Chapter IV

Morphology
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4.1. General

Grammar

The rules in a language for changing the form of words and joining them into sentences.


In linguistics, grammar is the set of structural rules that govern the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The term refers also to the study of such rules, and this field includes morphology, syntax, and phonology, often complemented by phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics. Linguists do not normally use the term to refer to orthographical rules, although usage books and style guides that call themselves grammars may also refer to spelling and punctuation.

The term grammar is often used by non-linguists with a very broad meaning. As Jeremy Butterfield puts it: "Grammar is often a generic way of referring to any aspect of English that people object to." However, linguists use it in a much more specific sense. Every speaker of a language has, in his or her head, a set of rules for using that language. This is a grammar, and—at least in the case of one's native language—the vast majority of the information in it is acquired not by conscious study or instruction, but by observing other speakers; much of this work is done during infancy. Language learning later in life, of course, may involve a greater degree of explicit instruction. The term "grammar" can also be used to describe the rules that govern the linguistic behaviour of a group of speakers. The term "English grammar", therefore, may have several meanings. It may refer to the whole of English grammar—that is, to the grammars of all the speakers of the language—in which case, the term encompasses a great deal of variation. Alternatively, it may refer only to what is common to the grammars of all, or of the vast majority of English speakers (such as subject–verb–object word order in simple declarative sentences). Or it may refer to the rules of a particular, relatively well-defined variety of English (such as Standard English).
The standard framework of generative grammar is the transformational grammar model developed in various ways by Noam Chomsky and his associates from the 1950s onwards.

4.2. History

The first systematic grammars originated in Iron Age India, with Yaska (6th c. BC), Pāṇini (4th c. BC) and his commentators Pingala (ca. 200 BC), Katyayana, and Patanjali (2nd c. BC). In the West, grammar emerged as a discipline in Hellenism from the 3rd c. BC forward with authors like Rhyanus and Aristarchus of Samothrace, the oldest extant work being the Art of Grammar, attributed to Dionysius Thrax (ca. 100 BC). Latin grammar developed by following Greek models from the 1st century BC, due to the work of authors such as Orbilius Pupillus, Remmius Palaemon, Marcus Valerius Probus, Verrius Flaccus, and Aemilius Asper.

Tolkāppiyam is the earliest Tamil grammar; it has been dated variously between 1st CE and 10th CE.

A grammar of Irish originated in the 7th century with the Auraicept na n-Éces.

Arabic grammar emerged from the 8th century with the work of Ibn Abi Ishaq and his students.

The first treatises on Hebrew grammar appeared in the High Middle Ages, in the context of Mishnah (exegesis of the Hebrew Bible). The Karaite tradition originated in Abbasid Baghdad. The Diqduq (10th century) is one of the earliest grammatical commentaries on the Hebrew Bible. Ibn Barun in the 12th century compares the Hebrew language with Arabic in the Islamic grammatical tradition.

Belonging to the trivium of the seven liberal arts, grammar was taught as a core discipline throughout the Middle Ages, following the influence of authors from Late Antiquity, such as Priscian. Treatment of vernaculars began gradually during the High Middle Ages, with isolated works such as the First Grammatical Treatise, but became influential only in the Renaissance and Baroque periods.

Grammars of non-European languages began to be compiled for the purposes of evangelization and Bible translation from the 16th century onward, such as Grammatica o Arte de la Lengua General de los Indios de los Reynos del Perú (1560), and a Quechua grammar by Fray Domingo de Santo Tomás.
In 1643 there appeared Ivan Uzhevych's Grammatica sclavonica and, in 1762, the Short Introduction to English Grammar of Robert Lowth was also published. The Grammatisch-Kritisches Wörterbuch der hochdeutschen Mundart, a High German grammar in five volumes by Johann Christoph Adelung, appeared as early as 1774.

From the latter part of the 18th century, grammar came to be understood as a subfield of the emerging discipline of modern linguistics. The Serbian grammar by Vuk Stefanović Karadžić arrived in 1814, while the Deutsche Grammatik of the Brothers Grimm was first published in 1818. The Comparative Grammar of Franz Bopp, the starting point of modern comparative linguistics, came out in 1833.

Grammar generally deals with syntactical structure of the language. It is believed that there is no grammar without sound system, word formation, etc.

Each and every level has its own rules and regulations. We follow certain criteria to create an acceptable sequence of sounds, words, phrases, etc., which is also called as grammar.

The grammatical problems other than those discussed in the previous chapters—concordance’ and ‘Derivatives’ are discussed in this chapter. The data for the study were collected from the higher secondary students by assigning them different tasks such as construction of sentences using the articles, prepositions and conjunctions given.

Errors regarding the usage of prepositions, articles and conjunctions are discussed in detail in this chapter.

An analysis of the data collected with regard to the responses from the students, shows that most of the errors are developmental errors. Among the developmental errors most of them were due to the addition, omission, substitution, and overgeneralization.

The erroneous sentences due to the developmental errors like addition, omission, substitution and overgeneralization by the informants under study are presented and their analysis too is presented. The errors committed by the informants have been classified as Inter lingual errors, Intra lingual errors and Developmental errors.
4.3. Articles

The forms like ‘a’ or ‘an’ and ‘the’ are usually called as articles. In English articles belong to a subclass of determiners and they are definite and indefinite. ‘a’ and ‘an’ are indefinite articles and ‘the’ is a definite article. The use of both the definite and indefinite articles depends upon the nature of the following word. The definite article ‘a’ occurs before words with vowels, ‘the’ occurs in the position, where a person or thing or one already referred to.

Wren and Martin define the following as the contexts in which the definite article ‘the’ occurs.

1. When a singular noun is meant to represent a whole class.
2. With the names of gulfs, rivers, seas, oceans, group of islands and mountain ranges.
3. Before the names of certain books.
4. Before a proper noun to make it a common noun.
5. In certain expressions of quantity.
6. With superlatives
7. With ordinals.
8. Before musical instruments (Wren& Martin, 1991, P:31-32). Errors pertaining to the use of article found in the answer scripts of the questionnaire given to the students are classified into two categories viz.substitution of articles and addition of articles.

All these sentences with errors in the usage of articles are listed below:

4.3.1. Incorrect usage of Articles

4.3.1.1. Omission of Articles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Missing Article</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. What kind of ? bird is that ?
| ‘a’
| 2. Started late in ? afternoon.
| ‘the’
| 3. What ? beautiful scene this is!
| ‘a’
| 4. Who wishes to take ? walk with me ?
| ‘a’
| 5. I like to live in ? open air.
| ‘the’ |
4.3.1.2. Addition of Articles

1. **The** sugar is bad for your teeth. (Incorrect)
   
   1. Sugar is bad for your teeth. (Correct)

   **Reason**

   An Article is not used before names of substances and abstract nouns (ie, uncountable nouns) used in a general sense.

   2. **The** Beijing is the capital of China. (Incorrect)
   
   2. Beijing is the capital of China. (Correct)

   **Reason**

   Proper nouns are the names of particular persons, countries, rivers etc. We do not use articles with proper nouns.

   3. **The** excess salt is harmful for health. (Incorrect)
   
   3. Excess salt is harmful for health. (Correct)

   **Reason**

   A definite Article ‘the’ is not used for quantity.

   4. **A** man is mortal. (Incorrect)
   
   4. Man is mortal. (Correct)

   **Reason**

   In generalizations we usually use singular countable nouns with the article ‘the’. The nouns man and woman are exceptions to this rule. They can be used in a general sense without articles.

   5. You are making a rapid progress. (Incorrect)
   
   5. You are making rapid progress. (Correct)

   **Reason**

   Some uncountable nouns cannot be used with articles. Examples are: progress, trouble and scope. Some can be used with articles in some cases.
4.3.1.3. Substitution of Articles

Exercise 1

1. A girl was very beautiful. (Incorrect)
   1. The girl was very beautiful. (Correct)

Reason-

Indefinite article is used to talk about a person or a thing not known to the speaker or the listener.

2. The Spiders have eight legs. (Incorrect)
   2. Spiders have eight legs. (Correct)

Reason-

Plural countable nouns can be used without articles, especially when we are talking about things in general.

3. The milk is nutritious. (Incorrect)
   3. Milk is nutritious. (Correct)

Reason-

A singular uncountable noun is used without an article.

4. A Mr. Roy whom you met last night is my uncle. (Incorrect)
   4. Mr. Roy whom you met last night is my uncle. (Correct)

Reason-

A indefinite Article ‘a’ is used before a proper noun only, when qualified by an adjective or a defining adjective clause

5. She is going out with the French guy. (Incorrect)
   5. She is going out with a French guy. (Correct)

Reason-

Indefinite article is used to talk about a person or a thing not known to the speaker or the listener.

The following table shows the statistical analysis of the students’ errors in articles.
Table 11. Errors in articles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of errors</th>
<th>Percentage of errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that errors are found in more number due to addition and omission of articles than substitutions of articles in the sentences constructed by the informants.

Use of appropriate articles with nouns is essential. Hence, the rules regarding the use of articles must be taught to the learners clearly. Constant practice should also be given for efficient use of articles.

The teaching of articles is something that must be done everyday as part of any lesson. Only then the learners will be able to use them appropriately.

The informants are unaware where indefinite articles ‘a’ and ‘an’ should be used. The rules regarding the use of articles should be made explicit to the learners by which errors in this regard might be minimized. The teachers should fulfill the language needs i.e., he/she should try to locate.

4.4. Conjunction

A conjunction is a word which connects words, phrases, clauses or sentences. It also brings about relationship between the elements which are thus joined. There are two types of conjunctions:

1. Co-ordinate conjunctions
2. Subordinate conjunctions

A co-ordinate conjunctions joins two clauses or sentences of equal rank. Also, it joins two words of equal grammatical rank.

And, but, for, nor, or, otherwise, else, also, either-or, neither-nor etc., are the chief co-ordinate conjunctions.
Examples

1. He went to the hospital and met the doctor.
2. Dr. Rao and Dr. Reddy are best friends.

The co-ordinate conjunctions are of four kinds:

4.4.1. Cumulative Conjunction

A Conjunction which adds one statement or fact to another is a cumulative conjunction.

Example:

1. The Professor as well as the lecturer has accepted to conduct the examination next week.

The following are the Cumulative Conjunctions:

Not only…….but also
Both…….and
As well as
Too, also, moreover etc.

4.4.2. Alternative Conjunction

A conjunction of this kind expresses a choice between two alternatives.

Either…….or, neither…….nor, otherwise, else etc., are alternative conjunctions.

Example:

1. Work hard otherwise, you will fail.

4.4.3. Adversative Conjunction

An adversative conjunction expresses a contrast between two facts or statements.

Only, however, but, still, yet, whereas, nevertheless, etc., are adversative conjunctions.

Example:

1. She was angry, but she kept quiet.
4.4.4. Illative Conjunction

Such a conjunction shows that a statement or fact is proved or inferred from another.

Therefore, hence, so, consequently, for etc., are illative conjunctions.

Example:

1. He is honest and amiable, hence he is revered.

The Subordinate Conjunctions are the conjunctions that connect a clause to another on which it depends for its full meaning.

The adverbial clauses are usually connected to the main clauses by means of the subordinate conjunctions.

After, because, if, another, though, till, etc., are subordinate conjunctions.

Example:

1. We eat so that we may live.

The following compound expressions also can be used as conjunctions:

Examples:

In order that, on condition that, even if, so that, provided that, as through, as well as, as if etc.,

There are some words which are used both as conjunctions and as prepositions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjunctions</th>
<th>Prepositions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We went after he came to the office.</td>
<td>We went home after sunset.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I went to the bed early, for I was tired.</td>
<td>I shall do it for him.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following conjunctions are used in pairs and hence are called correlative conjunctions.

Either……..or
Neither……..nor
Both………..and
Though……yet
Whether……or
Not only……but also

When conjunctions are used as correlatives, each of the correlated words should be placed immediately before the words to be connected.

Example:

He not only visited Mumbai but also Pune. (Incorrect)

He visited not only Mumbai but also Pune. (Correct)

4.5. Incorrect usage of conjunctions

Exercises

4.5.1. Omission of conjunctions

1. When I told them my plan they looked at me as I was mad.(incorrect)
1. When I told them my plan they looked at me as if I was mad.(correct)
2. The old couple shows a lot of love and affection, they treat me as I was their own son. (incorrect)
2. The old couple shows a lot of love and affection, they treat me as if I were their own son.
3. You can make use of my car unless you drive carefully.(Incorrect)
3. You can make use of my car as long as you drive carefully.(Correct)

4.5.2. Substitution of conjunctions

1. I prefer coffee with tea. (incorrect)
1. I prefer coffee than tea. (incorrect)
1. I prefer coffee to tea. (correct)
2. Inspite of my limitations I helped him in larger extent.
2. Despite the limitations I have I helped him in large extent.
   Inspite – it goes with preposition.
   Inspite of my tiredness I couldn’t sleep.
2. I couldn’t sleep despite being tired.
3. You can make use of my umbrella incase it rains.(correct)
3. You can make use of my umbrella if it rains.(incorrect)
   ‘If’ is a wrong usage.
4. You should inform the police if your bicycle is stolen.(incorrect)
4. You should inform the police incase your bicycle is stolen.(correct)
5. You can’t go in unless you are a dining member. (doubtful)
5. You can’t go in only if you are a dining member. (doubtful)

4.5.3. Addition of conjunctions
1. Though he is sick, still he scores the first mark. (incorrect)
1. Though he is sick, he scores the first mark. (correct)
   Reason: In a sentence two conjunctions can’t be used in two clauses.
   1) Sub clause before comma
   2) Main clause after comma
We normally use one conjunction to join two clauses.
2. Because he was not ready therefore we left without him.
3. Neither I do not drink tea nor coffee. (incorrect)
3. I don’t drink neither this nor that. (incorrect)
3. I don’t drink either this or that.(correct)
   1 (+ve) so 1 (-ve)
4. She didn’t come to school. Because she was ill. (incorrect)
4. She didn’t come to school because she was ill.
   Reason:
   This is a common punctuation mistake. ‘Because’ is a subordinate conjunction
   and must never be separated from its main clause by a full stop.
   5. No sooner I had reached the station than the train left. (incorrect)
   5. No sooner had I reached the station than the train left.
   Use an inverted word order. Auxiliary verb comes before the subject.
4.6. Preposition

Preposition is a word or a group of words used especially before a noun or pronoun to show location, time, manner etc. In English, preposition occupies an important place to show the relationship between the nouns and verbs. Prepositions are classified into three categories viz. simple, compound and phrasal form of prepositions. Even a simple preposition can make the sentence meaningful or meaningless. The right use of the right preposition is important to show the relationship or state among subject, object, adverb, noun and pronoun.

4.6.1. Types of Prepositions

a) Single word prepositions: in, on, after, at, with, under, above, etc. (These are simple prepositions.

b) Phrase prepositions (Complex Prepositions):

4.6.2. Structure

1. Adverb + Preposition. Eg. Along with, apart from, as for, as to, etc.
2. Verb / Adjective / Conjunction, etc. + Preposition. Eg: except for, owing to, due to, but for, because of.
3. Preposition + noun + Preposition. Eg: by means of, on account of, in view of, in spite of, in comparison with, instead of, etc.

On certain occasions, it is both necessary and correct to end a sentence with a preposition. English is a flexible language and defies pedantic rules of grammar.

4.6.3. Rules pertaining to the use of prepositions

Correct use of preposition

Rule 1:

A preposition is placed at the end of a sentence in the following ways:

(a) When the relative pronoun is ‘that’:
Example:
Here is the pen that you are looking for.

(b) If a preposition governs a relative pronoun:
Example:
This is the student whom I spoke about.
(c) When the relative pronoun is understood:
   Example:
   This is the person you spoke to.

(d) If a preposition governs an interrogative pronoun or an interrogative adverb:
   Example:
   What are you looking at?

(e) When the preposition is used with the infinitive placed at the end of the sentence:
   Example:
   Do you have a chair to sit on?

(f) When the object governed by the preposition is placed first:
   Examples:
   This I insist on.
   He is known all the world over.

Rule 2:

A preposition can also be used at the beginning of an interrogative sentence.

Examples:

In which city do you live?

To whom are you referring?

Rule 3:

There are some words with prepositions Which require gerunds after them.

Examples:

Refrain from hurting prevent from working persist in disobeying.

Rule 4:

The verbs, which are placed immediately after prepositions are usually in gerund form

Example:

Manohar insisted on buying a television.
Rule 5:

Some words with prepositions can take the gerund as well as the infinitive.

Examples:

He is afraid of going out alone at night.

He is afraid to go out alone at night.

Rule 6:

Some intransitive verbs become transitive by placing prepositions after them.

Example:

Laugh at, listen to, depend on/ upon, prevail on/ upon etc...

Rule 7:

In and within.

(a) In refers to the end of a period of time usually in the future, e.g. He will return in a month. (at the end of the month)

(b) Within means before the end of a period of time (at any time before the specified period)

He will return within a month. (He may come after two weeks also)

Rule 8:

In and Into

(a) ‘In’ indicates rest or motion inside anything.

Examples:

She is in the garden. (rest, inside)

She is walking in the garden (motion inside)

(b) ‘Into’ means motion towards the inside of anything.

Examples:

I walked into the garden.
Rule 9:

(a) \textbf{On} is used:

(i) In speaking of things at rest.
He sat on a big stone.

(ii) Before the names of days and dates.
On Friday, on the 2\textsuperscript{nd} of August, etc.

(iii) To denote support and concern.
He lives on his maternal uncle’s wealth.
I wrote books on politics.

(b) \textbf{Upon} is used:

In speaking of things in motion.
The tiger sprang upon the goat.

Rule 10:

Beside and besides

\textbf{Beside} means ‘by the side of’

Example:

My house is beside the kali temple.

\textbf{Besides} means in addition to or more over

Examples:

There are four professors in the department besides the head of the department.
Besides English we are taught French.

Rule 11:

Between and among

\textbf{Between} is used for to persons or things
Distribute these sweets between the two children.
There is a good understanding between him and her.
Among is used for more than two persons or things.

The boys were fighting among themselves in the absence of their teacher.

Rule 12:

‘By’ is used to mean:

(a) According to; from the evidence of by my watch, it is 10.30.
(b) To denote the doer of an action in the passive voice.

The thief was beaten by the police man.

Rule 13:

Prepositions from, since, for with reference to time.

From, Since indicate a point of time.

(a) I have not seen her since Monday.
    I have not seen her from August.
    For indicates a length or period of time.
(b) I have not seen her for 6 months.

The following are the sentences in which errors in prepositions are identified.
The erroneous sentences are listed under the following three categories:-

4.6.4. Wrong usage of prepositions

4.6.4.1. Improper addition of Prepositions

Errors have been found in the sentence constructions due to addition of prepositions where they are not necessary. The following are the sentences in which errors have been found in this regard.

1.* Many diseases to attack with children and people working in factories.

2.* I must go to Madras in today night.

3.* we must to read it in the newspapers.

4.* One midnight all the members of in my house were in sleeping.

5.* After studies of we go to our room and sleep.
The improper addition of prepositions makes the sentence erroneous. “Many diseases attack children and people working in factories” might be the intended construction of the informant. The addition of prepositions 'to' and 'with' in the sentence makes it erroneous.

If the prepositions underlined in instances (1) to (5) are deleted then the sentences are well-formed. The improper addition of prepositions might be due to lack of grammatical knowledge. The errors could be rectified if proper care is taken in prepositions by the informants.

4.6.4.2. Substitution of prepositions

Selection of prepositions plays an important role in constructing well-framed sentences. The following are the errors that have been found due to wrong selection of prepositions.

1. The rivalry among India and Pakistan continues. (between)
2. The glass is in the table. (on)
3. He is fond to playing. (of)
4. Mohan gave a lecture in patriotism. (on)
5. His objection is for what all you say. (to)

Use of appropriate prepositions is very important because it changes the meaning of the intended sentence.

In sentence (1), the preposition 'among' has been used instead of 'between'. In sentence (2), 'in' is used for 'on'. In sentence (3), for 'of', the proposition 'to' has been used by the informant. In sentence (4), 'in' is used for 'on'. The preposition on is used with general points of time usually with days and dates. The preposition in shows the period within which the action will happen. In sentence (5), for 'to', the proposition 'for' has been used by the informant.

Knowledge of the proper use of prepositions is lacking among the informants and hence they produce erroneous constructions.

4.6.4.3. Omission of Prepositions

Errors have been found in the construction of sentences due to omission of prepositions. The following samples have been found without prepositions.
1. This is the boy I gave the book to.

2. Ajmer is the place where I was born in.

3. Manohar insisted on buying a television.

4. She left the hotel without paying the bill.

5. He is afraid of going out alone at night.

4.7. Lexical Choice

The selection of appropriate lexical item according to the context is more important in any language. Only certain items collocate with another lexical item. The adjective used to qualify a noun should agree with it. Lexical choice plays an important role in sentence constructions.

The informants have used incorrect lexical items while constructing sentences. The following are the samples in this regard.

1. *And then she drank small water.
2. *The court ordered him five years jail.
3. *The public toilet is very poor.

The samples above clearly reveal the fact that the informants choose lexical items without knowing their appropriate meaning and the context in which they have to be used.

In sentence (1), the use of the adjective small led to ill-formedness. The adjective a little/some has to be employed in the place of the adjective small there by making the sentences acceptable and grammatical.

In sentence (2), the use of the noun jail makes the sentence sound awkward. According to The Concise Oxford Dictionary “jail is a place to which persons are committed by a court for detention”. The word “imprisonment” would be more appropriate than the word jail.

The use of the word poor in sentence (3) instead of dirty makes the construction erroneous. The word poor does not go with the noun toilet in the sentence. Hence the use of the word dirty in the place of poor makes the sentence acceptable or else it sounds awkward.
Thus the appropriate use of lexical items in appropriate places plays a significant role in learning a language. Only certain nouns/adjectives can be used in certain places. The informants do not know the difference in meaning of certain words. Many of the informants have used effect for affect in their sentence constructions. The reason might be that both the words sound somewhat similar but there is meaning difference. The informants are not exposed to the language very much.

4.8. Conclusion

At the morphological level too informants have committed errors. They are not aware of the rules of plural formation of certain nouns. The use of plural forms such as peoples, children, lifes, etc., maybe quoted as examples. Nearly 30% of the informants under study have used ‘peoples’ and ‘children’ in their constructions ignorant of the fact that the base forms themselves are plural. These two nouns have been used by the informants with suffix-‘s’ along with them thinking them to be plural. Wrong analogy or overgeneralization might be the reason for the errors. The plural form of nouns such as ‘dog-dogs’, ‘tree-trees’ would have induced the informants to form words and use them in their sentence constructions. The usage of wrongly inflected words in the sentences makes the sentences also look awkward and erroneous.