

Subject: Structural Grammar
Stage: Second
Course: First
Chapters Included (8, 9, 10, and 11)
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A. Defining Morpheme:

Morpheme is a short segment of language that meets three criteria:

- 1.** It is a word or a part of a word that has meaning, such as the word „reading“, consisting of the verb „read“ and the suffix „-ing“, which is part of the word reading.
- 2.** It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of its meaning; therefore, you cannot divide it into (re – ad – ing). This division is wrong because it is meaningless.
- 3.** It recurs in differing verbal environments (positions) with a relatively stable meaning. For example, „read“ occurs as a verb, while „reader“ occurs as a noun, and their meanings are different in both positions.

B. Free Morpheme vs. Bound Morpheme:

Free Morpheme:

It is the word that can be used alone with full meaning, such as speaker, read, pretty, quickly. The free morphemes include the dictionary words like nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Bound Morpheme:

It is the word that cannot be uttered alone unless it is attached to a free morpheme, such as the suffix (-er) which gives no meaning unless it is attached to a free morpheme (speak) to be “speaker”. Bound morphemes include prefixes and suffixes.

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C. Bases

There is another classification of morphemes that divides them into Bases and Affixes. A base morpheme is the part of a word that has the principal meaning. The underlined parts represent the bases, „manly“, „annoyance“, „re-enter“, and „active“. Bases are numerous, and most of them are free morphemes.

To determine the base morpheme in a word, you need to cut the word into morphemes, for example, the „readability“ contains the base „read“ and the two affixes (-abil-) and (-ity). Another example, the word „unmistakable“ which contains the base „take“ and the affixes (un- , mis, and able).

D. Difficulties in Morphemic Analysis

There are serious and insoluble difficulties in morphemic analysis that the native speaker or English learners encounter. They include:

1. The first difficulty is that each one has his own individual storage of morphemes who perceives these morphemes according to his view. For example, the word „automobile“ is viewed by:

A. Tom thinks that „automobile“ is one morpheme only, which means car.

B. David realizes the word „morpheme“ as consisting of two morphemes; the first is „auto“ that means (self), and the second is „mobile“ that means (mobile).

Accordingly, each one recognizes or analyzes one morpheme in different ways.

2. Some speakers do not differentiate between the agentive original form (-er, -or, ar) as found in the word „sweater“ /'swetə(r)/, which is a piece of clothing from the derivational suffixes that are added to the verbs to form nouns, such as speaker, reader, actor, etc.

Sweater



Agentive

speakeer



Derivational Suffix

Nouns having agentive (er) include (voucher, cracker, tumbler, mother, father, etc.)

Nouns having derivational suffixes (-er) include (speaker, reader, writer, driver, etc.)

3. The third problem is that some morphemes undergo semantic changes, this means their meanings changed through the course of time. For instance, the morpheme (-prehend), which means (seize), but its meaning changes depending on the surrounding morphemes:

A. Apprehend means to arrest or seize.

B. Comprehend means to seize mentally, and this is metaphor, but this metaphor has been changed and now it means “to understand”.

Lecture 4: E. Affixes

Affixes are the bound morphemes which are added to the words either initially or medially or finally. They are divided into three types:

1. Prefixes are the bound morphemes that occur at the beginning of the words (before the base), e.g.,: impossible, incorrect, illegal, rewrite, unlawful, disagree, interactive, etc.

2. Infixes are also called IVC (Intervocalic Change). They refer to change in the vowels of nouns or verbs, for example, the word „foot“/ fɒt/ is singular and changing it into a plural form „feet“ /fi:t/ creates a change from short vowel / ʊ / into a long vowel / i:/.

3. Suffixes are bound morphemes that occur at the end of the words (after the base), e.g., helper, equality, kindness, confusion, ownership, warmth, books, reading, door“s key, simply, called, hopeless, wonderful etc.

F. Inflectional Affixes

The inflectional affixes can be classified into nine types:

No.	Inflectional Suffixes	Examples	Grammatical Cases
1.	Plural (-s)	Book → book <u>s</u>	Noun plural

2.	Singular Poss. (- s)	Boy → boy's	Noun singular possessive
3.	Plural Poss. (-s')	Boy → boys'	Noun plural possessive
4.	(-s 3 rd)	He speak _s English.	Present third-person singular
5.	(-ing) Verb	He is speak _{ing} English.	Present participle
6.	(-ed) Past	Faten walk _{ed} fast.	Past tense
7.	(-ed) PP	Faten <u>has</u> walk _{ed} fast.	Past participle
8.	(-er) CP	Short → short _{er}	Comparative degree
9.	(-est) SP	Short → short _{est}	Superlative Degree

F. Inflectional Affixes

The inflectional suffixes differ from the derivational suffixes in the following ways:

1. **The inflectional suffixes** do not change the part of speech, e.g.,:

Book = book_s (still nouns), play = play_{ed} (Still verbs), short = short_{er} (still adjectives)

2. They take the final positions of words, e.g.,:

Talk = talk_{ed} , read_{ing}

3. They go with all stems of a given part of speech, e.g.,:

He eat_s, drink_s, dream_s, play_s, entertain_s, write_s, work_s

Book = book_s, door = door_s,

4. They do not pile up; only one ends a word, e.g.,:

Work = work_s but you cannot add other inflections to say *work_s+**ing**

Write = wrote = written, but do not add other inflections to the past or past participle forms (* writing or *wrote_s, or *writteneing or *writtens)

Exercise (8.12)

Give the types of the inflectional suffixes, bolded with red, in the following sentences:

1. The flagpole **stood** in front of Main Hall.
2. Four pledges**s** were initiated.
3. Shirely pledges**s** to do her best.
4. The pledge'**s** shirt was torn.
5. The pledges'**s** shirts were torn.
6. We were discuss**ing** the editorial.
7. The novel was shorter**er** than I expected.
8. They wait**ed** at the dock.
9. Which is the long**est** route?
10. Have you tak**en** calculus yet?
11. Chris play**ed** well in the second set.
12. The dealer weigh**ed** the poultry.
13. Would you mind repeat**ing** the question?
14. The sheets**s** were soon ironed.
15. He never lock**s** the door.

These suffixes are added randomly to the words to form new words. They have three main characteristics:

1. The process of adding the derivational suffixes to other words is arbitrary.

This means to make a noun from the verb „adorn“, we must add (-ment) suffix to it to become “adornment”, but no other suffix will do. Another example, to change the verb „fail“ to a noun, we must add (-ure) to become “failure”, and it is not to add (-ment)”.

2. In most cases, the derivational suffixes change the part of speech of the words as shown in the table below:

Base Word	Suffix added	New Form	First Class	Second Class
Act	-ive	active	Noun	Adjective
Beauty	-ful	beautiful	Noun	Adjective
Gloom	-y	gloomy	Noun	Adjective
Friend	-ship	friendship	Noun	Noun
Confuse	-ion	confusion	Verb	Noun

3. Derivational suffixes usually do not close off a word. This means that one can add a derivational suffix after adding the first one, then it is possible to add the third one, for instance, **fertile + iz + er + s = fertilizers**. Another example, **organ + iz + er + s**.

Doing Exercise (8-13) on page 94:

Add each derivational suffix to its appropriate word:

A

1. happy = happiness
2. friend = friendship
3. girl = girlhood

B

1. -**hood**
2. -**acy**
3. **ism**

- | | |
|----------------------------------|----------|
| 4. compose = compos <u>ition</u> | 4.-ness |
| 5. shrink = shrink <u>age</u> | 5. -ment |
| 6. active = activ <u>ity</u> | 6. -age |
| 7. supreme = suprem <u>acy</u> | 7.-y |
| 8. true = tru <u>th</u> | 8.-ation |
| 9. pagan = pagan <u>ism</u> | 9.-ship |
| 10. discover = discov <u>ery</u> | 10.-ity |
| | 11.-ance |
| | 12. -the |
| | 13.-ure |
-

H. Suffixal Homophones

Both inflectional and derivational suffixes have homophonous forms.

These are explained below with examples:


(A). The inflectional morpheme (-**er cp**) has two homophones.


1. The first derivational suffix (-**er n** performer), which is attached to verbs to form nouns, such as fish = fisher, teach = teacher, read= reader. This (-er) means “that which performs the action of the verb”.

2. The second derivational suffix (-**er**) that appears at the end of words like **chatter**, **mutter**, **flicker**, **glitter**, and **patter**. This (-er) conveys the meaning of repetition because „chat“ is a verb, and „chatter“ is also a verb meaning to talk.

chat *verb*

 A2

 /tʃæt/

 /tʃæt/

chatter *verb*

 /'tʃætə(r)/

 /'tʃætər/

(B). The verbal inflectional suffix (-ing vb) has two homophones in (-ing)

(1). The first one is the nominal derivational suffix (-ing nm), which is added to verbs to form nouns like meetings, readings, and writings.

-He is **meeting** the visitors. (**Verb**)

- He attended the **meeting**. (**Noun**)

(2). The second homophone of (-ing vb) is the adjectival morpheme (-ing aj), as in a **charming** woman.

(C). The verb inflectional (-ed pp) has a homophone in the adjectival derivational (-ed pp), as shown in the sentences below:

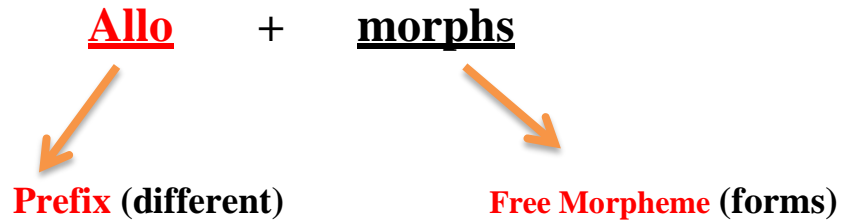
-Helen was **excited** about her new job. (**Verb**)

- She was a very **devoted** mother. (**Adjective**)

(D). The adverbial derivational suffix (-ly av) is added to most adjectives to form adverbs of manner, such as kind = kindly, quick = quickly, formal = formally.

L. Allomorphs

Defining Allomorphs



Allomorph means any of two or more actual representations of the same morpheme. Or simply it indicates different forms of the same morpheme. They show a morpheme in its different phonological or morphological environments.

Examples of Phonological Allomorphs of the Morpheme Plural {s}. It has three allomorphs:

Allomorphs


1. {-s} as in books /bʊks/ allomorph {-s}
 2. {-z} as in doors /dɔːrz/ allomorph {-z}
 3. {-iz} as in boxes /bɒksɪz/ allomorph {-iz}
- } Morpheme {s}

Here the occurrence of one sound or another depends on its phonological surrounding, which means it depends on the preceding sound. It is the preceding sound that determines which sound it will be – namely it will be pronounced {-s} or {-z} or {-iz}. This pattern of occurrence of three forms of the same morpheme happens when each form occupies its own territory and does not trespass on the domain of another form. This, in fact, is

called **C**omplementary **D**istribution, which is abbreviated (CD). These are phonological rules concerned with pronunciation.

Examples of Morphological Allomorphs of the Morpheme {ed pt}. It has three allomorphs:

Allomorphs

1. {-id} as in wanted /'wɒntɪd/ allomorph {- id }
 2. {-t} as in passed /pɑːst/ allomorph {-t}
 3. {-d} as in seemed /siːmd/ allomorph {-d}
- 
- Morpheme {-ed pt}

These are morphological rules that are concerned with the inflections.

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M. Conditioning: Phonological and Morphological

Phonological Conditioning

It means when the phonological environment determines which allomorph is used, we say that the selection of allomorphs is phonologically conditioned. The occurrence of an allomorph is governed by a rule, for example, the morpheme {-s} is pronounced /s/ if the final letter of the word is one of the sounds (p, t, k, f, and θ) as in the word **books** /bʊks/, while the morpheme /s/ is pronounced as /ɪz/ if the word ends with one of the sibilant sounds (s, z, ʃ, ʒ, dʒ, ʒ), such as **dishes** /dɪʃɪz/. Other than these two rules, the morpheme {-s} is pronounced as /z/ like **doors** /dɔːrɪz/. But sometimes we have words that have irregular plural forms like ox – oxen or we have zero forms of plural like sheep or fish. In this case, we have **morphological conditioning** which means when the environment that requires a certain allomorph only by

identifying specific morphemes, here we say that the selection of allomorphs is morphologically conditioned. The phonological and morphological conditionings are described in the following conditioning formula:

$\{-s\ pl\} = /iz/ \sim /-z/ \sim /-s/ \ / \infty \ / -\text{ən} / \infty \ / \emptyset /$



Phonological conditioning

Morphological Conditioning

~ changes into

$/\infty/$ / morphologically conditioned with

$/\emptyset/$ / zero plural allomorph (form)

N. Replacive Allomorphs

Replacive Allomorph means a vowel sound is replaced by another when changing the verb from the present form into the past form, e.g.,:

Sing (present) = **sang** (past), there is a change in vowel sounds from /ɪ/ into /æ/.

To explain the process of replacive allomorphs, we need to adopt the allomorphic formula that shows how each sound is replaced by another. Also, it shows how the vowel sound becomes a short or long or diphthong sound in the process of inflecting the verb. Moreover, the change of the vowel quality from a short to a long sound or vice versa is called an infix. Consider the following examples, taken from exercise (8.34), which expound the allomorphic formula.

Steps of doing the allomorphic formula of each verb:

1. Transcribe phonemically the past form of the verb (**saw**) = /sɔ:/.
2. Put the sign (=) after the first phonemic transcription.
3. Transcribe phonemically the present form of the verb (**see**) /si:/.
4. Place the sign (+).
5. Open slants, then put the vowel of the **present** (base) verb /i:/, after that you put the sign (>) meaning “changes into”. Then you put the vowel of the past verb **saw** /ɔ:/. At the end, you put the closing slant.

1. **See, saw** /sɔ:/ = /si:/ + /i: > ɔ:/
2. **begin, began** /bɪ'gæn/ = /bɪ'gɪn + ɪ > æ /
3. **bite, bit** /bɪt/ = /baɪt/ + /aɪ > ɪ /
4. **give, gave** /geɪv/ = /gɪv/ + /eɪ > ɪ /

Write the allomorphic formula of the present and past forms of the following verbs:

1. see, saw /sɔ:/ = /si:/ + /i: > o:/

Homophones mean two words having the same pronunciation and phonemic transcription, but they differ in meaning, e.g.,:

See, sea / si:/

Week, weak / wi:k/

Chapter (9): Words

A. Definition of Word

A. Definition of Word

A **word** is any segment of a sentence or phrase, which is bounded by successive points at which pausing is possible. This pausing can be a short stoppage among words. The sentence below explains the above definition:

Since +the +streetlamp+ is +out, I+ must+ call+ up+ the+ council man.

A word is any unit of language that gives meaning. **OR** It is the unit of a language that has spoken and written forms.

B. Classification of English Words

English words can be classified on the basis of the kinds and combinations of **morphemes** of which they are composed. They are three classes:

1. **Simple word** that consists of a single **free morpheme**, e.g.,:

Short, long, book, day, window, etc.

2. **Complex word** contains either two **bound morphemes** together or a **bound morpheme + free morpheme**, e.g.,:

Examples of bound morpheme + bound morpheme:

Exclude , televise , matricide .

3. **Compound word** consists of **free morphemes**, usually two, e.g.,:

Greenhouse , outside , attorneygeneral, Jonny-on-the-spot.

Chapter (9): Words

C. Compound words and Grammatical Structures

C. **Compound words** resemble grammatical structures in that they imply grammatical relationships. Here are (9) implied grammatical structures:

No	Implied Grammatical Structures	Implying Grammatical Relationships in Compound Words
1.	Subject + verb	Earthquake (... earth quakes)
2.	Verb + object	Crybaby (... cries the baby)
3.	Verb + adverbial	Stop over (... stops over)
4.	Subject + be + adjectival	High chair (... chair is high)
5.	Subject + be + nominal	Girlfriend (... friend is a girl)
6.	Subject + be + adverbial	Ingroup (... group is in)
7.	Prepositional phrase	Extrasensory (... beyond the senses)
8.	Adjective modified by prepositional phrase	Treetop (... top of tree)
9.	Coordination	Give-and-take (give and take)

Doing Exercise (9-3) on spot:

Using the (9) numbers given above, indicate the number of the grammatical structure implied by each compound word:

1. work man (**1**) Man works.

2. afternoon (7) After the noon.
 3. pickpocket (2) He picks the pocket.
 4. quicksand (4) the sand was quick.
 5. knockdown (3) He knocked down
 6. airtight (8) Air = Noun, tight = Adjective, tight of air
 7. praiseworthy (8) Noun =praise, worthy = adjective, worthy of praise.
 - 8.outgo (3) Verb = go, out = adverb, go out.
 9. fly-by-night (3) fly = verb, adverb (time), flies by night
 10. booster shot (1) booster = (Noun) Subject, shot =verb
 11. overheat (3) heat = verb + over =adverb
 12. rough-and-ready (9) rough and ready.
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Chapter (9): Words

C. The differentiations between Compound Words and Grammatical Structures:

Compound words can be distinguished from grammatical structures in three ways:

1. Compound words cannot be divided by the insertion of intervening material between the two parts, but the grammatical structures can be divided. For example,

a. She is a **sweetheart**. (Compound Word)

b. She has a **sweet heart**. (Grammatical Structure)

In sentence (a), the word „sweetheart“ is a compound word and cannot be divided or inserting any an element to it.

But in sentence (b), the word „sweet heart“ is a grammatical structure in the sense that we can add another word between them. Also, this grammatical structure can accept insertions:

b. She has a **sweet, nice heart**.

So, we inserted another adjective, which is „nice“.

2. The compound is only one word whether it consists of two or three words, while the grammatical structure counts each word separately in the sense that the first word functions as a modifier for the second word (headword), as illustrated below:

a. It was **a very hard ball**. (Grammatical Structure) It was a **ball**.

b. It was a **baseball**. (Compound) Fixed forms.

in sentence (a), „hard ball“ is a grammatical structure because „hard“ is an adjective modifying the noun „ball“, and that“s why the adjective „hard“ admits the intensifier „very“, but the word „baseball“ is one compound word that cannot accept any intensifier. Thus, it is not correct to say:

b. *It was a very **baseball**. (**Wrong**)

3. Some compound nouns have the primary stress on both words like „high chair/ /ha'ɪ tʃe'ə(r)/, meaning (a chair for children), while in the grammatical structure, the primary stress is found on the modifier (adjective) /'haɪ tʃeə(r)/, meaning (a chair that is high).

Chapter (9): Words

C. Doing an Exercise Related to the differentiation between Compound words (Cd) and Grammatical structures (Gs):

Doing Exercise (9-4):

Indicate whether each underlined expression is a compound word (Cd) or a grammatical structure (Gs):

1. Jim's new car is a hardtop. (Cd)
2. This jar has a rather hard top. (Gs)
3. It was a jack-in-the-box. (Cd)
4. There was a plant in the box. (Gs)
5. A HOTDOG is not a hot dog. (Cd), (Gs)
6. He has a dog in the manger attitude. (Cd)
7. She has a strong hold on him. (Gs)
8. She has a stronghold in the Women's club. (Cd)
9. George found his father-in-law. (Cd)
10. George found his father in trouble. (Gs)
11. They bought it on the black market. (Cd)

12. The electricity went off, and we were caught in a **black**, completely lightless, **market**. (Gs)

13. Henry is a **DESIGNING TEACHER**. (Cd) (Double Primary Stress)

14. Henry is a **designing teacher**. (Gs)

Chapter (10): Processes Wordformation

Wordformation refers to creating new words through different morphological processes. These processes are illustrated below with sufficient examples:

A. Compounding

Compounding is simply the joining of two words or more into to have new words. The resulting new words can be nouns or adjectives or verbs or adverbs. As the process of compounding adopts syntactic patterns as illustrated in the table below:

No.	Syntactic Pattern	Compound Words
1.	Noun + Noun = Noun	Cornflakes
2.	Adjective + Noun = Noun	Busybody
3.	Verb + Adjective = Noun	Breakfast
4.	Preposition + Noun = Adverb	Alongside
5.	Verb + Noun = Noun	Hang-glider
6.	Verb + Preposition = Verb	Cut off

B. Derivation

Derivation is the forming of new words by combining derivational and inflectional affixes with already existing words, such as disadvise, reading, speaker, emplane, deplane, teleplay, ecosystem, coachdom, re-ask, activity, actor, etc.

Chapter (10): Processes of Wordformation

Invention (Coinage), Clipping, Acronymy

C. Invention (Coinage)

Invention or coinage refers to new words that are totally invented, such as the words „kodak“, „nylon“, „dingbat“, „floosy“, „goof“, „vaseline“, and „blurb“.

E. Clipping

Clipping means cutting off the beginning or the end of a word, or both, leaving a part to stand for the whole. The resultant form is called a clipped word, such as professor = prof, laboratory = lab, examination = exam, mathematics = math, psychology = psych, dormitory = dorm.

F. Acronymy

Acronymy is the process whereby a word is formed from the initials or beginning segments of a succession of words. If the initials are pronounced as one word, it will be acronym like the acronym „NATO“, which is pronounced /'neɪtəʊ/. But if the word is pronounced as separate sounds, this is called abbreviation, such as the word MP taken from the initials **M**ilitary **P**olice or **M**ember of **P**arliament.

Doing Exercise (10-5)

Pronounce these acronyms and give their originals

1. **RV** = Recreational Vehicle
2. **NOW** = National Organization of Women
3. **UNESCO** = United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
4. **OK** = Old Kinderhook
5. **Scuba** = Self-contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus
6. **OPEC** = Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries
7. **WASP** = White, Anglo-Saxon Protestant
8. **ICBM** = Intercontinental Ballistic Missile
9. **jeep** = General Purpose
10. **laser** = Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation

Chapter (10): Processes Wordformation

G. Blending, H. Back formation, J. Antonomasia

G. Blending is the fusion of two words into one, usually the first part of one word with the last of the other word, such as **gasohol** taken from **gasoline** and also **hol**.

Doing Exercise (10.7)

Give the blends that result from fusing these words:

1. **transfer** + **resistor** = **transistor**
2. **automobile** + **omnibus** = **autobus**
3. **escalade** + **elevator** = **escalator**
4. **blare or blow** + **spurt** = **blurt**
5. **squall** + **squeak** = **squawk**

H. Back formation is the formation of a word from one that looks like its derivative, such as write = writer, speak = speaker , edit = editor.

Reader = read + er = reader , Gerund (V +Ing) Smoking is risky.

J. Antonomasia (Eponym) refers to the formation of a common noun , or a verb, or an adjective from the name of a person or place. For example, a

lover may be called „Romeo“ after the name of the lover Romeo. Casanova is used to call some make-up products Casanova.

Doing Exercise (10.11)

Write the original of each word given below:

1. sandwich = **Fourth Earl of Sandwich**
2. hamburger = **Hamburg (German city)**
3. frankfurter = **Frankfurt (a central German city)**
4. wiener = (a frankfurter = thin, red-brown **sausage**)
5. baloney, bologna = (**An Italian city = baloney Sausage**)
6. denim = Ville de Nîmes (**French city of Nimes**)
7. cashmere = **an Indian city**
8. jeans = **Genoa fustian**
9. leotard = **Jules Léotard** (an aerial gymnast; trapeze artist)
10. guy = **Guy Fawkes** an English rebel.

Chapter (11): INFLECTIONAL PARADIGMS

Noun Paradigm & Pronoun Paradigms

A paradigm is a set of related forms having the same stem, but they have different affixes. For example, the stem „**head**“ has a derivational paradigm:

ahead, be**headed**, **header**, **headlong**, **headship**, **heady**, and **subheaded**, **heading**, **headstrong**.

Paradigms are also formed by the words to which the inflectional affixes are attached. These are called inflectional paradigms. There are only four of them as illustrated below:

Noun Paradigm

Forms	Stem	Plural	Possessive	Plural + Possessive
Inflectional Suffixes		(-s pl)	(-s Poss.)	(- s pl Poss.)
Irregular Noun	woman	women	woman's	women's
Regular Noun	doctor	doctors	doctor's	doctors'

Pronoun Paradigm

Speaker	Subject	Object	Prenominal Possessive	Substitutional Possessive
1st	I	me	my	mine
2nd	you	you	your	yours
3rd	he	him	his	his
Masculine				
Feminine	she	her	her	hers
Neutral	it	it	its	Its
1st	we	us	our	ours

2 nd	you	you	your	yours
3 rd	they	them	their	Theirs
Interrogative	who	whom	whose	whose
Relatives				

According to the above table, the pronoun „I“ functions as the subject of the sentence, „me“ functions as the object of the sentence. „My“ functions as the pronominal possessive determiner that specifically precedes the nouns only. Finally, the pronoun paradigm „mine“ functions as the substitutional possessive personal pronoun, which is usually placed after verb be. The examples below explain practically the fore-mentioned cases:

1. **I** like him too much. (**Subject**)
2. He drove **me** to my work place. (**Object**)
3. Sarah took **my** car. (**Determiner**)
4. This book is **mine**. (**Substitutional Pronoun/Nominal**)

Chapter (11): INFLECTIONAL PARADIGMS

Verb Paradigm & A. Exploring The Noun Paradigm

Verb paradigm refers to a stem verb that has related forms with different inflectional suffixes. For example, the stem „write“ verb can be „writes“ having a 3rdpersonal singular (-s), an inflectional suffix. As it can be „writing“ with the inflectional (-ing) participle form, or can be „wrote“ having (-ed1) or „written with (ed 2) inflectional suffix of the past participial

form. The table below explains the verb paradigms and their inflectional suffixes:

Verb Paradigm

Forms	Stem	Present 3 rd person	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
Inflectional Suffixes		-(s 3 rd)	(-ing)	(-ed 1)	(-ed2)
Regular Verb	show	shows	showing	showed	showed
Irregular Verbs	ring	rings	ringing	rang	rung
Zero participial Verbs	cut	cuts	cutting	cut	cut

A. The Noun Paradigm

We have already explained the four-form paradigm like the stem „doctor“, the plural paradigm „doctors“, the singular possessive paradigm „doctor“s, and the plural possessive paradigm doctors“. However, many nouns do not take the possessive inflectional suffix (-s) because the (of-structure) often takes the place of the inflectional (-s) suffix or some language users prefer using the (of-structure) instead of the inflectional paradigm (- s possessive). For instance, one is more likely to say “**the ceiling of the room**” instead of saying “the room’s ceiling”.

In verbal or spoken language, we cannot decide whether the speaker is using the possessive (-s) or the plural (-s) since both of them have identical forms either /-s/ or /-z/ or /-iz/. For example, if you hear someone saying / ðə 'dɒktərz 'semɪnɑ:r/, it could mean either “the doctor’s seminar” (singular possessive) or “the doctors’ seminar”, (plural possessive) or “ the doctors seminar” (plural noun).

Paradigm of Noun Groups

A few groups of nouns have only one form. These groups are illustrated below:

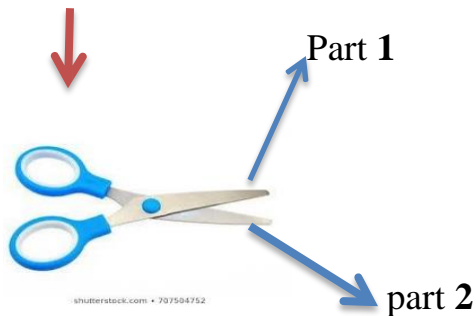
1. The first group has a zero (-s plural) suffix including **tennis**, **courage**, and **haste** – these are the stems.

2. The second group does not have a singular form; rather each noun has a (-s plural) suffix, such as **clothes**, **environs**, **trousers**, etc. As they can be substituted by the subject and object pronouns **they/ them** used with the plural auxiliary verbs, e.g.,:

- My **clothes** are clean, but **they** are not dry.

Summation Plural refers to the common nouns that consist of two parts:

scissors



tongs



3. The third group contains nouns that end with the original (-s) indicating science or scientific subjects, such **linguistics**, **physics**, **mathematics**, **optics**, **phonetics**, etc. They are considered singular forms, e.g.:

We studied **phonetics** last year, and **it** was a hard subject.

4. The fourth group is called the ill-defined group because it has miscellaneous forms of nouns ending with (-s) like **ethics**, **oats**, **suds**, and **measles**. These can be singular and plural depending on the context:

Singular	<u>Measles</u> is a contagious disease.	Malady
Plural	Have you ever had them , the measles ?	Maladies
Singular	I had a measles .	Malady
Singular	Ethics is a challenging subject.	A philosophic discipline
Plural	I don't approve of his personal ethics .	Beliefs and actions

Singular & Plural Forms of Nouns

Chapter (11): INFLECTIONAL PARADIGMS

(1. Noun Plurals)

There is a distinction between singular nouns and plural nouns. Syntactically speaking, the word „singular“ means one thing only, whereas the word „plural“ means more than one, which might be two or three or more. But there is some confusion with some nouns, which might be regarded singular or plural, and (-s plural) is not always the marker of being plural because some words end with the inflectional suffix (-s), such as physics and phonetics. Consider the sentence below:

- I like your **hair**.

The word „hair“ either it means a strand, which is a singular form or plural form when it indicates „coiffure“ or „thatch“ on someone“s head.

However, there are three useful tests for examining the number in the noun:

(A). A noun is singular if it takes singular subject and object pronouns or singular demonstratives, such as he/him, she/her or this or that, but it will be a noun if it takes plural forms like they/them, these or those.

Practical Examples:

1. The beach was covered with **white sand**. (**it**)
2. Have you studied **phonetics**? (**it**)
3. Where did you hang your **trousers**? (**them**)

(B). The number of a noun may be signaled by a modifier like several, many, this, that, those, fifteen, or by a pronoun reference, such as his/her, its, their.

Practical Examples:

1. We saw **many fish** swimming under the bridge.
2. Returning to the fold, the **sheep** changed **its** direction.
3. Returning to the fold, the **sheep** changed **their** direction.

(C). When a noun functions as subject of a verb, its number is sometimes shown by the form of the verb. In grammar, this is called Grammatical Concord of Number or Grammatical Agreement of Number which is marked by the verb Be:

Practical Examples:

1. **Measles** **is** a contagious disease. (**Singular**)

2. The **goods** **are** on the way. (**Plural**)

Doing Exercise (11-4) on page (133) on spot:

Encircle the verb that reveals the number of the bolded nouns:

1. The **Chinese** was preparing the dinner.

2. The **Chinese** were preparing the dinner.

3. **Oats** is his best crop.

4. The **bass** **are** biting today.

5. The **species** has become extinct.

There is a group of nouns known as collective nouns which can be singular and plural. These nouns represent a collection or unit of individuals, such as tribe, family, team, committee, faculty, choir, etc.

Singular: The **family** **is** sitting at the dinner table. (**One Unit**)

Plural: The **family** **have** gathered from many parts of the country. (**Individuals**).

Chapter (11): INFLECTIONAL PARADIGMS

(1. Noun Plurals & 2. Noun Possessive)

In addition to the regular (-s) plural, there are several small groups of irregular plurals.

1. Three nouns have the derivational suffix (-en) as the plural forms of nouns: ox = oxen, child = children, brother = brethren.

2. The second group has a zero suffixal plural, such as fish = fish, sheep = sheep, deer = deer, bass = bass, swine =swine, bear = bear, antelope = antelope, etc.

3. Seven common nouns form their plural by a replacive allomorph, e.g.:

Foot = feet, tooth =teeth , goose = geese, lice = louse, mice = mouse, man =men, woman = women.

4. One set of nouns undergoes a change in its allomorph /f/ becomes /v/, such as calf = cal**v**es, wolf = wolves, loaf = loaves, wife = wives.

2. Noun Possessive

The noun possessive morpheme (-s plural) has the same morphologically conditioned allomorphs as the plural /-s/, /-z/, /iz/, plus a zero allomorph. However, this possessive morpheme can have a variety of different semantic relationships that can exist between the **possessive noun** and the **noun that follows**. These semantic relationships are shown below:

No.	Noun Possessive Morpheme (-s)	Sematic Relationships
1.	John's hat	Possession or belongingness
2.	A cowboy's walk	Characterization or description
3.	Shakespeare's Hamlet	Origin
4.	An hour's wait A dollar's worth A stone's throw	Measure (time, value, space)
5.	The judge's decision (The judge decided)	Subject of act
6.	Eliot's critics were many. Eliot was criticized by many critics.	Object of act

Doing exercise (11-9) on page (138):

Using the numbers (1-6), indicate the semantic relation of each bolded possessive and its following noun:

1. We missed the other car by **hair's breath**. (4)
2. A **wren's song** floated through the window. (3-5)
3. They were playing **children's games**. (2)
4. The police provided **for Richard's protection**. (6)
5. The **boy's jump** saved his life. (5)
6. The **moon's beams** were brilliant that night. (3)
7. **Willard's arrival** was a surprise. (5)
8. He has never done a **day's work**. (4)

9. She met **Dickie's father**. (3-1)

10. He was happy about **Jane's winning**. (5)

Semantic Ambiguity / Lexical Ambiguity

-His **son's loss** grieved him.

The above sentence has a possessive case, meanwhile this possession generates a kind of lexical ambiguity in that it can be interpreted in two ways:

A. Father **lost his son** and got grieved. (Verb + Object)

B. **His son lost** something, which made his father grieved. (Subject + Verb)

Chapter (11): INFLECTIONAL PARADIGMS

(B. The Verb Paradigm)

The English lexical verbs are divided into regular verbs and irregular verbs. Both types have five forms: (1) the base, (2) the (3rd personal-s), (3) (-ing) (4) participial, (-ed) past, and (5) (ed) past participial. These forms are illustrated in the tabulated strips below:

Regular Verb Paradigms

<u>Stem:</u>	<u>(-s present)</u>	<u>(-ing)</u>	<u>(-ed1):</u>	<u>(-ed2):</u>
learn	learns	learning	learned	learned

Irregular Verb Paradigms

<u>Stem:</u>	<u>(-s present)</u>	<u>(-ing)</u>	<u>(-ed1):</u>	<u>(-ed2):</u>
write	writes	writing	wrote	written

Verbs undergoing no change in past & past participial forms

<u>Stem:</u>	<u>(-s present)</u>	<u>(-ing)</u>	<u>(-ed1): X</u>	<u>(-ed2): X</u>
cut	cuts	cutting	cut	cut

Each of these forms has its own uses, which are explained below:

1. The first form is the stem. It occurs after (to), after modal auxiliaries, and in the present tense:

- Nadia wants **to come back**.
- She **may call** me.
- We **eat** our snacks easily.

2. The present third-person singular is the form used with singular nouns and pronouns he, she, it, and words for which these pronouns substitute, and with word groups.

- **That freshman cuts** his class every Wednesday.
- **He cuts** his class every Wednesday.
- **Each is** expected to do his duty.
- **Somebody has** left a note for you.

3. The present participial (-ing) form combines with seven of the eight forms of be – am, is, was, are, were, be, been in order to make verb phrases, e.g.,:

- They **were writing** letters.

- She must have **been sleeping**.

4. The past tense of the lexical verbs takes on numerous forms, such as spoke, shrunk, went, kept, rode, began found, took, etc.

- He **spoke** English well.

5. The past participial also has numerous forms, such as spoken, gone, ridden, begun, taken, etc.

- He has **spoken** English well.

Chapter (11): INFLECTIONAL PARADIGMS

(B. The Verb Paradigm)

There are certain patterns of change in the past tense and past participle:

1. Suppletion is the occurrence of phonemically unrelated allomorphs of the same morpheme, such as the verb „went“ as the past tense of the stem verb „go“. Let’s look at the five-form verb „go“:

Go = **goes** = **going** = **went** = **gone**.

In this paradigm one form, „went“ seems out of place. It ought to be *goed, or at least a word that begins with /g/. The whole stem /go-/ has been

replaced by a wholly different stem /went-/. Such a total change within a paradigm is called suppletion, and the new form is a suppletive form. The suppletion can simply be expressed by this diagram:

/went/ = /go > went/ + /t/

The English primary verb (be) undergoes suppletive forms:

Be am/is/are **be**ing was/were **be**en

The stem is clearly be, while the alien forms that have intruded themselves into the paradigm (am, is, are, was, were) are suppletive forms.

Doing Exercise (11-15) on page (144):

Classify these words as N (noun), V (verb), or NV (both noun and verb):

No.	Word and its Class	No	Word and its Class
1.	Driver = N	11.	Bird = N
2.	Compliment = NV	12.	Join = N V
3.	Appear = V	13.	End = N V
4.	World = N	14.	Morning = N
5.	Agency = N	15.	Variety = N
6.	Agonize = V	16.	Mother = N V
7.	Truck = NV	17.	Grammar = N
8.	Decide = V	18.	Melt = N V
9.	Emotion = N	19.	Note = N V

10. Book = NV

20. Carve = NV

Chapter (11): INFLECTIONAL PARADIGMS

(B. The Verb Paradigm)

2. Aspect in the Verb Phrase

Aspect is the expression of meanings concerned with the continuity or distribution **of events in time**. Here are a few such meanings, which are expressed in various ways:

1. **Beginning of events**: He began to sweat.
2. **End of event**: He stopped sweating.
3. **Frequency of event**: She always sang.
4. **Repetition of event**: Jim pounded on the door.
5. **Habitual performance of event**: They **used to** eat dinner early.
6. **Single Occurrence of event in time**: I ate my lunch.
7. **Progression or duration of event in time**: I was eating my lunch.
8. **Completion of event**: I have eaten my lunch.

C. The Comparable Paradigm

The comparable paradigm refers to the stem adjectives irrespective of the inflectional suffixes added to them.

Stem	Comparative	Superlative
sweet	Sweet er = inflectional Suffix	sweet est = inflectional Suffix
short	short er = inflectional Suffix	Short est = inflectional Suffix
deadly	deadli er = inflectional Suffix	deadli est = inflectional Suffix

This paradigm is counted the pattern for these groups:

1. Nearly all one-syllable adjectives, such as hot, small= smaller, proud.
2. Some two-syllable adjectives, especially those ending in (-ly) and (-y), such as lovely, funny and polite.
3. A few adverbials of one or two syllables, such as fast and early.
4. One preposition, near as it is noted in the sentence “Nadia sat nearest the door.”

Other adjectives and adverbs usually take a preceding more or most instead of the inflectional -er or est.