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### Comparative Study of Shina and English Compounds

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Original Article

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#### Keywords

Shina compounds, Shina Morphology, Number and Gender, Type of compounds, Word formation.

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#### Abstract

*This study presents a comparative analysis of Shina and English compounds based on word formation by utilizing Construction Morphology as a framework proposed by Booij (2010). In the Shina language, compounds are constructed by combining different words to create new words with entirely new meanings. Compounds are formed by combining nouns, adjectives, and verbs to create new meanings. Verb-verb compounds also occur, where multiple verbs are combined to express actions or concepts although these formations may not always be explicit. Moreover, compounds in Shina often follow the endocentric pattern where one word acts as the main part or "head" that determines the whole meaning. In Shina morphology, the Left Hand Rule (LHR) dictates that the head of a compound word is determined by the left-hand member of the compound. However, not all compounds in Shina follow this rule, and exocentric compounds are also common. Interestingly, compound words in Shina not only convey meaning but also indicate grammatical features such as number and gender which reflect the language's morphological system. The study can be beneficial for language documentation and has the potential to enrich the lexicon and morphological studies of Shina. Furthermore, the study may aid in the analysis of linguistic structures in Shina.*

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#### Introduction

Compounding is a fundamental process in language that involves combining two or more forms to create a new word. The morphological operations are found in virtually all languages and also are the primary source of word formation in some languages, such as Shina, which is spoken in northern Pakistan. The concept of compounding has been given by various scholars in the field of

linguistics. Marchand (1960) defines compounds as morphological units formed by combining two or more words. Katamba (1993) describes compounding as the process of combining words or morphemes to create new words. For example, in English, “water” and “fall” can be combined to form “waterfall” which refers to a cascade of water. Similarly, “tooth” and “brush” can be combined to form “toothbrush” which is a tool used for cleaning teeth. In essence, compounds are created by combining lexical elements to form a new morphological unit, although slight variations exist in scholars’ precise definitions (Marchand, 1960; Katamba, 1993; Fabb, 1998; Olsen, 2000).

Shina is a Dardic language spoken by people living in a large mountainous region that stretches from northern areas of Pakistan to northwestern India, including Azad Kashmir and Indian-held Kashmir. The local pronunciation of Shina varies slightly, with some people pronouncing it as /ʃɪnãã/ and others as /ʃɪnãã/. According to Kohistani and Schmidt (2006), the Shina-speaking areas are Gilgit, lower Hunza, Tangir-Darel, Astor, and Chilas valleys and areas in Indus Kohistan. In India, Shina is spoken in the Neelam (Kishenganga) drainage, the Gurez and Tiliel valleys, the Drass Plain, and Ladakh. In Jammu and Kashmir, there are two main varieties of Shina: Gurezi, which is spoken in the Gurez valley of District Bandipora in the Kashmir Division, and Drasi, which is spoken in the Drass area of Kargil District in the Ladakh Division (Schmidt et al. 2008). Like many other Dardic languages, Shina does not have a long history of written texts. It was only a few decades ago that an orthographic system was designed, and the language is now written in the Perso-Arabic script. Compounding is a fundamental aspect of the Shina morphology like many other languages. Despite its significance in language use, the formation of compound words in Shina has not yet received extensive attention in linguistic research. This study aims to contribute to the understanding of the formation, structure, and function of Shina compounds by investigating the nature of compounding in the language.

The study on compounds in the Shina language holds significant importance in multiple dimensions. It may contribute to the broader field of linguistic typology by providing an in-depth analysis of compounding in a lesser-studied language. Furthermore, since Shina is classified as an endangered language in the region, this study holds potential for language promotion and documentation efforts.

### **Research Objectives**

- To analyze the structures and functions of Shina compounds.
- To examine the linguistic processes contributing to the formation of Shina compounds.

### **Literature Review**

The concept of compound words is a subject that has been approached by various scholars in the field of linguistics. Marchand (1960) defines a compound as a morphological unit created by combining two or more words. According to Katamba (1993), compounding is the process of combining two or more words or morphemes to create new words. Compound words can be created using bare roots or input bases containing affixed forms. Bare roots refer to the combining of two or more root morphemes to create new words with unpredictable meanings.

The analysis of compounds has been of great interest to linguists, especially in the field of morphology. One approach to analyzing compounds is based on the notion of head, which refers to the most important or central element in a compound. The head is identified by looking at the syntactic and semantic properties of the left or right-hand constituents in the compound. The notion of the head in American Structuralism is originally defined as the descendant constituent that has the same distribution of the resulting phrase. As Bloomfield (1933) explains, in linguistics, a

compound word can have one part that is more important than the other. This more important part is called the “head.” In some cases, the head is the part of the word that tells us what kind of word it is. For example, in the word “poor John,” “John” is the head because it tells us that the word is a person’s name. The other part, “poor,” is called an “attribute,” because it describes the head.

The concept of “head” in complex words refers to the structural constituent that is more important than the others. This concept is still being debated among linguists, as it can be determined by different factors, such as syntactic hierarchy or semantic and pragmatic factors. However, what exactly makes a constituent dominant over others is not yet fully understood. The word “postman” is made up of two words “post” and “man,” but it doesn’t have a clear main word that represents its meaning. Although it has a meaning related to delivering letters, it’s not an example of one word being a type of the other. Also, the distribution of “postman” doesn’t correspond exactly to the distribution of either “post” or “man”. This means that we need to look at both the meaning and structure of the word to understand it, rather than just looking at the individual parts (Fábregas & Masini, 2015).

Williams (1981) states that the head of a morphologically complex word is the rightmost member of the word it indicates that the head of a compound word is the second member. The Right-hand Head Rule (RHR) is a linguistic principle that describes this pattern of the head being located at the right end of a morphologically complex word. This means that in a compound word, the second member is the head, such as in “blackbird” where “bird” is the head. However, this rule does not apply to all languages and there are exceptions even in English. For example, in Italian, the prominent member of compounds is located to the left, while in some Germanic languages; certain prefixes behave like heads because they change the grammatical category of the base, which means they are more prominent than the base. This suggests that the RHR is not an absolute rule and may vary depending on the language and the specific context (Fábregas & Masini, 2015).

In English, compound words can be made up of different combinations of word classes such as Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs. For example, “lipstick” is a compound word made up of “lip” (a noun) and “stick” (another noun). However, not all types of word class combinations are equally productive. The N+N pattern is very productive in English, meaning that new compound words can be created easily and frequently, without attracting much attention. However, other patterns like V+N or N+V are less productive. In languages like Sanskrit, which have many different inflected forms for words, the first part of a compound word is typically a pure stem, rather than an inflected word form. This can be seen in N + N/A compounds in Sanskrit, where the first member of the compound has a specific form that is not found in the inflectional paradigm. For example, in the Sanskrit compound word “deva-sena”, meaning “army of gods”, “deva” (god) is the first member and its pure stem form. Similarly, “pati-justa” means, “dear to the spouse”, “patih” (spouse) is the first member and it is a pure stem form (Haspelmath, & Sims, 2013).

Endocentric compounds are a type of compound where the meaning of the entire word is a subset of the meaning of one of the words in the compound, which is called the semantic head. In English, the semantic head of an endocentric compound is usually the second word in the compound. For example, in “lipstick”, the meaning of the word “lipstick” is a type of “stick”, which is the semantic head. However, in other languages like Spanish, the semantic head of endocentric compounds is often the first word in the compound (Haspelmath & Sims, 2013). On the other hand, exocentric compounds lack a head and cannot be identified by either of their constituents (Bauer, 2003), such as ‘Overseas’. In this compound, two separate entities combine to create new a meaning than their constituents. The semantic head is not clear and it does not provide the central meaning.

Exocentric compounds, like “overseas”, exhibit semantic ambiguity by combining two separate entities to create a meaning different from their constituents. For instance, “overseas” refers to being in a foreign country (abroad). The absence of a direct definition for “seas” categorizes it as an exocentric compound.

This study investigates the formation, functions, and structures of compound words in Shina, aiming to enhance the understanding of compounding in this language and its role within the broader linguistic system. By examining the comparatively less explored phenomenon of Shina compounds, the research seeks to fill a significant gap in linguistic knowledge. Additionally, it provides a comparative analysis of English compounds, contributing to the broader field of comparative linguistics.

### **Methodology and Research Design**

The research approach used in this study is the descriptive method, aiming to provide a comprehensive description and structure of compounds in the Shina language. To analyze and interpret the data and address the research questions, the study adopted this method, which involves careful observation, documentation, and analysis of linguistic data. Descriptive linguistics serves as the foundation for describing a language, beginning with the collection of data from various native speakers within the linguistic community. According to Mitchell and Jolly (1988), the descriptive method involves progressing from describing a single variable to describing relationships among variables, making it an ideal approach for this linguistic research.

### **Data Collection Procedure**

The data was collected from the native speakers of the Shina language. Samarin (1967) stressed the necessity of native speakers for obtaining crucial data or corpus essential for studying language structures. Stern (1983) defined a native speaker as someone possessing subconscious knowledge of language rules, the ability to identify whether a language structure that is produced is acceptable or not, and creativity in language usage.

The study used participant observation to collect compound words from the native speakers and that felt to be a valuable research method to collect data from native Shina speakers. By doing this researcher understood how compound words are used in everyday speech and being a native speaker, it was an appropriate technique to collect data from the Shina community. The researcher employed participant observation as described by Gehman et al. (2013) to collect compound words. This involves observing various situations and settings that could be meetings, sessions of supervision and counseling of employees, small talk over lunch, special events, and engagement with external actors, the sayings and doings, Sites include offices and meeting rooms, hallways and common areas, or virtual sites like phone calls and email correspondence over the internet (Gehman et al., 2013). The researcher was actively engaged in observing and documenting the usage of compound words by native speakers from the period of 2022 to 2024.

### **Theoretical Framework**

The study utilized Construction Morphology as a framework to analyze the formation processes, functional aspects, and structural properties of compound words. Construction Morphology is a linguistic framework that was proposed by Booij (2010) as an alternative to traditional derivational and inflectional approaches to word formation. It views compounds as constructions, where the constituents interact to create a new meaning and often exhibit specific syntactic and semantic properties. Within this framework, the study can explore the productive word formation processes

in Shina. It can analyze the role of these processes in constructing new compound words and examine how they contribute to the overall structure and meaning of the compounds.

### Data Analysis

#### Formation of Compound Words in the Shina Language

Table 1: Compound words with their meaning

No	Initial word	Second word	New word
1.	Rati /ráti/ (night)	Suri /su:rhi/ (day)	/ráti su:rhi/ (all time)
2.	Shah /ʃa:/ (vegetable)	Shani /ʃáni/ (farming)	/ʃa: ʃáni/ (cultivation)
3.	In /ɪŋ/ (inside)	par /pa:r/ (outside)	/ɪŋ pa:r/ excuses/irregular.
4.	Malo /málo/ (father)	dado /dádo <sup>h</sup> / (grandfather)	/málo dádo <sup>h</sup> / (ancestors)
5.	Rok /rók/ (to cry)	Hayok /hájo:k/ (to laugh).	/rók hájo:k/ (anxious/unsatisfied)

The study focuses on understanding how words are combined in the Shina language to form compound words. It examines how these compound words are made, what they do, and what characteristics they possess. By looking closely at compounding in Shina, the study aims to better understand how it works in this language and how it fits into the language as a whole. Compounding is a fundamental process in language that involves combining two or more forms to create a new word. The morphological operations are found in virtually all languages and also are the primary source of word formation in some languages, such as Shina. Marchand (1960) describes compounds as morphological units formed by combining two or more words. Katamba (1993) defines compounding as the process of combining words or morphemes to create new words. When this criterion is applied in the Shina language, similarly, compound words are formed by putting two or more words together to create a new word with a unique meaning. This process is important for understanding how words work together in Shina. For example, in Shina, the words “Rati” /ráti/ (night) and “Suri” /so:rí/ (day) can be combined to form “Rati-Suri” /ra:ti so:rí/ which means “all time.” Even though “night” and “day” are opposites. When they’re combined, they create a new meaning. Another example is “Shah-Shani,” /ʃa: ʃáni/ where “Shah” /ʃa:/ means vegetable/dish and “shani” /ʃáni/ means crop. Together, they mean “cultivation.” In Shina, the words “in” /ɪŋ/ (inside) and “par” /pa:r/ (outside) combine to mean “excuses/irregular.” Malo dado”/málo dádo<sup>h</sup>/ means ancestors in Shina. “Malo” /málo/ means father and “dado” /dádo<sup>h</sup>/ means grandfather. Together, they refer to ancestors. Similarly, “Rok” /rók/means to cry, and “Hayok” /hájo:k/ means to laugh. Together, they mean “anxious” or “unsatisfied.” Comparing with English, both languages use compounding to form new words. In English, words like “butterfly” and “blackboard” are compound words. However, the structure and meanings of compound words may vary between Shina and English due to differences in grammar, culture, and usage. In Shina, compounds are often formed by combining two or more nouns. For example, the compound “púšo gáño” means “wreath of flowers.” Here, “púšo” means “flower” and “gáño” means “wreath.” When combined, they create a new word that refers to a wreath made of flowers. This illustrates how nouns can come together in Shina to form compound words with specific meanings (Rajapurohit 2012).

### Adjective + Noun compounds

Table 2: Adjective + Noun compounds with their meanings

No	Adjective	Noun	New word
1.	baro /bλɾo/ (big)	moz /mu:z/ (meat)	/bλɾo mu:z/ (beef)
2.	Chuno /tʃúnɔ/ (small)	moz /mós/ (meat)	/tʃúnɔ mós/ (mutton)
3.	Baro/bλɾo/ (elder)	malo /málo/ (father)	/bλɾo málo/ (the elder brother of father)
4.	Sujo /súzu/ (sacred)	Wai /wai/ (water)	/súzu wai/ (zam zam)
5.	Nao /na:v/ (new)	Kal /ka:l/ (year)	/na:v ka:l/ (New Year)
6.	Kini /kʰɪnɪ/ (black)	Filili philí:lɪ/ (ant)	/kʰɪnɪ philí:lɪ/ (Black ant)
7.	Pomoko /pomúko/ (first)	Shudar /ʃuda:r/ (child)	/pomúko ʃuda:r/ (first-born child)

In English, compounds formed by combining an adjective with a noun are quite common. Examples include “fancy dress,” “blackberry,” “sweetheart,” “madman,” and “blueprint”. It can sometimes be challenging to distinguish between a compound and a noun phrase, and the stress pattern is often the key factor. In English, compounds typically have stress on the first element, while phrases tend to be stressed on the last word. This distinction is known as the nuclear stress rule for phrases and the compound stress rule for compounds. The difference in stress patterns between compounds and phrases is well-documented in linguistics (Plag, 2003, 176). On the other hand, in China, compounds consisting of an adjective followed by a noun are also frequent. For example, “ǝǝáromanúzo” means “old man,” while “ǝǝáridádih” means “old woman.” In both cases, the adjective “ǝǝáro” or “ǝǝári” is combined with the noun “manúzo” or “dádih” to create a new word that refers to an elderly person of a particular gender (Rajapurohit 2012). Another example is “Baro moz,” /bλɾo mu:z/ where “baro” /bλɾo/ (meaning “big”) is combined with “moz” /mós/ (meaning “meat”), resulting in “beef.” Similarly, “Chuno moz” /tʃúnɔ mós/ combines “chuno” /tʃúnɔ/ (meaning “small”) with “moz,” /mós/ giving “mutton.” These compound words help specify different types of meat based on their size or other characteristics. Further examples include “baro malo” / bλɾo málo/ (meaning “the elder brother of the father”), “Sujo wai” / súzu wai/ [meaning “sacred water” (zam zam)], “Nao kal” /na:v ka:l/ (meaning “New Year”), “Kini filili” /kʰɪnɪ philí:lɪ/ (meaning “black ant”), and “Pomoko shudar” /pomúko ʃuda:r/ (meaning “first child”). In each case, the adjective modifies the subsequent noun as a result a compound word describes a specific entity or concept.

The stress pattern plays a crucial role in identifying compound words, especially when they are not written together or hyphenated. It helps distinguish compound words from phrases. In China, as in many languages, the stress pattern in adjective + noun compounds falls on the first element. For example, /bλɾo málo/ (meaning “the elder brother of the father”), “Sujo wai” /súzu wai/ (meaning “sacred water” or zam zam), /na:v ka:l/ (meaning “New Year”), “Kini filili” /kʰɪnɪ philí:lɪ/ (meaning “black ant”), and “Pomoko shudar” /pomúko ʃuda:r/ (meaning “first child”), the stress consistently falls on the first word of each compound. Moreover, understanding this stress pattern is essential for recognizing compound words and distinguishing them from phrases. It helps in proper pronunciation and comprehension of the intended meaning.

**Noun+ Noun Compounds**

*Table 3: Noun + Noun compounds with their meanings*

No	Noun	Noun	New word
1.	Rati /ráti/ (night)	Suri /súri/ (day)	/ráti súri/ (every time)
2.	Sa /sa/ (sister)	Saoo /savo/ (nephew)	/savo/ (maternal family)
3.	Shilai /ʃhɪlɪ/ (clothes)	Khoi /khwe/ (cap)	/ʃhɪlikhwe/ (clothing)
4.	blat /b <sup>h</sup> ala:t/ (night)	lustak /lusta:k/ (next day)	/b <sup>h</sup> ala:t lusta:k/ (every time)
5.	sum /som/ (sand)	dal /da:l/ (ash)	/som da:l/ (remnant)
6.	go /gõ/ (cow)	mal /ma:l/ (animals)	/gõ ma:l/ (dairy animals)
7.	rati /ráti/ (night)	lo /lo:/ (morning)	/rati lo:/ (all night)

Compound nouns formed by combining two nouns are common in English and Shina. In both languages, this form of compounding is highly productive and allows the creation of new compound words easily. For example, in English, “cable car,” “honey-bee,” and “cartwheel” demonstrate this productive nature (Quirk et al, 1995). Similarly, in Shina, both are noun+ noun compounds and also show this structure. Moreover, in Shina, compound nouns can reflect cultural and societal aspects. For instance, compounds like /ráti súri/ (every time) reveal how language captures concepts important to speakers’ daily lives. Similarly, compounds like /sa savo/ (maternal family) and /ʃhɪlikhwe/ (clothing) provide insight into social structures and activities. Moreover, /b<sup>h</sup>ala:t lusta:k/ (every time), /sum da:l/ (ash), /gõ ma:l/ (dairy animals), and /ráti lo:/ (all night) are also formed by combining two nouns and it reflects the creativity and flexibility of language in expressing various concepts and relationships.

**Verb + Verb Compounds**

*Table 4: Verb + Verb compounds with their meanings*

No	Verb	Verb	New word
1.	Khok /k <sup>h</sup> ó:k <sup>h</sup> / (eat)	Piyok /pijó:k <sup>h</sup> / (drink)	/k <sup>h</sup> ó:k <sup>h</sup> pijó:k <sup>h</sup> / (edible).
2.	Rok /ró:k <sup>h</sup> / (grief)	Hyok /həjó:k <sup>h</sup> / (joy)	/ru:k <sup>h</sup> həjó:k <sup>h</sup> / (sentiments).
3.	Wok /wó:k <sup>h</sup> / (come)	Bjok /budʒu:k <sup>h</sup> / (go)	/wu:k <sup>h</sup> buʒó:k <sup>h</sup> / (travel).

The phenomenon of verb + verb compounds are linguistic structures where multiple verbs are used together to convey a single complex action or idea. These constructions are common in various languages, including Shina. Although they may not always be explicitly identified like other forms of compound words. For example, /k<sup>h</sup>ó:k<sup>h</sup>/ (eat) and /pijó:k<sup>h</sup>/ (drink) together form k<sup>h</sup>ó:k<sup>h</sup> pijó:k<sup>h</sup>/ which means (edible). Similarly, /ró:k<sup>h</sup>/ (grief) and /həjó:k<sup>h</sup>/ (joy) combine to mean (sentiments). In these compounds, the individual meanings of the verbs are integrated to form a new meaning that may not be directly deducible from the meanings of the individual verbs. In Shina, /wó:k<sup>h</sup>/ (come) and /buʒó:k<sup>h</sup>/ (go) combine to form /wu:k<sup>h</sup> buʒó:k<sup>h</sup>/ (travel). Here, /wó:k<sup>h</sup>/ may indicate the main action of movement towards a destination, while /budʒu:k<sup>h</sup>/ specifies the direction or manner of the movement. This happens when two verbs come together to show an action or how something is done. These compounds are like derivational morphology that allows speakers to create new words and convey new meanings. Derivational morphology is important because it allows speakers

to expand the vocabulary of a language often by altering the meaning or function of existing words. It plays a crucial role in language productivity and allows for the formation of complex lexical structures.

### Endocentric Compounds in Shina

*Table 5: Endocentric compounds with their meanings*

No	Compound word	Head	Modifier
1.	/súznu pəthʉ/	/pəthʉ/	/súznu/
2.	/bʌɾo málo/	/málo/	/bʌɾo/
3.	/súzu wai/	/wai/	/súzu/

Endocentric compounds are compounds where one of the constituent elements (usually the first one) is the head or main element, and the compound as a whole inherits the grammatical category of this head. In simpler words, the compound has a central element that determines its meaning and category. According to Haspelmath and Sims (2010), an endocentric compound consists of a head and a dependent, also the meaning of the entire compound is a hyponym of a semantic head. According to Katamba (1993), most English compounds are endocentric means their heads are located in the right position. It denotes that a compound is endocentric when its initial word functions as a modifier and contributes to defining the meaning of a head. The head determines the syntactic and semantic properties of the whole compound. For example, Cinema Hall is an endocentric compound in which ‘cinema’ is a modifier and ‘hall’ is a head component. The compound as a whole refers to a hall in which people come to watch movies. So, ‘cinema hall’ is a hyponym of the head constituent. Similarly, there are many other endocentric compounds found in the English language, for example, classroom, textbook, newspaper, bookstore, handbag, etc.

In Shina, consider the compound word /súznu pəthʉ/ which means “identity card.” This compound is endocentric, meaning one of the words is the main part, called the “head,” which determines the overall meaning. In this case, “/pəthʉ/ is the head because it gives the main idea of the compound, which is “card.” The other part, /súznu/ helps specify what type of card it is, and also makes it a modifier. Similarly, there are other examples like /bʌɾo málo/ which means “the elder brother of father,” and /súzu wai/ meaning “sacred water” (like zam zam), In these compounds, the second word serves as the head in the compounds. In English, most compounds also follow this pattern, where the main idea is determined by the first word. For instance, in “school bus,” “school” is the main idea, and “bus” specifies what kind of school transport it is. Understanding whether a compound is endocentric helps us to know which word is the most important and sets the meaning for the whole word. In English compounds, the right-hand member serves as the head because it specifies the category of the compound word. In Shina morphology, the Left-hand Head Rule (LHR) defines the head of a morphologically complex word as its left-hand member. This principle stands in contrast to the Right-hand Head Rule (RHR) observed in English. This distinction sheds light on how compounds are categorized in each language based on their lexical class membership. The difference arises from the distinct writing systems employed by each language. English, following a left-to-right writing direction, employs the RHR, whereas Shina script, influenced by Arabic Persian lexigraphy adopts a right-to-left direction thus giving rise to the LHR.

**Exocentric Compounds in Shina**

*Table 6: Exocentric compounds with their meanings*

No	Existing word	Existing word	Exocentric compounds
1.	Shilai /ʃhɪli/ (clothes)	Khoi /khwe/ (cap)	/ʃhɪlikhwe/ (clothing)
2.	blat /b <sup>h</sup> ala:t/ (night)	lustak /lusta:k/ (next day)	/b <sup>h</sup> ala:t lusta:k/ (every time)
3.	sum /som/ (sand)	dal /da:l/ (ash)	/som da:l/ (remnant)
4.	go /gõ/ (cow)	mal /ma:l/ (animals)	/gõ ma:l/ (dairy animals)
5.	Di /di:/ (daughter)	Puch /puʃ/ (son)	/di: puʃ/ (offspring)
6.	Shall /ʃa:l/ (kid)	/ba:l/ (boy)	/ʃa:l'ba:l/ (children)

These compounds lack a head and a dependent component. According to Bauer (2003), exocentric compounds are those whose sub-class cannot be identified by either of their constituents. Exocentric compounds have increased the interest of scholars concerning the formation of ambiguous words such as ‘overseas’. In this compound, two separate entities combine to give a different meaning than their constituents. The semantic head is not clear and it does not provide the central meaning, unlike endocentric compounds. Whereas, In the Shina language many compounds are exocentric. It simply means their meanings can’t be deduced from their parts alone. External context is needed to understand them fully. For example, /ʃhɪlikhwe/ means “clothing” and sheds light on social structures and activities. Additionally, in Shina, compounds like /b<sup>h</sup>ala:t lusta:k/ (every time), /som da:l/ (ash), /gõ ma:l (dairy animals), /di: puʃ/ (offspring), and /ʃa:l'ba:l/ (children) exhibit similar characteristics, requiring context for interpretation.

**Number and Gender of Compound Words**

*Table 4.7: Number and gender of compounds with their meanings*

No	Compound words	Affixations	Pluralization
1.	di-puch /di: puʃ/ (offspring)	-ei	di-puch-ei
2.	Kini filili /k <sup>h</sup> ɪɪɪ phili:l/ (black ant)	-ye	kini filil-ye
3.	Sa-saoo /sa savo/ (maternal family)	-ei	Saa-saoo-ei
4.	shilai-khoi /ʃhɪlikhwe/ (clothing)	-ye	shilai-khoi-ye

In both English and Shina languages, pluralizing compound nouns follow distinct patterns. In English, compound nouns formed such as “red apple” or “big cat,” typically adopt a straightforward pluralization rule. When referring to multiple instances of such compound nouns the plural marker “s” is added to the noun component, while the adjective remains unchanged. For instance, “red apple” becomes “red apples,” and “big cat” becomes “big cats” when indicating more than one. In Shina, the process of pluralizing compound nouns involves more intricate rules, particularly concerning gender and phonological changes. Shina language employs various plural suffixes such as, /-ai/, /-ye/, /-ei/, /-zi/, and /-i/. Furthermore, when dealing with masculine nouns in Shina that end in ‘-o’ or ‘-u’ in their singular form, these endings change to ‘-ei’ and ‘-i’ respectively when they become plural. On the other hand, feminine nouns typically end in ‘-i,’ and when they become plural, the ‘-i’ changes to ‘-ye.’ It’s important to note that there are exceptions to this rule. For a few feminine nouns, the plural form deviates slightly (Anwar et al., 2022). Masculine nouns ending in ‘-o’ or ‘-u’ in their singular form alter to ‘-ei’ and ‘-i’ respectively in the plural form. For example, “di-puch” /di: puʃ/ (offspring) becomes “di-puch-ei” in its plural form. On the other hand, feminine

nouns, typically ending in ‘-i,’ transform where the ‘-i’ ending changes to ‘-ye’ in the plural. For instance, “Kini filili” /k<sup>h</sup>ɪnɪ philí:lɪ/ (meaning “black ant”) transforms to “kini filil-ye” in its plural form. Similarly, “Sa-saoo” /sa savo/ (maternal family) becomes “Saa-saoo-ei,” and “shilai-khoi” /ʃhɪlikhwe/ (clothing) changes to “shilai-khoi-ye” to denote more than one. These pluralization patterns highlight the linguistic complexity in Shina morphology where various suffixes are employed to convey plurality based on the gender and phonological structure of the compound nouns.

In Shina compounds do not only convey meaning but also indicate grammatical gender, reflecting the language’s natural system of gender agreement. This gender marking extends to various linguistic elements including nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and others to ensure coherence within sentences. Compound words in Shina often exhibit gender agreement between their constituent parts. For instance, when forming compound words if the head of the compound has a feminine gender, mostly resulting compound will also be feminine. Conversely, if the head of a compound is masculine, the resulting compound will exhibit masculine gender. This agreement in gender marking helps maintain linguistic coherence and aids in effective communication among Shina speakers. Examples further illustrate this phenomenon. In the compound /bɛɾo málo/ (meaning “the elder brother of the father”), /bɛɾo/ reflects masculine gender, and this gender attribution carries over to the compound. Similarly, /súzu wai/ (meaning “sacred water” or zam zam) features /wai/ which is masculine, so the compound will also be a masculine gender. Likewise, /na:v ka:l/ (meaning “New Year”) where /ka:l/ takes masculine agreement, resulting in the compound being masculine. In contrast, /k<sup>h</sup>ɪnɪ philí:lɪ/ (meaning “black ant”) features /philí:lɪ/ a term with feminine gender, resulting in the compound being feminine. This consistent gender agreement in compound words highlights the linguistic complexities of Shina morphology and its performance of grammatical rules.

### **Conclusion**

This study offers a comparative analysis of compound word formation processes in Shina and English. It examines the formation of compound words in the Shina language and contrasts these processes with those in English to develop a better understanding of compounding. In Shina, compounds are constructions where various elements combine to create new meanings, similar to English. These compounds typically involve nouns, adjectives, and verbs, sometimes forming verb-verb compounds to express actions or concepts. Predominantly, compounds in Shina adhere to an endocentric pattern wherein one constituent serves as the primary “head,” and the other as a modifier. However, it is noteworthy that not all compounds in Shina strictly adhere to this structural convention and exocentric compounds are also common. Exocentric compounds present intriguing linguistic phenomena, as they may not directly correlate with the individual meanings of their constituent elements. Interestingly, Shina compound words not only convey meaning but also indicate grammatical gender, which reflects the language’s number and gender agreement system. Pluralizing compound nouns in Shina involves gender-specific suffixes. This gender-specific pluralization mechanism underscores Shina’s systematic gender marking within its morphological structure. Moreover, compound words are interesting because they show how the gender of the main word, called the “head noun,” affects the gender of the entire compound. If the head noun is masculine or feminine, it determines whether the whole compound is considered masculine or feminine. Furthermore, this study is significant as it can be helpful in language documentation, enriches the lexicon, and aids in the promotion and analysis of linguistic structures in Shina.

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