

Endocentric and Exocentric Terms, Their Functions in English

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Abstract. The article deals with the formation of endocentric and exocentric terms. In this study, the object that the researcher analyzed is the endocentric and exocentric phrase that are found in English language.

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Endocentric phrase is one which functionally equivalent to the one or more constituents. That is a word or a group of words, which as a definable head. Usually noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase and adverbial phrase fit in to endocentric types because the constituent substances are subordinate to the head. This type of phrases the primary constituent or constituents are comparable to the whole construction. For example, the phrase good old Ali is endocentric because of the headword Ali, which is a noun. The rest of the phrase, apart from the head, is optional and can be detached without losing the basic meaning. The opposite of an endocentric phrase is an exocentric phrase. An exocentric phrase, which the primary constituent or constituents do not function like the complete construction. For example, in the hotel is exocentric because the constituent the hotel functions differently from the prepositional phrase.

The exocentric denotes to a group of syntactically connected words where no words are functionally equal to the group as whole, so there is no definable head inside the group or the middle phrase signifies the head. Phrases have something in common which namely define as head. (Aarts, 2001: 104) Except for the obligatory element (Head - H), some other elements within phrases to justify the meaning of a head. These are determiners, modifiers and complements. Determiners occur only in noun phrases (NPs). Determiners include articles, demonstratives, quantifiers, and possessive determiners. They are not formal word classes, but functional elements of construction (e.g. this book). Modifiers almost appear in all types of phrases. Modifier is a word, phrase or a clause which functions as an adjective or adverb to bound or quantify the meaning of another word called the head. According to its place in relation to the head it is as premodifier which appears in front of the head, for example, a beautiful flower “a” as premodifier. Post modifier which seems after the head, for example, a boat big enough to hold us”. Modifiers of verbs are called adjuncts. For example, in a sentence “My mother bought a gift for Ali in London last month”, the verb bought controls all the other phrases in the clause and is the head of the clause. Time expressions in London, and last month, convey the information when and where something happened. They are always optional and are held to be adjuncts.

The definition of exocentricity hinges on the notion of head in morphology. *Exocentricity* and its opposite, *endocentricity*, describe the two possible relationships between compound constituents and the compound lexeme they make up. In *endocentric* compounds, one of the constituent lexemes is the head, that is, the lexical item with the semantico-syntactic features that are passed on to the whole

compound. In *exocentric* compounds, the features of the whole are not attributable to the constituents and must be sought elsewhere.

Exocentric compounds can be divided into two broad classes, namely, syntactic (or formal) and semantic exocentric compounds. *Syntactic exocentric compounds* exhibit a mismatch between the grammatical category of their constituents and that of the whole. *Semantic exocentric compounds* are exocentric by virtue of their meaning alone, their structure providing no clues of their nonliteral interpretation. Historically, most descriptive and theoretical analyses of exocentricity have focused on syntactic exocentric compounds. On the basis of large but non-exhaustive databases of the world languages, it has been shown that exocentric compounds are marked. With a few exceptions, exocentric compound patterns are both less frequent cross-linguistically and less likely to be used in those languages that can have them. However, some patterns recur with remarkable regularity in the world's languages. These include possessive compounds (known by their Sanskrit name, *bahuvrīhi*), which combine a description of a part to denote the whole (e.g., Eng. *sabretooth*). Deverbal nominal compounds are also robust in many language families, such as Romance; these compounds combine a verb and its direct object to denote an agent or instrument (e.g., Fr. *portefeuilles* 'briefcase,' lit. 'carry+papers'). A third highly frequent exocentric compounding pattern combines two constituents of the same grammatical category to create a lexeme of a different word class (e.g., Japanese *daisho* 'size,' lit. 'small+large'). It should be noted that the basic distinction between syntactic and semantic exocentric compounds can become blurred because any lexicalized compound, regardless of its internal structure, is potentially susceptible to metaphoric meaning shifts and to formal recategorization through conversion. Although exocentricity is a syntactico-semantic feature typically attributed to compounds, other morphological structures may occasionally exhibit similar behavior, namely, phrasal chunks or "syntactic freezes."

Exocentric compounds create interesting challenges to rule-based accounts of morphology, including both lexicalist hypotheses and also those that subsume word formation operations to those of syntax. In both types of proposals, the features of all constructions are attributable to their head, so that accounting for the mismatch exhibited by exocentric compounds requires structural adjustments. Cognitive linguistics has also focused on exocentric compounds, and has sought to account for their meanings through a combination of metaphoric and metonymic shifts.

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