CHAPTER 4
LITERATURE REVIEW
CHAPTER 4
LITERATURE REVIEW

4.0 Literature Review:

Literature Review is carried out and divided into three parts: (1) Earlier Works (2) Available Resources and (3) Model Selected. It is divided into two parts. (a) (i) Review of Literature on Phonology and (ii) Selection of Model for Phonology, and (b) (i) Review of Literature on Morphology and (ii) Selection of Model for Morphology.

4.1 Earlier Works:

The present work may be considered as a base on which the further research could be carried out. Quite a few linguistic works are available on Phom language. Some works are listed here in this section. However, they can not be considered to be a considerable amount of work.

Grierson (1903), in the Linguistic Survey of India, volume III, part II has mentioned about this language by the name Tamlu or Chingmengnu. He has also provided a standard list of words and sentences of the language. There are 241 words and sentences listed. Grierson says, “the language ceasing to be agglutinative, and are becoming more synthetic.” The Chingmengnu called themselves as Dikpā Kātā’ and the name Tamlu was given to them by the English people.
French Walter Thomas (1983), in his Doctoral Dissertation for the genetic classification of the language, has listed Phonemes of Phom language—Vowels and Consonants. This can be seen in the volume I and II of Northern Naga: A Tibeto-Burman Mesolanguage. Marrison (1967), in his Doctoral Dissertation, on Classification of Naga languages, he has mentioned about Phom language.

Robbins Burling has worked on Phom language. His work appeared in the ‘Linguistics of Tibeto-Burman Area’ Volume 21.2- fall 1998. His work can be considered to be a considerable amount of work. He has given a list of vocabulary. The words included in the list are of the following types:

**Nature**: Sky and weather, land and water

**Animals**: Mammals (domestic and wild)

**Birds**: Birds, reptiles, fish etc.

**Insects and worms**

**Animal parts, Products, calls**

**Plants, foods**: trees, forest, fruit, grain, tubers, vegetables and plants etc., plants parts, plant maturation and stages

**Body parts**

**Liquids and miscellaneous**

**Internal organs, bones**

**Pronouns**: People, age, gender, occupational categories

**Kinship terms**
Illness

Artifacts: cooking and eating equipment

Basketry, cloth, clothing

Tools and weapons

Buildings and their parts, furniture

Nouns: Abstract and miscellaneous

Time expressions (adverb)

Numerals

Adjectives: Colour, size, miscellaneous

Verbs

Function words and affixes: Classifiers, question words, noun suffixes, postpositions, verb suffixes, demonstratives, and miscellaneous

He has also given a list of vowels, diphthongs, consonants (word initial, word final) and tones. In particular, he mentioned the process of assimilation across the syllable boundaries. This process has also been observed in this research. However, our findings do not match with his investigation on all points.


He has divided the speakers into three groups. They are:

(i) the Southern group: consisting of the speakers of Angami, Kachari, Zeme, Liangmai, Rongmei, Remgma, Sema, Khezha, Chokri and Mao.
(ii) **the Northern group**: consisting of the speakers of Konyak, Sangtam, Phom, Chang, and Khiemnungan, and

(iii) **the Central group**: consisting of the speakers of Lotha, Ao, and Yimchunger.

A list of twenty consonantal phonemes of Phom speakers in Naga-Pidgin has also been provided in his book. He has also given a list of few examples of /t/ and /k/ corresponding to /d/ and /g/ in the word initial and inter-vocalic positions. Sreedhar has also listed some of the examples where /ʃ/ corresponds to /s/ at a position and to /c/ at some other position. The variation of /ʈ/ and /l/ has been mentioned with few examples among the speakers itself. The /ʈ/ and /l/ variation persists in this investigation in borrowed words. A lot of borrowed words in Naga-Pidgin have come from Assamese, Hindi and other languages. This could be one of the reasons for /ʈ/ and /l/ variation among the speakers.

Nagaland Bhasha Parishad, (1973) has published a dictionary. It is a multi-lingual dictionary comprising Hindi-Phom-English. Another dictionary is bi-lingual dictionary of English and Phom published by N. Shauhong and S. Odiba Phom in 1997. There are Primary level grammar books; short stories for school students (cf. 1.10)
4.1.1 Non-Linguistic Work:

Many non-linguistic works have also been carried out on the language and the community.

Sreedhar, (1974) in his book ‘Naga-Pidgin: A Sociolinguistic Study of Inter-lingual Pattern’ provided the information of the Phom population and also the classification of the language.


Detailed ethnographic information has been given in People of India (Nagaland) volume XXXIV by K.S.Singh (General Editor) (1994). The speakers of the language have also done non-linguistic works. L.Mongnyei Phom (1993) in his work, “The Concept of Life after Death in the Traditional Belief of the Phom Naga Tribe” deals with the spiritual work related with the beliefs of the people. He has also provided the ethnographic information and discusses the life and society of the Phom people.

In his book, ‘Phom Day’ C.Amop Noklang (2002) has given a detailed account of information of social set-up of the Phoms, their traditional culture and beliefs.
B. Henshet Phom (2000), in his work, 'The Phom Naga Indigenous Religion: A Socio-Philosophical Perspective' has dealt with the life, culture, their social set up and religious beliefs.

Another work has also been carried out by B. Henshet Phom (2005) on the Phom Naga Customary Law. The book deals with important different laws that are followed or the people are guided with.
4.2 Available Resources:

There are different sources of information on Tibeto-Burman languages that were available for the reference. The available sources are mentioned in this section. Also the model selected would be mentioned in the selection of model (cf. Model Selected).

The sources of information are divided into three groups. They are:

(a) Phonetic Readers

(b) Grammars

(c) Dictionaries

(a) Phonetic Readers:

(i) Thaddou Phonetic Reader (Thirumalai, 1972)

(ii) Ao-Naga Phonetic Reader (Gurubasave, 1972)

(iii) Tripuri Phonetic Reader (Pushpa, 1972)

(iv) Angami Phonetic Reader (Ravindran, 1974)

(v) Lotha Phonetic Reader (Acharya, 1975)

(vi) Manipuri Phonetic Reader (Inder Singh, 1975)

(vii) Sema Phonetic Reader (Sreedhar, 1976)

(viii) Mishmi Phonetic Reader (Sastry, 1984)

(b) Grammars:

(i) Ao-Grammar (Gurubasave, 1975)

(ii) Kokborok Grammar (Pushpapai, 1976)
(iii) Angami Grammar (Gridhar, 1980)
(iv) Sema Grammar (Sreedhar, 1980)
(v) Lotha Grammar (Acharya, 1983)
(vi) Mishmi Grammar (Sastry, 1984)
(vii) Standardized Grammar of Naga-Pidgin (Sreedhar, 1985)
(viii) Tangkhul Grammar (Arokianathan, 1987)
(ix) Mising Grammar (Sastry(ed.), 1991)
(x) Mao-Naga Grammar (Gridhar, 1994)
(xi) Hmar Grammar (Dutta and Bapui, 1996)
(xii) The Ethnology of Khezas and the Kheza Grammar (Kafo, 2005)

(c) Dictionaries:

(i) English-Phom-Hindi Dictionary (Nagaland Bhasha Parishad, 1973)
(ii) English-Phom Dictionary (Shauhong and Odiba Phom, 1997)
(iii) Mishmi-English-Hindi Dictionary (Sastry, 1991)
4.3 Model Selected:

4.3.1 This section is divided into two parts: (a) (i) Review of Literature on Phonology (ii) the Model for Phonology and (b) (i) Review of Literature on Morphology (ii) the Model for Morphology.

(a)

4.3.1.1 (i) Review of Literature on Phonology:

The history of phonology can be traced to be rooted back to 400 B.C. and 2nd century A.D. in ancient India in the work of Panini and Patanjali. It has grown throughout the centuries. Many noteworthy contributions and efforts led this field to reach a level where the electronic devices and machines are the major elementary instruments for the study of sounds. The twentieth century linguists Abercrombie, Daniel Jones, Roman Jakobson, Morris Halle, and Chomsky etc. have made the significant contributions to this field. Phonetics is the study of speech sounds in general and Phonology is the study of speech sounds of a particular language. According to Robbins (1967):

Phonetics and phonology are both concerned with the same subject matter or aspect of language, speech sounds, as the audible result of articulation, but they are concerned with them from different points of view. Phonetics is general (i.e., concerned with speech sounds as such without reference to their function in a particular language), descriptive and classificatory: phonology is particular (having a particular language or languages in view) and functional (concerned with working or functioning of speech in a language or languages). Phonology has in fact been called functional phonetics.

Phonology is the study of speech sounds, their change in different environments, phonemes, variants etc. The sound pattern of a language is studied in phonology.

In the words of Trubetzkoy (1939):
It is the task of phonology to study which differences in sounds are related to differences in meaning in a given language, in which way the discriminative elements are related to each other, and the rules according to which they may be combined in words and structures.

The basic concern of phonology is to see the functioning of sound elements in a language, their behavior, pattern and use. Matthews (1974) has rightly said that:

Phonology is concerned with the functioning of speech-units within the system of individual languages, whereas that of phonetics is concerned with the nature and typology of speech sounds in themselves.

The different components of phonology include the phonemes, allophones, the different sounds which can be classified into the categories of consonants and vowels. Distinctive features, phonological rules and processes, intonations are the concern of phonology. Phoneme is the smallest contrastive unit which may bring about change in meanings. According to Crystal (1987):

Phonemes are contrastive units which mean the contrast of words produce differences in meaning. Sounds that are phonetically similar and do not occur in the same environment are in complementary distribution or do not cause a change in meaning (i.e. they are in free variation). If in at least one pair of words in language sound differences give rise to a meaning difference, then that different sound is phonemic in the language.

Allophones are the alternate realization of the same phoneme. These variants can either be in complementary distribution or in free variation. The vowels are the sounds produced with an open in the vocal tract. There is no constriction of air passage while producing the sound. Jensen (2004:12) has described it in the following words:
Vowels are described using somewhat different terminology from consonants, since there is no obstruction in their production. The parameters for vowels are the height of the tongue, the rounding of the lips, and tongue root position.

Consonants can be defined as those sounds produced with a narrowing or closure in the vocal tract, thus, causing constriction of air. Jensen (2004:4) has described it:

Consonants are divided into groups along three basic dimensions. First is the manner of articulation, which refers to how the sound is produced. Second is the place of articulation, the position in the mouth of the greatest obstruction. Third is the state of the glottis in the production of the sound.

Syllables are described as one peak of sonority of a sequence of phonemes. There is an alternative phonetic approach to define the syllables in acoustic terms and the articulatory motion can be related to the notion of sonority. Sonority prominences are made up of length, stress, intonations, pitch. Ladefoged (1982:221) defines the sonority as:

The sonority of a sound is its loudness relative to that of other sounds with the same length, stress and pitch.
4.3.1.2 (ii) The Model for Phonology:

The model chosen for phonological analysis of Phom language for distinctive features and phonological rules is the model of Chomsky and Halle of 'The Sound Pattern of English' (1968). Praat (version 4.4.20) software is used for the spectrographic analysis of the sounds.

In this thesis, certain technical terms have been used. Therefore, it is imperative to explain such terms.

1. Grammar:

The term grammar refers to both the system of rules represented in the mind of the speaker-hearer: (1) a system which is normally acquired in early childhood and (2) use in the production and interpretation of utterances.

2. Linguistic Universals:

Linguistic Universal refers to essential properties of natural language.

3. Phonetic Representations:

Phonetics establishes utterances, which are sequences of discrete segments. Segments are complexes of a particular set of phonetic features. The simultaneous and sequential combinations of these features are subject to a set of specific constraints. There will be many other constraints for both. They must be met by each phonetic representation in each language.
A phonetic representation has a two-dimensional matrix, in which (1) the row stands for particular phonetic, (2) the columns stand for the consecutive segments of the utterance generated; and (3) the entries in the matrix determine the status of each segment with respect to the features. In a full phonetic representation, an entry might represent the degree of intensity. It is likely that the phonetic representation of an utterance in a given language is a matrix with rows, labeled by features of universal phonetics.

Phonetic Representations: The phonological component expresses the relationship between the surface structure of a sentence and its physical actualization is determined by grammatical rule.

4. **Lexical and Phonological Representations:**

Lexical Representation refers to the Representation of formatives provided by the lexicon. There are the lexical formatives as well as certain grammatical formatives. They happen to appear in lexical entries. There may be various grammatical categories directly by the syntactic rules themselves. Thus, the syntactic rules and the lexicon, applied in a manner of formatives are not taken completely in this research.

It is evident that lexical representation refers to the representation of formatives proved by the lexicon.
5. **The Rules of the Phonological Component:**

The Phonological Component is described as a system of rules. It is organized in accordance with the principal of the transformational cycle, which maps surface structures into phonetic representations.

6. **Distinctive Features:**

Distinctive Features are the minimal elements of which phonetic, lexical, and phonological transcriptions are composed, by combination and concatenation. A feature complex is called a "unit". If it is called unit it is fully specified in terms of features; otherwise, an "archi-unit". If the unit has the feature [+segment], it is called a "segment" (or, if not fully specified, an "archi-segment"). If it has the feature [-segment], it is called a "boundary".

7. **Vowel Reduction:**

A vowel Reduction is a matter of phonological rule. In actual speech, the reduction of vowels is determined not only by the functioning of the underlying grammatical rules, but also by the variety of other factors (speed, casualness, frequency of the use of the item, predictability) in a particular context.

8. **The Features:**

The universal phonetic theory presents further possibilities for the categorization of segments.
9. **Vowel Alternations:**

It is the change of vowel as in: divine-divinity, serene-serenity etc.

**The Vowel Shift Rule:**

Vowel shift operates after the tense vowels have been diphthongized which supply the appropriate glides.

**The Diphthongs:**

Diphthongs – i.e., sequences of vowel followed by a glide – are the result of phonological rules that insert glides in certain position.

**Phonetic and the Phonological Representation:**

The phonetic representation consists of a sequence of phonetics segments. Each of which is nothing other than a set of phonetic feature specifications. The phonological component accepts input as a structurally analyzed string.

10. **The Phonetic Features:**

**The Neutral Position:**

Vocal tract, positioned in a certain characteristic manner, is called neutral position.

**Vocal Cord Vibration:**

The two major factors ‘controlling vocal cord vibration’ are differences in air pressure below and above the glottis and the configuration of the vocal cord, i.e. tension, shape, and relative position.
11. Major Class Features:

**Sonorant - Non-Sonorant (Obstruent):**

Sonorants are produced with a vocal tract cavity configuration in which spontaneous voicing is possible. Obstruents are produced with a cavity configuration that makes spontaneous voicing impossible.

**Vocalic-Nonvocalic:**

Vocalic sounds are produced with an oral cavity in which the most radical constriction does not exceed. They are found in the high vowels [i] and [u] where vocal cords are positioned so as to allow spontaneous voicing. In nonvocalic sounds both of these conditions are not satisfied.

**Consonantal-Nonconsonantal:**

Consonantal sounds are produced with a radical obstruction in the mid sagittal region of the vocal track. Nonconsonantal sounds are produced without such an obstruction.

12. Cavity Features:

Vowel strictures are described with the help of the features “front back” and “high low”. The consonantal strictures are characterized by means of a single multi valued parameter that refers to the location of the constriction.
Coronal- Noncoronal:
Coronal sounds are produced with the blade of the tongue raised from neutral position. Noncoronal sounds are produced with the blade of the tongue in the neutral position.

Anterior-Nonanterior:
Anterior sounds are produced with an obstruction that is located in front of the palato-alveolar region of the mouth. Nonanterior sounds are produced without such an obstruction.

Features Relating to the Body of the Tongue:

High-Nonhigh:
High sounds are produced by raising the body of the tongue above the level of the neutral position. Nonhigh sounds are produced without such a rising of the tongue body.

Low- Nonlow:
Low sounds are produced by lowering the body of the tongue, below the level that it occupies in the neutral position. Nonlow sounds are produced without such a lowering of the body of the tongue.
Back-Nonback:
Back sounds are produced by retracting the body of the tongue from the neutral position. Nonback sounds are produced without such a retraction from the neutral position.

Rounded- Nonrounded:
Rounded sounds are produced with a narrowing of the lip orifice. Nonrounded sounds are produced without such a narrowing.

Distributed-Nondistributed:
Distributed sounds are produced with a constriction that extends for a considerable distance along the direction of the airflow. Nondistributed sounds are produced with a constriction that extends only for a short distance in this direction.

Covered-Noncovered:
Covered sounds are produced with a pharynx in which the walls are narrowed and tensed and the larynx raised. Uncovered sounds are produced without a special narrowing and tensing in the pharynx.

Glottal Constrictions:
Glottal constrictions are formed by narrowing the glottal aperture beyond its neutral position. Such constrictions may accompany many different types of supraglottal articulatory configurations. Included among the sounds with glottal...
constriction are the implosives and the ejectives, as well as certain types of clicks. Glottal constrictions are commonly of an extreme degree, i.e., they involve total closure.

**Nasal-Nonnasal:**
Nasal sounds are produced with a lowered velum. The air escapes through the nose. Nonnasal sounds are produced with a raised velum so that the air from the lungs can escape only through the mouth.

**Lateral-Nonlateral:**
Lateral sounds are produced with a lowering the mid section of the tongue at both sides, or at only one side, thereby allowing the air to flow out of the mouth in the vicinity of the molar teeth where as in nonlateral sounds no such side passage is open.

13. **Manner of Articulation Features:**

**Continuant-Noncontinuant (Stop):**
In the production of continuant sounds, the primary constriction in the vowel tract is not narrowed to the point where the airflow blocked. In stops, the air flow through the mouth is effectively blocked.

**Release Features: Instantaneous Release-Delayed Release:**
These features affect only sounds produced with closure in the vocal tract. During the delayed release, turbulence is generated in the vocal tract so that the release
phase of affricates is acoustically quite similar to the cognate fricative. The instantaneous release is normally accompanied by much less or no turbulence.

**Release of Primary Closures:**
Primary constriction distinguishes the affricates from plosives as plosives are produced with an abrupt release and affricates with a delayed release.

**Release of Secondary Closures:**
The release of secondary closures is provided by the clicks. Clicks are formed with two or even three simultaneous closure. In the terms of the framework developed, clicks are noncontinuants with extreme velarization, i.e., $[^{\text{+\text{high}}}_{\text{+\text{back}}}]$. They may or may not be glottalized.

**Supplementary Movements:**

**Suction:**
Suction is produced by the downward movement of velar or glottal closures. It is necessary from a phonetic point of view to postulate two distinct suction features, one (the “click” feature) is associated with velar closure and other (the implosion” feature) with glottal closure.

**Pressure:**
Pressure motions can be executed by the velar or by the glottal closure.
**Tense-Nontense:**

Tenseness specifies the manner in which the entire articulatory gesture of a given sound is executed by the supraglottal musculature. Tense sounds are produced with a deliberate, accurate, maximally distinct gesture. Such sounds involve considerable muscular effort. Nontense sounds are produced rapidly and indistinctly. In tense sounds, both vowels and consonants, the period during which the articulatory organs maintain the appropriate configuration is relatively long; while in nontense sounds the entire gesture is executed in a somewhat superficial manner.

14. **Source Features:**

**Hightened Subglottal Pressure:**

It is the situation in which the aspirated voiced stops of languages occur during the period of oral closure.

**Voiced-Nonvoiced (Voiceless):**

The vocal cords are placed in a configuration that will cause them to vibrate while air flowing. The vocal cords may also be spread apart in the neutral position. In this case voicing will not occur. "Nonvoiced" or "voiceless" sounds are produced with a glottal opening and it is so wide that it prevents vocal vibration if air flows through the opening.
**Strident-Nonstrident:**

Strident sounds are marked acoustically by greater noisiness than their nonstrident counterparts. When the air passes over a surface, a certain amount of turbulence will be generated depending upon the nature of the surface. A rough surface, a faster rate of flow, and an angle of incidence closer to ninety degrees contribute to greater stridency. Stridency is a feature restricted to obstruent continuants and affricates. Plosives and sonorants are nonstridents.

15. **Prosodic Features:**

Stress, length and tones are described under Prosodic Features. Stress is the force used during a syllable. Length is the duration of the sounds and tones are the pitch levels of a syllable.

**The Ordering of the Rules:**

Rules are ordered and they apply in linear sequences.

**Boundaries:**

The terminal produced by the syntax consists of units of two types: segments and boundaries (or junctures.)

**Formative Boundary:**

The most elementary boundary is the formative boundary.
4.3.2.1 (i) Review of Literature on Morphology:

Morphology is the term which has Greek base meaning 'the study of forms'. Morphology is the study of words of a language. It is the grammar of words of a language. According to Aronoff and Fudeman (2005:1):

In linguistics morphology refers to the mental system involved in word formation or to the branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed.

Morphology is not only the study of the forms of words of a given point of time but it also studies the form of words used over a period of time. Thus, it can be said that it studies the words synchronically and diachronically. Matthews (1974:9) defines morphology in the following words:

Morphology is, briefly, the branch of grammar that deals with the internal structure of words. But although the word is a unit which is familiar in our culture, the notion that it has an internal structure is not.

Lyons (1968:194) has defined morphology and its relation with syntax:

According to a common formulation of the distinction between morphology and syntax, morphology deals with the internal structure of words and syntax with the rules governing their combination in sentences. The very terms ‘morphology’ is simply ‘the study of forms’ and ‘syntax’, and the way in which they are applied, imply the primacy of the word. Etymologically speaking, ‘morphology’ is simply ‘the study of forms’ and ‘syntax’ the theory of ‘putting together’: it was taken for granted by traditional grammarians that the ‘forms’ treated in grammar are the forms of words and that words are the units which are ‘put together’, or combined in sentences. In older books on language, the distinction between morphology and syntax is sometimes represented in terms of a distinction between ‘forms’ and ‘function’.

103
4.3.2.2 (ii) The Model for Morphology:

After looking into the various scholarly works that are carried out by scholars, for morphological analysis, an attempt has been made here to define some of the technical terms. At this juncture, the model suggested by Sastry (1984) has been taken into consideration.

The model for the morphological analysis of Phom language is based on the model of Sastry (1984), which he used for describing the morphology of Mishmi language. This model is selected as it also deals with another Tibeto-Burman language. He has dealt with all the morphological categories in a detailed manner. His presentation is of much use for the analysis of Phom language. However, Sastry has left out many points (or sometimes over emphasized). This research takes up those issues seriously. For reduplication Anvita Abbi's (2001) work has been referred.

The outline of the model of Sastry:

Sastry has discussed different morphological categories (Primary and Secondary) for Mishmi. Sometimes, his exact definitions are given and at some places the definitions are changed in order to analyze the data from Phom. Suggestions and alterations to the definitions given by Sastry (1984) have also been made and to process the obvious modified version, will simplify the process.

Word: A simple word in any language is a minimally meaningful free form which when segmented will have no more than one free form.
**Form Classes:** The stems of a language can be classified on the basis of their inflexional and functional behaviour. The classes of stems showing identical inflexional and functional behaviour are called ‘form classes’.

**Morphological Processes:**

a) **Suffixation:** It is a process of suffixing a bound morpheme to a stem. It is most productive morphological process of all the processes.

b) **Prefixation:** It could be termed as a process of adding a morpheme before a stem. According to Sastry it is the least common process.

c) **Reduplication:** It refers to a process of repeating a stem either completely or partially to modify the meaning of the stem.

d) **Compounding:** It is a process of word formation where two stems join to form a single word.

e) **Syncretism:** It is a process of coalescence of two or more grammatical categories to give rise to a single individual morpheme.

f) **Unmarked Forms:** It is a process not overtly marked.

g) **Suppletion:** It is the different realizations of a morpheme in different environments.
Nouns: The nouns are defined as a member of an open set of words, which can be inflected for case.

Classification of Nouns:

a) Mass Nouns: These nouns are always in singular forms, and not inflected for number.

b) Count Nouns: They can be inflected for number by adding either the plural suffix or a quantifier or a numeral.

Structure of the Nouns: A noun consists of a stem or a combination of stems followed by various suffixes. The suffixes may be nominalizer, a gender marker, a pluralizer or a classifier numeral combination, a case marker and a comparison marker.

Stem Formation-Inner Structure of Nouns: The inner structure of a noun centers on stem morphemes and the morphological processes, which modify such stems of varying complexity. These processes modify the semantic content of the stem.

a) Simple Stems: These are monomorphemic stems that have no analyzeable inner structure.

b) Derived Stems: These are polymorphemic stems. The nature of the constituent morphemes gives scope for a sub-categorisation.
c) **Primary Derived Stems**: These are polymorphemic stems in which no constituent morpheme is a stem by itself.

d) **Secondary Derived Stems**: These are stems composed of at least one simple and one derivative suffix. The constituent stem may belong to any class.

e) **Compound Stems**: These are the stems in which two or all of the constituent morphemes are, by themselves, stems.

**Gender**: The basic gender distinction rests between male and female. The gender can be grouped into Neuter, Common, Masculine and Feminine.

a) **Neuter**: These are the nouns representing inanimate objects.

b) **Common**: In common gender there is no distinction between male and female.

c) **Masculine**: The masculine gender can be expressed in three ways that is Lexical, Compounding and Suffixation. The non-human animate masculinity is expressed by the suffixes.

d) **Feminine**: The feminine gender can be expressed in three ways i.e. Lexical, Compounding and Suffixation. The non-human animate feminity of pre-productive, reproductive and post-productive are expressed by different suffixes.
**Number:** The count nouns are inflected for number. The number inflexion is between singular and plural.

a) **Singular:** The nouns are mostly lexically singular but they may be reinforced by the suffixes.

b) **Plural:** The nouns are overtly marked for plural. The inflexion is marked in four ways: by numerals, quantifiers and also pluralizing with the use of suffixes. The fourth plurals are the lexical plurals.

**Pronouns:** Pronouns form a sub-class of nouns. They can replace nouns. They are distinguished from nouns by the criterion of the person. Pronouns occur with reference to three persons - that is, the speaker, the person addressed to and the rest.

a) **Personal Pronouns:** They constitute one of the several classes of elements whose meaning is to be stated with reference to Diexis i.e. the spatio-temporal situation of the utterance.

b) **Interrogative Pronouns:** These pronouns replace the nouns and adverbs in interrogative sentences. The stem formation shows three stages- that is, the Simple Stage, Primary Derived Stems and Secondary Derived Stems. The fourth is Compound Stems.
c) **Demonstrative Pronouns:** The demonstrative shows only proximate remote distinction.

**Case:** The cases are those grammatical categories that relate the noun phrases to the predicates in the sentences. The case relations are the syntactic-semantic relations that exist between the noun phrase and the predicate.

a) **Nominative:** This relates the surface subject in the sentence to the predicate. The subject and the predicate agree to number and person. The different semantic functions are - Agent, Executor, Experiencer and Object.

b) **Accusative:** This relates to the surface object to the verb in the sentence.

c) **Dative:** The case relates the goal to the verb in the sentence. It cannot be topicalised. If it is not co-referential with the agent, the dative noun phrase may represent different types of goals, i.e. Recipient, Allative, and Benefactive.

d) **Ablative:** This case relates the source to the verb, where the source is not the agent. The case has three semantic functions. They are Donor, Source and Time.

e) **Instrumental:** The case relates the instruments to the verb in the sentence. The morphological realization is based on its two semantic functions: Instrument and Agent.
f) **Locative:** The case relates the locative or temporal noun phrase to the verb in the sentence.

**Adjectives:** Adjective as a member of the open class consists of all such words whose function in the language is to modify nouns.

**Classification of Adjectives:** Adjectives can be classified under two heads: Qualifiers and Quantifiers.

a) **Qualifiers:** These are the adjectives which indicate the qualities of the nouns associated with them.

b) **Quantifiers:** These are the adjectives which indicate quantity of the objects, group of the objects and number of the objects represented by the noun.

**Structure of Adjectives:** The adjectives can have a simple stem, combination of stems and various suffixes. It can be classified into Simple Stems, Derived Stems, Primary Derived Stems, Secondary Derived Stems and Compound Stems.

a) **Simple Stems:** These are monomorphemic stems with no analyzeable inner structure.

b) **Derived Stems:** These are polymorphemic stems analyzeable into either more than one simple stem or a simple stem with one or more affixes.
c) **Primary Derived Stems:** These are polymorphemic stems composed of two or more bound morphemes that is, neither of the constituent morpheme is a stem by itself.

d) **Secondary Derived Stems:** These are stems composed of one simple stem and one or more suffixes.

e) **Compound Stems:** These are the numerical stems derived from simple and secondary derived stems by compounding in different orders.

As we all know Adverb modifies the verb. **Structure of an Adverb:** The adverbs may also be derived. An adverb contains a stem or a bound morpheme and an adverbializing suffix.

a) **Primary Derived Stems:** These are polymorphemic stems consisting of two bound morphemes.

b) **Secondary Derived Stems:** These are polymorphemic stems derived from simple stems by suffixing an adverbializer or a case marker. The simple stem is either a noun or an adjective. They can be Derivatives from Adjectives and Derivatives from Nouns.

c) **Compound Stems:** These are partially or totally reduplicated primary derived stems.
Sentences as Adverbs: Some syntactic constructions are commonly used in simple sentences as adverbials.

Intensifiers: As a class, intensifiers contain all the words that modify an adjective or an adverb. The study of these words reveals no structural layers. In general, the morphological processes that modify stems may also lead to intensification.

a) Simple Stems: These are monomorphemic stems with no analyzeable inner structure. They always follow the adjectives and are adjective-specific i.e. the selection of the intensifier depends upon the choice of the adjective.

b) Reduplication: The adjective and the adverb stems are often reduplicated to bring about intensification. Adjectives may be partially or totally reduplicated.

Particles: The particles belong to a small closed set of words which are morphologically invariable and do not enter into true syntactic constructions with other syntactic components. They either stand apart like exclamations or relate events in discourse like coordinators.

Verb: It can be defined as any word that has been inflected for tense and mood.
Classification of Verbs:

**Transitivity:** The verbs are identified lexically by the number of arguments that are present in the sentence. There are four ways of classifying a verb taking into consideration of the following: the subject, object and the dative object (see 6.9.3).

a) **Ambient Verbs:** These require neither a subject nor an object. The verbs indicate a total environment without referring to anything specific within the environment. The sentence with such a verb is nothing but just a prediction. The subject, even if present, is an empty subject.

b) **Intransitive Verbs:** These require only a subject.

c) **Transitive Verbs:** These require a subject and an object.

d) **Recipient-Transitive Verbs:** These require a subject, an object and a dative object. In the dative nouns phrase case role is likely to be recipient.

Semantic Classification:

**States:** A state is conceived as existing, rather happening. It is continuous and unchanging throughout its duration. They are specified as condition, emotion, attribute or a quality. The verbs require an experiencer or an object as the subject.

a) **Existential Verb:** This verb specifies the existence of or belongingness to the subject, entity or being.
b) **Ambient State Verbs**: These are states, which represent a total environment in themselves without a need to refer to any being or entity within the environment.

c) **Qualitative State Verbs**: These are states, which specify the innate qualities or attributes.

d) **Sensory State Verbs**: These are states specified as mental or physiological that can be experienced or perceived only by the speaker.

e) **Cognitive State Verbs**: These are psychological states which represent the emotional relationships or perceptual abilities.

**Processes**: A process is a change of state happening over a span of time. It is conceived of as happening during which the object undergoes a metamorphosis. These verbs require an object as subject.

**Actions**: The verb is specified as an action, something which someone does something or something that gets done by itself without the aid of any external agency or stimuli. These verbs require an agent or an executor as subject or do not need any subject at all. There are different kinds of actions.

a) **Ambient Actions**: These are actions conceived of as happening by themselves without assigning any agent within the environment they represent.
b) **Motion Actions:** These are actions in the course of which there is a spatial displacement executed usually by the agent of itself or another entity in the environment.

c) **Sensory Actions:** These are non physical actions executed by or through his sense organs.

d) **Actions:** These are physical activities executed by the agent.

**Structure of verbs:** A verb consists of a stem or a combination of stems followed by various suffixes. The suffixes are a verbalizer, a concord marker, a mood marker, an aspect marker, a negativizer and primary and secondary reportive markers.

**Stem Formation-Inner Structure of verbs:** The inner structure of verbs centers on simple stems and the morphological processes may modify such stems to form stems of varying complexity. The morphological processes attested in stem formation are suffixation and compounding. These processes modify the semantic content of the stem. There are three broad classes of verb stems.

a) **Simple Stems:** These are monomorphemic stems that have no analyzeable inner structure.

b) **Derived stems:** These are polymorphemic stems consisting of one simple stem and a derivative suffix.
c) **Compound stems**: These are polymorphemic stems whose constituent morphemes are by themselves simple stems.

**Inflexion- Outer Structure of Verbs**: The morphological processes attested in the inflexion of verbs are suffixation, compounding, etc.

**Tense**: There is a four way tense system. The opposition is between past and future with an immediate and non-immediate distinction made for each.

**Past**:

a) **Recent Past**: when the speaker speaks of an event, which took place prior to the utterance, but neither resulted, nor was followed by another event. The verbal inflexion for recent past regardless of the time may have elapsed after the event.

b) **Remote Past**: When the utterance specifies an event, which occurred and was followed by another events. An event may not necessarily be a consequence of the first event. In this situation, the verb takes the remote past inflexion.

**Future**:

a) **Immediate Future**: When the speaker expects the event to follow the utterance without the intervention of any other event or without any time lag, the verb takes the inflexion for immediate future.
b) **Distant Future:** This tense is used in sequences where the time at which the event is not likely to follow whatever action is taking place right then.

**Aspect:** Aspect indicates the temporal distribution of the action. Irrespective of the temporal reference, it shows the state of the event at the time referred to.

There are three aspects: Habitual, Continuous, and Repetitive-Durative.

a) **Habitual:** A habitual event is one, which happens with a predictable regularity; or the speaker expects to happen as a matter of course; or it is a natural characteristic of the being the speaker refers to.

b) **Continuous:** The continuous aspect indicates that the event or action is in the course of happening at the time referred to by the speaker.

c) **Repetitive-Durative:** This aspect indicates a repeated or sustained happening of the event over a period of time.

**Mood:** Mood expresses the attitude of the speaker towards the happening of the event or state represented by the sentence. It shows differing degrees of reality, desirability, contingency, and so on. Moods do not show any tense distinction.

a) **Compleitive:** This mood indicates the end of the event or state represented by the sentence.
b) **Imperative**: This mood indicates the permission or the command to the subject by the speaker to perform the event or the action identified by the verb.

c) **Capabilitative**: This mood indicates the ability of the subject to perform the action or event represented by the verb.

d) **Permissive**: This mood indicates the permission given to the subject to perform the action or the event represented in the sentence.

e) **Necessitative**: This mood indicates the need or the advisability on the part of the subject to perform the action or event indicated by the verb in the sentence.

f) **Probabilitative**: This mood indicates the likelihood or the temporal uncertainty of performing the event or happening of the state represented in the sentence.

g) **Decisive**: This mood indicates the decision or determination of the subject of the sentence to perform the action or event represented by the verb.

h) **Determinitative**: This mood indicates the determination or decision of the speaker to bring about the happening of the event or state represented by the verb.
i) **Definitive:** This mood indicates the certainty of the speaker towards the performance or happening of the action, event or state represented by the verb and also indicates the inevitability of the happening of the action, state or event.

j) **Repetitive:** This can be explained on the basis of discourse. When the verb takes the repetitive inflexion, the mood signifies that the action denoted by the verb has happened once before during the discourse.

**Concord:** This is the agreement of the verbal form with the subject of the sentence. These features pertain to the categories of person and number. It can be marked in two ways: Suffixation and by Suppletion.

**Causative:** Causative refers to the instigation of the event by an external stimulus.

**Movement:** The verbs can be inflected for movement. It indicates the action, represented by the verb. Some movement must precede it. The movement is necessarily directional, in the sense that the movement is either towards or away from the speaker prior to the event.

**Reportive:** The events are reported by the means of the addition of a reportive morpheme to the predicate in the sentence. Any event can be reported twice successively.