, **kʰnaŋ** ‘rat’, **buʔ** ‘put’.
   b) Bound morpheme is a morpheme which cannot stand alone but must be attached to another morpheme. For example in English the negative prefixes **in-**, **dis-**, **un-** are bound morphemes. In Khasi, the bound morphemes are **jiŋ-**, **pɛn-**, **mʌn-**.
3.3.  Terms in Syntax:

3.3.1.  Sentence:

Bloomfield (1933) defines sentence as an ‘independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form’. It is the largest unit to which we can assign a grammatical structure.

The Sentence is the basic unit of syntax. It is grammatical unit consisting of one or more clauses.

3.3.2.  Simple Sentence: A simple sentence is a sentence which comprise of a single clause.

3.3.3.  Compound Sentence: Compound sentences are a result of combining independent clauses by coordinating them with one another.

3.3.4.  Complex Sentence: Sentences which contain more than one clause. In other words, a complex sentence is a sentence which consists of at least one main clause and one or more subordinate clause.

3.3.5.  Compound-complex sentence: It refers to sentences that include both coordinate and subordinate clause.

3.3.6.  Clause: It is a term which refers to a unit of grammatical organization smaller than the sentence but, larger than phrases, words or morphemes.

3.3.7.  Clause: It is a grammatical unit comprising a subject and a predicate.

3.3.8.  Main Clause: It is a clause to which any other clauses in a sentence are subordinate.

3.3.9.  Subordinate Clause: It is a clause that is grammatically dependent on an element of another clause.

3.3.10. Complement Clause: It refers to a clause structure which is traditionally associated with completing the action specified by the verb.
3.3.11. **Relative Clause**: It refers to a clause which modifies the noun phrase.

3.3.12. **Adverbial clause**: Clause that functions in the range of adverbials, viz. modifies verbs, verb phrases, and sentences.

3.3.13. **Declarative Sentence**: A declarative sentence refers to sentence which expresses statements.

3.3.14. **Affirmative Sentence**: It refers to sentences which express an assertion. It has no negative marker.

3.3.15. **Interrogative Sentence**: An interrogative sentence is one that enquires the facts through question words.

3.3.16. **Imperative Sentences**: An imperative sentence is one that express command, a request, advice, proposals, etc.

3.3.17. **Exclamatory sentences**: An exclamatory sentence is one which expresses the sudden feeling of the mind.

3.3.18. **Negative Sentences**: It refers to a sentence which consists of negative particle. Negative sentence is opposite to affirmative sentence.