

SYNTAX AND DISTRIBUTION OF NEGATION MARKERS IN OLD ENGLISH BIBLICAL TRANSLATION: A HISTORICAL CORPUS STUDY

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Abstract

In the present research study, the negations words syntax and morphology of the Bible English language has been analyzed. In this specific study, the focus is the New Testament Scriptures, specifically the four gospels of the New Testament, that have been analyzed using the Bible's New International Version. This research aims to enrich the knowledge of the use of negation words in biblical texts interpretation. Negation markers cannot simply be seen as a homogeneous group – there are degrees of scope in which they affect the language units. Such kinds of negation markers include Low Scope Negative and Wide Scope Negative markers. LSN markers are bound morphemes like prefixes *de-*, *dis-*, *un-*, *iN-*, *non-* and suffixes *-less*. Studies on the LSN markers have predominantly been concerned with their semantics and particularly their opposition of contradiction and contrariety, productivity and their interaction with linguistic categories. The latter differs from the former as WSN markers (like *not*) are free morphemes, which are analysed syntactically. It is a very clear distinction: "LSN markers are studied morphologically, while WSN markers are studied syntactically. Obviously, there are good arguments for talking about negative markers in a common framework. Firstly, it may be assumed that the WSN markers are bound morphemes and thus can make it difficult to distinguish between bound morphemes and free morphemes. Secondly, categories such as suppletion and allomorphy, which were thought to be typical of LSN markers are also typical of WSN markers. Thirdly, independent negative markers, such as Dutch "*weinig*," have stacking properties.

Keywords: *Bound morpheme, Free morpheme, Low Scope Negative (LSN) Markers, Morphosyntax, New International Version (NIV), Scripture, Wide Scope Negative (WSN) Markers.*

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1. Introduction

In this study, the primary objective of the current study is to discuss the types of negations found in Biblical English. The study shall aim at testing the direct influence that the use of these negation markers has on the acceptance of the divine text among its audience. We are more particular about breaking down the morphological and syntactic elements of the negating words that we have isolated from passages in the New International Version (NIV) of the Gospel texts. This can be accomplished through tracing the negations and their effects in order to see how these forms are interpreted by the worldwide audience of the Gospel.

2. A contextual Framework

This study involves a refined study of negation in the Bible which is written in the English language confined to four canonical Gospels as translated to New International Version (NIV). Moreover, over the past 50 years, the NIV has secured its considerable readership due to the combination of both the strength of its fidelity to original texts, and an amount of readability that is generally considered to be quite acceptable. In this context, the present work creates a special corpus in order to identify and differentiate negation terms and establish their pattern of distribution across the chapters of the Gospels based on the assumption of particular domains of Discourse. As Bhatti (2021) argues, integrating linguistic methods with religious studies enables rigorous analysis of sacred discourse; we adopt that stance here. Negation markers are commonly classified according to their semantic scope into two principal categories: **Low Scope Negative (LSN)** markers and **Wide Scope Negative (WSN)** markers (De Clercq, 2022). The main attention will be paid to the low-scope negative markers (LSN) here and consist of prefixes, such as de-, dis-, un-, in-, non-, and the suffix less. We are also going to explore the possibilities of co-occurring these morphological negators with any broader category of negation. This study draws on the innovative belief of John Wycliffe, whose life and reform efforts were characterized by his belief that the authority of scripture stood above ecclesiastical authority-a conviction that would lead him to translate the bible into English so that the people, not just the clergy or the Pope, could have access to the Word of God. The dissertation entitled *On Syntactic and Morphological Negation in Biblical English: A Diachronic Study* by Trmelj (2017) serves as an exemplary model in which the investigation could be carried out, as it systematically describes negation constructions in the West Saxon Gospels (WSG), the Bible in English by Wycliffe (WB), and the King James Bible (KJB). The linguistic continuum goes from Old English to Middle and Early Modern English. Even Wycliffe translated the Bible into English due to the fact that Bible should be available in vernacular language. In language usage, syntax can be defined as the ordered pattern of arrangement of words and phrases to bring out grammatically sound and well-constructed sentences and how distinct grammatical components can be used to

compose other grammatical components to generate larger grammatical constructions as well as present the structure of sentences. Morphology on the other hand is concerned with the internal make-up of words, their roots and stems used as well as prefix and suffixes and the way these factors are used in word form construction and inter-word relationships. Such syntactic analysis would be vital to discovering the underlying chain of logical relations implicit in sentences, as in comparing the difference between the lion is a vicious animal and vicious is animal the lion. This study is going to stretch both syntactic and morphological approaches to the Gospel reading in the NIV whilst coming up with an in-depth explanation of how the negativity in expressions from the Bible is used in the language. The morphological component will entail classifying each lexical item by its grammatical category and distinguishing between inflectional morphemes, i. e., the plural morpheme -s as in laughs or the past tense morpheme -ed in laughed and derivational morphemes, such as the -able morpheme in laughable, which expresses the potentiality to cause laughter. In human language, the use of negation, as a persuasive mode, is an effective rhetorical weapon, frequently used to identify phenomena or states of being. Negative statements normally contain words like no, not and never. Negation, in its turn, can be regarded as philosophically and linguistically valuable, since it can often make sense clarify or strengthen a certain positive aspect of the concept which it accompanies. Negation is a complicated linguistic construct, and it gained significant attention in the scholars because of numerous functions, versatility in its syntactic use or the fact that it plays an important role in the construction of meaning. Alhilali presents three major types of negation: a simple one, negative concord (namely, NC), and double negation (namely, DN). In some English constructions, two negative concord elements could occur in the same clause and both strengthen the overall negative rather than neutralizing each other. Simple or multiple but not necessarily all markers, the clause can be described as either engaging in simple negation or negative concord (NC). The semantic result however is unchanged in all cases - it leads to the categorical negation. On the contrary, in the case that two negative markers appear in a double negation (DN) construction, the result may be positive in nature.

Zeijlstra (2004) however postulated that every language is bound to either exclusively follow the principles of negative concord, or the principles of the double negation, and accounts never overlap. Later linguistic studies however have revealed that this tidy dichotomy does not fit the findings in languages such as English. The modern description of language identifies three major negation patterns in the English language: simple negation, negative concord, and double negation.

(1) "The student is not sick."

(2) "John did not paint the house with no brush."

2.1. Statement of the Problem

The study will be based on linguistic study known as corpus study which will focus particularly on how the bible, in its Gospel texts, describes the concept of negation, and assess its morpho-syntactic implications as seen by both the competent and amateur exegete. Procedurally, tokenization, normalization, and function-tagging follow standard corpus-linguistic workflows used in prior work (Bhatti, 2021), adapted here for negation classes (WSN/LSN; NC/DN) The project aims at the synthesis of the diachronic and synchronic in the study of negational features of the literature of the Bible, focusing on aspects that are less studied. In particular, this paper will trace the history of negation in the Gospel and examine its modern usage patterns in the light of larger theological and linguistic conventions and to gauge their meaning in different historical and modern contexts.

The hope of this analysis is to form a high degree of scholarly understanding of the chronological development of the biblical text discourse and its consequences to exegetical interpretation. What is more, the study explores the very aspects of the Dark Side of the Gospels which are widely ignored and attempts to complement the interpretations of the text by shedding new light on the meanings in both the historical and contemporary context.

2.2. Problem Significance and Justification

Negation represents an important tool in human language, one in which it plays a fundamental role in logical systems; it allows one to state the truth or falsity of a proposal and explains such concepts as non-being. The basis of the negation lies on the self-positing of existence; this self-enclosed occurrence anchors a dialectical ontological relationship between being and its negation. Owing to awareness, rather than directly disregarding, re-arranges its attitude towards specific objects thus introducing the concept of emptiness. The negative operator can be explained to interact with complex morphological and syntax structures and connect with logical analysis, basic semantics, first language learning and sentence processing in the study of cognitive linguistics. The interaction of negation and word creation has been highlighted by some established morphological theorists working in Lexical Morphology (LM) and they are also applying their theories about how a negation morpheme can change or modify a base word which often results in changing that base word's grammatical category or class, for example, -less. However, sometimes a negation morpheme can completely reverse the meaning (now the opposite of the base word) of that base word. Morphological Negation, Affixial Negation, or Lexical Negation are phrases that also identify these types of negative morphemes. There are gaps in the corpus of academic research that detail the morphological and syntactical characteristics of negative forms in an English Bible. The dissertation will ultimately give clear identity and definitions about how to teach English using the linguistic forms of Negative

Morphemes for Theologians (future theologians). In addition, this dissertation will demonstrate how corpus-linguistic methodologies could significantly enhance language use in academic discourse studies.

2.3. Key Perspectives

Some important things regarding the morphosyntactic analysis of negation include:

- Many languages use two negation signs to cancel one another, thus leaving a completely unclear statement on how to understand the relationship between the two statements. This leads logically to the conclusion that two negation signs create one affirmation. For example, comparing the phrase not in comparison to the phrase and very misleading as "can" is by definition a form of affirmation.
- The outcome of negation is often inconsistent with our understanding of how two items are combined. For example, not without means there is some uncertainty and not uncommonly means more uncommon than commonly.
- The double negative is the term used to denote this effect. The double negative is often considered as an example of meiosis or euphemism, which makes it one of the most frequently-used linguistic techniques to express meaning through implication rather than through direct statement.
- Double negative interpretations coexist with negative concordance interpretations. Negative concordance suggests that sentences including two negative elements are taken as only one negation.
- Thus, for instance, in the case of negative concordance, the statement Maria has not eaten anything today would be semantically interpreted as Maria has not eaten anything today; the same sentence with two negative terms would indicate Maria has eaten something today. Under negative concordance, two negatives—for instance—give rise to a single semantic negation; under double negation, the two negations are taken to work on their own and produce a positive (affirmative) meaning.
- Most people think that negative words are not standard language, but double negatives are. Some theoretical research, however, indicates that English may actually have features of a language with negative harmony.
- Sentences with two negative markers as well as phrases including "no one," "nothing," or "nowhere" might cause ambiguity as they can give rise to negative concordance and double negative interpretations.
- So, more study on how often double negatives and negatives are used in both spoken and written language is both needed and worth looking into more.

2.4. English Language Morphologies

Morphology and English Word-Form Architecture Morphology how words are put together and internally built in a language. In the context of English, it investigates how

lexical items are built from smaller, meaningful pieces—morphemes—which constitute the minimal grammatical units. Some morphemes can function independently as words, while others must attach to roots or stems to convey meaning. A thorough grasp of morphology unveils the processes behind word construction, modification, and integration into sentence-level syntax. This study treats LSN markers as derivational morphology affecting lexical category and polarity (e.g., un-, non-, -less), aligning with recent accounts of English morphological productivity (Bhatti, 2024).

2.5. Morpheme Typology

Morpheme Typology. Morphemes are the smallest meaningful units of language and are generally classified into free and bound morphemes. Free morphemes can occur independently as complete words, whereas bound morphemes must attach to other morphemes to convey meaning. Bound morphemes are further categorized into derivational morphemes, which create new words or alter word classes, and inflectional morphemes, which express grammatical information without changing lexical meaning (Haspel math & Sims, 2010; Katamba, 1993). In the domain of negation, many negative markers, including the prefixes un-, dis-, de-, in-, non- and the suffix -less, function as bound derivational morphemes. Their classification and behavior are closely related to their semantic scope and morphosyntactic properties, distinguishing them from free negative markers such as not (De Clercq, 2022).

Morphemes fall into two principal categories: free morphemes and bound morphemes.

- Free morphemes are self-sufficient units that stand alone as complete words. Examples include “cat,” “book,” and “run,” each able to communicate a full semantic concept without additional elements.
- Bound morphemes lack independent lexical status and must attach to a free morpheme. They supply grammatical or semantic information only in combination with a host. For instance, the prefix “un-” in “unhappy” and the suffix “-ed” in “jumped” cannot occur in isolation but, when affixed, alter the meaning or grammatical function of the root.

Inflectional Morphemes Inflectional morphemes adjust a word’s form to express grammatical distinctions—such as number, tense, possession, or comparison—without fundamentally changing its lexical category or core meaning. English has eight principal inflectional endings:

- “-s” for plural nouns (for example, bats) and third-person singular verbs (as talks)
- “-’s” for possessive forms (e.g., rat’s)
- “-ed” to mark past tense on verbs (as walked)
- “-en” for past participles (e.g., beaten)
- “-ing” for present participles (e.g., jogging)

– “-er” for comparative adjectives (e.g., taller)

– “-est” for superlative adjectives (e.g., tallest)

Derivational Morphemes Derivational morphemes create new words or shift a word’s grammatical class by adding prefixes or suffixes that carry semantic weight. For example, attaching “un-” to “happy” yields the antonym “unhappy,” while the suffix “-ness” turns the adjective “happy” into the noun “happiness.” Unlike inflectional endings, derivational affixes frequently alter both meaning and part of speech.

2.6. Methods of Lexical Formation

Beyond simple affixation, English employs several word-formation processes:

- **Affixation:** Prefixes or suffixes attach to a base, as in “disagree” (dis- + agree) or “quickly” (quick + -ly).

- **Compounding:** Two free morphemes merge to form a single lexical unit, such as “notebook” (note + book) or “sunflower” (sun + flower).

- **Blending (Merging):** Segments of existing words fuse to create a novel term, for example “brunch” (breakfast + lunch) or “smog” (smoke + fog).

- **Clipping (Truncation):** Longer words are shortened while retaining their meaning, as in “ad” for “advertisement” or “lab” for “laboratory.”

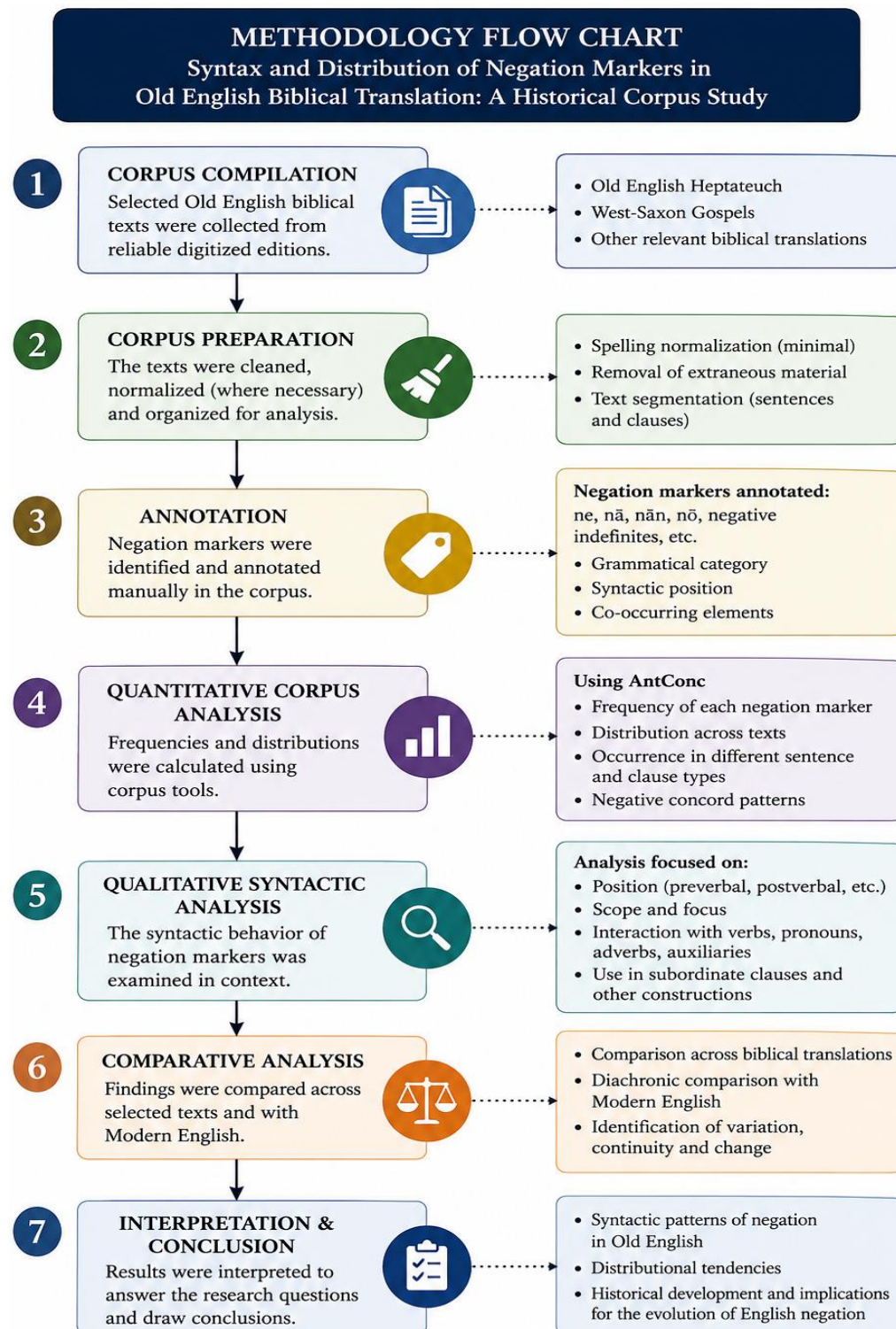
- **Acronymy:** Initial letters of a multiword name form a pronounceable term, it’s as “LASER” (Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation).

- **Reduplication (Repetition):** A word or a part of it that repeats to produce a new lexical item, exemplified by “bye-bye” or “chit-chat.”

3. Methodology

The study employed a historical corpus-based methodology to investigate the syntax and distribution of negation markers in Old English biblical translations. A specialized corpus was compiled from selected Old English biblical texts, including The Old English Heptateuch, West-Saxon Gospels, and other relevant biblical translations, using reliable digitized editions. The corpus was systematically cleaned, organized, and annotated for major negation markers, including *ne*, *nā*, *nān*, *nō*, and negative indefinites, with particular attention to their grammatical categories, syntactic positions, and co-occurring elements. Corpus analysis was conducted using AntConc to determine the frequency, distribution, and contextual patterns of the identified negation markers. The analysis focused on their occurrence across different sentence and clause types, verb phrases, subordinate constructions, and negative concord structures. A qualitative syntactic analysis was subsequently undertaken to examine the position, scope, and grammatical function of negation markers, including their interaction with verbs, pronouns, adverbs, auxiliaries, and other syntactic constituents. The findings were compared across the selected biblical texts to identify patterns of syntactic variation and consistency. Where appropriate, the Old English patterns were also compared with

corresponding features of Modern English to highlight evidence of continuity, variation, and historical change in the syntax of English negation.



3.1. Significance of Morphology

Morphology plays a fundamental role in linguistic analysis by explaining how words are formed, how morphemes contribute to meaning, and how grammatical information is encoded within word structure. The study of morphology provides essential insights into word formation processes, lexical productivity, and the interaction between form and meaning, making it indispensable for the analysis of morphosyntactic phenomena such as negation (Haspelmath & Sims, 2010).

A Core of Lexical Architecture Morphology is the area of language study that is focused on discovering how words are put together and how their components cause meaning in language. By dividing unknown items in the lexicon into their components morphemes, the minimal units that have a semantic or grammatical value, morphology throws light upon the way the vocabulary is created, modified and used in the discourse. As an example, a reader who was taught that word building involves knowing word stems (or roots) and prefixes will recognize the presence of the prefix “anti-” (meaning opposition) and the word stem or root (freeze), thus decoding the meaning of a word like antifreeze without using a dictionary.

Besides the theoretical importance, morphological awareness would prove to be essential to not only native speakers pursuing the strengthening of their lexical competence, but also to second-language learners, especially those who might be studying English, to learn the rules of word formation, derivation, and inflection. In simplest terms, morphology helps to reveal the hitherto unknown structure underlying related words, oversee construction procedures of new forms, and the changes that are possible to construct context-specific vocabulary.

3.2. English Syntax Architecture

Where morphology parses the parts of words, syntax analyses the ways these parts form greater units of meaning-the phrases, forms, clauses sentences- through a set of rules which assign meaning to the resultant units. In English, syntax decides which sequences of lexical categories are allowable, and thus determines how simple propositions, requests and orders are formed by juxtaposing subjects, predicates and complements in an ordered fashion.

3.2.1. Standard Subject-Verb-Object Order

Standard English shows a generally fixed Subject -Verb- Object (SVO) pattern, at least where the clause is declarative. Consider:

The boy

Verb: kicked

Object: the ball This SVO pattern is used in the following sequence The boy kicked the ball This sequence means certain clarity in assigning thematic roles. English is not

extensively inflected, and so any change- any change- produces a proposition entirely different.

3.3. English Phrase Constituents

Sentences are built from phrases—grouping of lexemes that function in unison as a single syntactic unit. In English syntax, phrases function as hierarchical constituents that serve as the basic structural units of sentences. Each phrase is organized around a lexical head and may include complements, modifiers, or specifiers, depending on its grammatical function. The principal phrase types in English are discussed below one by one, all of which contribute to the organization and interpretation of sentence structure (Carnie, 2010; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).

Principal phrase types are consisted of:

- Noun Phrase (NP): A noun or pronoun plus optional modifiers (e.g., “the beautiful Mansion”).
- Verb Phrase (VP): A verb combined with objects or adjuncts (e.g., “writing a novel”).
- Adjective Phrase (AdjP): An adjective accompanied by intensifiers or qualifiers (e.g., “very lovely”).
- Prepositional Phrase (PP): A noun phrase is governed by a preposition (e.g., “in the stadium”). These constituents assemble in accordance with hierarchical rules: in “The man reads a newspaper,” “The man” forms an NP, “reads a newspaper” functions as a VP, and together they yield a well-formed clause.

3.4. Clause Types and Sentence Complexity

A clause minimally comprises a subject and a predicate (verb). English distinguishes two overarching clause categories:

- Independent (main) clauses: Able to stand alone (e.g., “She walked to the store”).
- Dependent (subordinate) clauses: Requiring attachment to a main clause (e.g., “although she was tired”).

Sentences fall into four structural types depending on the amount and mix of these clauses:

- Simple sentences: Simple sentences have only one independent clause (e.g., “He sings”).
- Compound sentences: Two or more independent clauses joined usually with coordinating conjunctions—“He sings, and she dances.”
- Complex sentences: Have one independent clause and at least one subordinate clause (e.g., “He sings since he loves music”).
- Compound-complex sentences: These have several independent clauses and at least one subordinate clause (e.g., “He sings, and she dances when the music starts”).

English speakers can change sentence formality, clarity and emphasis by changing clause arrangement and word order thanks of this syntactic structure.

3.5. Grammatical Functions

3.5.1. Functional Elements Within the Clause

Within any given sentence, individual words and phrases assume distinct grammatical responsibilities that contribute to the overall meaning. The principal constituents include:

- Subject: the entity or entity-state that initiates or performs the action (e.g., “The canine barks”).
- Object: the entity or entity-state that receives or is affected through the action (e.g., “She completed the project”).
- Predicate: the segment that contains the verb and supplies information about the subject’s action or state (e.g., “is running rapidly”).

As sentence complexity increases, additional components may appear, such as indirect objects—which denote secondary recipients or beneficiaries of an action (e.g., “She gave him a book”)—subject complements that complete a linking verb and characterize the subject (e.g., “She appears upbeat”), and adverbial modifiers that provide context regarding manner, time, place, or frequency (e.g., “She sings delightfully”).

3.6. Variations in English Word Order

Although English generally follows a Subject–Verb–Object (SVO) word order, syntactic variation occurs across different constructions and can influence the interpretation of grammatical elements, including negation (Adger & Trousdale, 2007).

In fact, English predominantly adheres to an SVO (Subject–Verb–Object) template, syntactic rearrangements emerge, particularly in interrogative and imperative constructions:

- Interrogative Clauses often invert the subject and auxiliary verb to signal a question (e.g., “Is she coming?”).
- Imperative Clauses (commands) typically omit the overt subject, relying on context to supply the second person (e.g., “Sit down”).

3.7. The Critical Role of Syntax

Absent a coherent syntactic framework, utterances risk becoming ambiguous or unintelligible. Syntax acts as the structural backbone, enabling speakers to convey precise nuances. For instance, the sentences “The canine chased the cat” and “The cat chased the dog” employ identical lexical items yet communicate two entirely distinct events. Mastery of syntactic conventions is equally vital for constructing grammatically correct sentences and for parsing complex structures in both spoken and written English. By defining permissible word arrangements, syntax undergirds meaning-construction, delineates sentence types, and ensures effective communication.

3.8. Interplay Between Morphology and Syntax

The interface between morphological and syntactic levels of language reflects how word-formation rules interact with sentence-structure rules—and vice versa. Karen De Clercq (2022) argues that negative markers cannot be analyzed solely from a morphological or syntactic perspective; instead, they represent an interaction between the two components of grammar.

This bidirectional influence manifests in several key phenomena:

3.9. Morphological Indicators of Syntactic Concord

A primary illustration of morphology–syntax integration is the utilization of inflectional markers to signal grammatical relationships. In English, plural number is denoted morphologically by appending the suffix “-s.” This morphological marking aligns with syntactic requirements for agreement. For example, in the clause “The cats are playing,” the plural marker on “cats”—a morphological modification—triggers the appropriate plural agreement on the auxiliary “are,” a syntactic element.

Similarly, English verbs undergo inflection to concord with their subjects in person and number, a process known as subject–verb agreement. For instance:

- Singular: “She runs each day.”
- Plural: “They run each day.”

Here, the verbal ending varies according to the subject’s number, exemplifying how syntactic demands (subject–verb agreement) directly shape verb morphology.

3.10. Cross-Linguistic Variability in Morphosyntax and Word Order

Languages diverge markedly in the strategies they employ to encode grammatical relations, distributing that burden between morphology and syntax in distinct ways. English, owing to its relatively impoverished inflectional inventory, relies predominantly on a fixed word-order system to signal who does what to whom. Mastery of these relationships thus depends on an appreciation of the canonical Subject–Verb–Object (SVO) alignment:

- “The boy caught the ball” (SVO) clearly identifies the agent, action, and patient by virtue of sequence.

- “The ball caught the boy” (OVS), however, reverses these roles entirely simply by reordering the constituents.

By contrast, languages endowed with rich case-marking systems—such as Latin or Russian—deploy inflectional morphology (case endings) to overtly label subjects, objects, and other arguments. In these contexts, the morphological signal carries the syntactic load, permitting far greater freedom in the linear arrangement of words. Where morphology transparently conveys role-assignment, the necessity for rigid word order is correspondingly diminished.

3.11. Derivational Morphology as a Driver of Syntactic Re-Categorization

Derivational affixes are pivotal in reassigning words to new grammatical classes, thereby expanding their possible syntactic functions. For instance, the suffix “-ness” transforms the adjective “upbeat” into the noun “joy,” enabling its deployment as a subject or object rather than remaining solely an attributive modifier:

- Adjective: “She is substance.”
- Noun: “It's imperative to be cheerful.”

Here, the morphological augmentation not only alters semantic content but also adjusts the word’s syntactic slot, illustrating how derivational processes can recalibrate the architecture of sentence construction.

3.12. Alignment Systems in Morphology and Syntax

Morphosyntactic alignment refers to the way languages configure their morphological markers and syntactic patterns to encode core arguments—subjects, objects, and indirect objects. English exemplifies a nominative–accusative system, in which the subject of both transitive and intransitive predicates is treated identically morphologically, while the object receives a distinct marking:

- Intransitive subject: “She runs”
- Transitive subject: “She eats”
- Object: “She eats the cake”

In contrast, ergative–absolutive languages—Basque being a canonical example—align the intransitive subject and transitive object under a single morphological case (absolutive), while the transitive subject bears a unique ergative marking. These divergent alignment patterns underscore the profound ways that morphological encoding schemes shape permissible syntactic configurations.

3.13. Syntax-Conditioned Morphological Alternations

Just as morphology can dictate syntactic organization, so too can syntactic contexts govern morphological realizations—what is sometimes termed morphosyntactic conditioning. In English, case alternation in personal pronouns exemplifies this bidirectional influence:

- Subject form: “I adore music.”
- Object form: “Music adores me.”

In each clause, the pronoun’s morphological case is directly determined by its syntactic function. In languages with more elaborate inflectional frameworks, noun or verb forms may alter to mark tense, aspect, mood, or evidentiality as dictated by syntactic requirements, further illustrating how clause-level structure feeds back to shape word-level morphology.

3.14. Theoretical Approaches to Morphology–Syntax Integration

Several influential linguistic frameworks have elucidated the interdependence of morphological and syntactic systems:

- Within Noam Chomsky's Generative Grammar, syntax functions as the foundational component, generating an initial hierarchical structure into which morphology subsequently inserts the appropriate inflectional and derivational material. In this framework, syntactic principles determine the arrangement of morphemes, while morphological rules modify word forms to conform to the syntactic structure (Chomsky, 1957).

- Lexicalist Hypothesis: This perspective posits that the bulk of word-formation processes occur within the mental lexicon prior to any syntactic combination. Under the lexicalist view, derivational morphology assembles fully fledged lexical items, which are only afterward integrated into syntactic derivations, while inflectional morphology maintains a closer interface with syntactic operations.

- Distributed Morphology: In contrast, Distributed Morphology argues that all morphological operations are interleaved with syntactic computation rather than sequestered in a separate lexical component. Derivational and inflectional morphemes are introduced at distinct junctures of the syntactic derivation itself, yielding a unified model in which words are assembled 'on the fly' as syntax unfolds.

3.15. Concluding Reflections on Morphology–Syntax Interdependence

The morphological and the syntactic fields show a highly interconnected relationship in that each influences the other to create a complex environment. Morphology is the part that provides the material parts of the linguistic expression in terms of inflectional and derivational processes of a word, whereas syntax is the part that gives the editing plan of the play of syntactic bits into meaningful sentences. Derivational morphology changes the entire grammatical category of the word which subsequently changes the potential syntactic functions of that word and makes it integrate into a phrase and clause in a certain way, whereas inflectional morphology merely codes more restricted grammatical distinctions (such as number, tense, and case) which enforce syntactic agreement and clarify the relations between constituents. A complicated interplay of morphological rules and syntactic principles regulates this interface, and makes the morphology-for-syntax nexus one of the central points of our linguistic representation of the way languages are organized, processed and comprehended. Morphology and syntax as a pair are the two stilts of linguistic design whether separated into independent systems or integrally interacting as a whole in more detailed views of grammar.

3.16. History of the developmental path of the New International Version (NIV)

The New International Version (NIV) is not only one of the most popular translations of the Christian Bible in English, but is also one of the most respected works of scholarship on the topic. Its design and subsequent improvements can be seen as a concerted attempt to balance two potentially collision courses of action, namely, the ability

to transmit the exact meaning of the initial Hebrew and Greek texts and an approach that renders the text friendly toward a modern reader. Developed in the middle of the 20th century, NIV is the result of collaborative work of the international group of biblical scholars, linguists, and theologians. The following chapter charts the history of its composition, development, and cultural influence of the NIV, beginning with the early formulation of the translation, tracking the translation through editorial revisions, and concluding with the contemporary significance of the translation.

3.17. Birth and Genesis of the NIV

The push toward the New International Version can be dated to the increasing dissatisfaction throughout the 1950s with then-existing English versions. The King James Version (KJV) which had long been venerated because of its stately prose had become increasingly obscure to contemporary audiences because of early-modern pronunciations and usages of the English language as well as the need to limit the manuscript evidence. The Revised Standard Version (RSV) was a revision done to the language and to incorporate some of the textual discoveries, as such received criticisms by some quarters of the conservatives due to perceived interpolations.

These circumstances form the backdrop of the development of a new translation that would combine respectful treatment of the text with easy-to-read modern English formulation as it was proposed by a group of evangelical leaders and scholars. In 1956, Seattle entrepreneur Howard Long expressed a powerful interest in scripture distribution that was motivated by the notion that, since it was published in 1611, the KJV used obsolete language that unintelligibly alienated his non-Christian associates. Emboldened by the exertions of Long and aided by the encouragement of the scholarly community, the translation project officially begun in sponsorship by the New York-based New York Bible Society (since renamed Biblica). The mandate guiding the formulation of the NIV was also distinct when it was inaugurated: to publish an English translation that was faithfully true to the earliest available manuscripts and yet that spoke to the linguistic palate of late-20th-century readers. Throughout the course of the next several decades, the NIV would go through a series of review processes--all with the penetrating influence of modern biblical scholarship as well as evolving English usage-- earning itself a reputation as being perhaps one of the most consistently sought-after and academically reputable translations of Scripture in publication today.

3.18. The Committee on Bible Translation (CBT)

More was active when a group of church secondary schoolers and enthusiastic researchers got together in Palos Statures, Illinois, in 1965 to discuss whether this too was able to be possible to decipher the Book of scriptures. This assembly produced the Committee on Book of scriptures Interpretation (CBT), a multi-denominational group composed of scholastics charged with the responsibilities of the interpretation endeavor.

The aim was to construct a collection of scriptures that were written in understandable, contemporary English but without compromising the initial entries written in Hebrew, Aramaic and Greek.

Some of the more Petrean bunches favored the NIV extension, including the Unused York Book of scriptures Society (then Biblical), which also supported the interpretation exertion. Church, donors, and institutions that receive this financial support are permitted the freedom to release the interpreting apparatus out of the constraints that it is usually bound by because of the nature of the retailing process.

3.19. Translation Philosophy

The principles guiding coordination of the NIV have been the explanation approach referred to as the energetic equivalency or the thought-for-thought elucidation. The Committee on Bible Translation (2011) explains that the NIV follows a balanced translation philosophy that combines fidelity to the original biblical languages with natural and contemporary English expression. With the use of descriptive and reasonable English language, this method attempts to ensure as much as possible the interpretation of the original document. Vivid comparability creates more opportunities for decoding social references and colloquialisms hence making the text more understandable to current readers compared to the formal equivalence, which is used in explanations such as KJV and NASB.

It aimed at ensuring that the Book of scriptures was not only religiously valid but also available to other people. The NIV translators attempted to achieve a balance between clarity and accuracy from a certain social and educational perspective. It aimed at providing a text suitable for formal use, public discourse, and private meditation among others.

3.20. The Translation Process

It also took longer than ten years to finish interpreting the NIV version, which was a very huge task. There were more than 100 scholars coming from many different outreaching religions, such as Baptists, Presbyterians, Methodists, Anglicans, and Pentecostals, comprising the Committee on Book of Scriptures Interpretation (CBT). Eugene A. Nida is the foundational scholar for Bible translation theory. These scholars were well versed in the Scriptural languages, philosophy, and the history of ancient Near East. All these were united through their great respect to the Holy Book and dedication to make an accurate translation.

The careful research of the leading credible works written in Hebrew, Aramaic, and Greek formed part of the translation preparation process. The translators used the Masoretic Text, which is the standard Hebrew text of the Jewish Scriptures, for the Old Testament and the Nestle-Aland Greek New Testament for the New Testament. In an effort to increase the accuracy of the translation, the translators also referred to such ancient

sources as the Dead Sea Scrolls, the Septuagint (which is the Old Testament in Greek), and others.

There were some disagreements and lengthy discussions during the challenging process of preparing the translation. Members of the committee reviewed the drafts of the translation and gave feedback on word usage, expression, and logical consistency. The translators aimed at producing a truly accurate translation that could be understood by the wider outreach community, being consciously trying to eliminate any bias.

4. Publication and Reception

After around 12 years of difficult endeavors, the Modern Universal Form was ultimately published in 1978 in its entirety. NIV was highly praised upon its initial release for its comprehensibility, lucidity, and faithfulness to the original text. It very quickly became widely recognized among various denominations and became one of the most widely used Book of scriptures translations for private as well as public use. Openness of NIV was among the greatest advantages of this translation. The translators were successful in producing a Book of scriptures that was easy to read without compromising on the depth and complexity of its meaning. Due to its intellectual precision, which made it ideal for academic study and personal devotion, as well as its readability, which made it easier to follow during church services, the NIV was particularly suitable for public reading.

NIV was fast adopted by Christian congregations all over the world, proving its worthiness. In the US, the NIV is regarded as the number one book of Bible interpretation since the 1980s and this trend continues up to date.

5. Revisions and Updates

Like other interpretations of the Book of scriptures, the NIV has undergone revisions due to changes in the English dialect and advancement in scripture grants. The main revision that the NIV has gone through took place in 1984, where several passages were revised to increase accuracy and clarity. The need for a more inclusive dialect became apparent in the early 2000s. Preachers and scholars observed that the gender specific language, like the use of "man" and "brothers" within the original NIV to address both genders, could create confusion because English had evolved. The Today's New International Version (TNIV) addressed this issue in 2005 by introducing some gender-neutral language into those parts where two genders were addressed.

However, the TNIV was a problematic translation, especially among the preservatives who believed that the first meaning could go awry when put into neutral gender language. (Committee on Bible Translation, 2005). In passing, there were several people who valued the translation as it took into account the phonetics of contemporary times. A revised edition of the NIV translation was released in 2011 by the Committee on Bible Translation (CBT), which addressed some of the grievances of the critics and had incorporated certain changes from the TNIV translation.

6. Impact and Legacy

Advanced Christianity has been greatly influenced by the Modern Worldwide Adaptation (NIV). The translation and study of the Book of scripture by millions of people has greatly been influenced by this adaptation, and this is one of the most renowned and commonly used adaptations. Various churches, seminaries, and Christian schools have accepted this adaptation because of its realism and consistency, thus making it a common choice for both individual reflection and public worship. Additionally, this adaptation has acted as the foundation of other specialized translations, including reverent, academic, and children's Bibles, thus making it more available to a wider array of audiences. This adaptation is used in many mainstream Protestant churches' rites and reflection programs, proving its popularity outside the evangelical sphere.

An important achievement in the history of Biblical exegesis is the NIV. The NIV originated mid-20th century as a response to the need for an inspired work of scripture that is comprehensible to the readers of today as well as faithful to the original scriptures. The NIV is one of the most important Biblical exegeses in the world and has influenced the beliefs and lives of millions of people thanks to the hard work of the Committee of Book of scriptures Interpretation and the wider Christian community. Clearness, faithfulness, and availability are the hallmarks of its legacy, which makes a difference. People all over the world receive it as God's word.

6.1. The Development of Negation: Morpho syntactical Insights from Biblical Texts

The progression of refutation in Scriptural English from the eleventh century to the seventeenth century is analyzed in the study "On Syntactic and Morphological Refutation in Scriptural English:

A Diachronic Ponder" (Štrmelj, 2017). Highlighting significantly Late Ancient English, Late Middle English, and Early Modern English, the study provides a thorough discussion of how negation was expressed at various periods of English language. Three English translations of the Gospel of John, made based on the first Greek text and St Jerome's Latin Vulgate, are used in the research. The study aims to trace the evolution and development of negation in Scriptural English throughout time in comparison with other periods.

The inquiry examines several issues related to negative clauses, including types of refutation used, word order patterns, and the range of negative constructions used in the writings. It analyzes how these etymological features have changed as English language became increasingly expository in nature and no longer highly engineered. The study, which covers roughly six hundred years – a period of considerable linguistic developments, suggests that the way in which negation was treated would correspond to the transition from the earlier engineered system, characterized by intricate inflectional systems, to an expository system, with less morphology and increased dependence on word

order. The main purpose of the article is to elucidate how the auxiliary and functional aspects of negation changed due to general linguistic developments in English language.

The WSGs with single negation feature the frequent negative particle being “ne” meaning “not”, occurring immediately before the verb, either at the beginning of the clause in examples (1a) and (2a), or at the end of the clause, as in (1c) and (2c):

- (1) a. ne sende god hys sunu not send (PRET 3 SG.) God his son
b. for God sente not his sone
c. for God sent not his Son
- (2) a. gyt myn tyme ne com Yet my time not come (PRET. 3 SG.)
b. myn our cam not yit
c. mine hour is not yet come

As seen from case (1b, c) and (2b), the verb adjunct “not,” which occurs after the verb, has completely replaced the negative particle “ne” in the very similar constructions in both the Lord James Bible of scriptures (KJB) and the West Saxon Gospels (WSG). “Not” appears between the auxiliary verb and the past participle in the KJB where the culminate tense is employed rather than the preterite form, as can be seen from (2c). The development in word order in constructions with only one negative may be described as follows:

WSG ne + V > WB V + not (or, in certain situations, V + neuer) > KJB V + not.

On the contrary, the refutation structures found in the WSG feature two or three negative elements which form a negative concord. This means that the elements transfer a single negative value rather than contradicting each other (Dahl 1979). In either case, “ne” can be used with a negative intensifier or negative pronoun/quantifier for a precise refutation.

- (4) a. Se haelend ne geswutelode na hyne sylfne hym
the Healer not commit (PRET. 3 SG.) never they (DAT.PL.) himself

The above stated negative adverb “na” indeed denotes “never” as it is derived from the Old English “ne” + “a” which mean “ever.” Single negative is used for the combination of “ne” and “na” in (4a) and the corresponding phrases in the King James Bible (KJB) and West Saxon Gospel (WB):

- b. Jhesus trowide not hym silf to hem
- c. Jesus did not commit himself unto them.

The word arrange in (4b) follows the pattern adopted in (1b), which is V (past) + not. The auxiliary verb “do” is used some while after “not” in (4c), but the main verb is used in its plain infinitive form. While “do” is frequently used in negative basic clauses, it is quite interesting to note that (4c) is the only example of the use of auxiliary “do” in the natural clauses of the KJB.

As shown in the study, οὐ and μή are sentential negators that do not play the role of singling out specific constituents of declarative propositions whereas they negate such propositions as a whole. But in the currents of the rhetorics of scripture, where writers have frequently used denial not to dis-affirm then and there but to bring to the forefront the affirmations of a truth by contrast, it is important to realise that there are two sides to these particles. It has long been recognized by exegesisists that negation in New Testament Greek has an explanatory role: by telling us what a thing is not, the words draw illumination to what it is. This contrastive tactic goes further than blanket denial, and brings into focus select words or phrases following the negative marker.

The work by Unge_? Clprotorabies quotively categorizes and exemplifies the paradigmatic forms of negation in the Greek New Testament taking into account translational implications. The work illustrates how subtle interpretation of οὐ ortimes μη can change not only what is translated, but also theological explanation through close case studies. These differences are highlighted by the following examples, in the original Greek orthography and in the English Standard Version (ESV) translation:

(a) Mt 15:26

“οὐκ ἔστιν καλὸν λαβεῖν τὸν ἄρτον τῶν τέκνων καὶ βαλεῖν τοῖς κυναρίοις”

“It is not right to take the children’s bread and throw it to the dogs.” (ESV)

(b) Luke 6:40

“οὐκ ἔστιν μαθητὴς ὑπὲρ τὸν διδάσκαλον”

“A disciple is not above his teacher.” (ESV)

(c) Eph 4:30

“καὶ μὴ λυπεῖτε τὸ πνεῦμα τὸ ἅγιον τοῦ θεοῦ”

“And do not grieve the Holy Spirit of God.” (ESV)

(d) 1 Timothy 4:14

“μὴ ἀμέλει τοῦ ἐν σοὶ χαρίσματος”

“Do not neglect the gift you have.” (ESV)

Instances of Negated Clauses with an Excluded Clause Member

Runge also examines constructions in which a specific phrase precedes the negative marker intentionally and goes out of its semantic scope of negation leaving behind only elements that come after it. It is with these examples in mind that we may term it as a Pneuma and apply this term to the Deity.

(a) 1 Corinthians 8:8

“βρῶμα δὲ ἡμᾶς οὐ παραστήσει τῷ θεῷ”

“Food us will not commend to God” (ESV)

(b) Matthew 6:1

“μισθὸν οὐκ ἔχετε παρὰ τῷ πατρὶ ὑμῶν τῷ ἐν τοῖς οὐρανοῖς”

“Reward you do not have from your Father who is in heaven.” (ESV)

(c) Romans 3:20

“διότι ἐξ ἔργων νόμου οὐ δικαιωθήσεται πᾶσα σὰρξ ἐνώπιον αὐτοῦ”

“For by works of the law all flesh will not be justified before him.” (ESV)

(d) Galatians 1:16

“εὐθέως οὐ προσανεθέμην σαρκὶ καὶ αἵματι”

“Immediately I did not consult with flesh and blood.” (ESV)

These verses exemplify how pre-negator placement effectively narrows the negation’s reach, focusing denial on subsequent constituents. Such syntactic positioning allows the author to signal which elements are exempt from negation, thereby tailoring the interpretive emphasis with precision.

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