CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. The Inflectional Suffixes

The broadest and most comprehensive classes of morphemes in English, and the most nearly universal in the languages of the world are *roots* and *affixes*. In general, affixes are subsidiary to roots, while roots are the centers of such constructions as words. Roots are frequently longer than affixes, and generally much more numerous in the vocabulary. Affixes may be added directly to roots, or to constructions consisting of a root plus one or more other morphemes. All these may be called stems. "A stem is any morpheme or combination of morphemes to which an affix can be added " (H.A. Gleason, Jr, 1961: 59).

Two different types of affixes can be defined here. Both are found in English and in many other languages. Prefixes are affixes which precede the root with which they are most closely associated. Suffixes are affixes which follow the root with which they are most closely

associated. The analysis, however, discusses about suffixes in Arabic and English verbs. This is because these suffixes show the influence of their personal pronouns. In English, for example, the {-S} suffix such as in a sentence *He sails the ocean blue* which is added to the end of the verb is an agreement marker, it signifies that the subject of the verb is third person, and singular. In fact, there are two types of suffixes, derivational and inflectional suffixes. The suffixes which must always come at the end of the morpheme groups to which they belong will be called inflectional suffixes, and this is the focus of the analysis. The following features are characteristics of inflectional formation (Eugene A. Nida, 1949: 99):

1. Do not belong to substantially the same general external distribution classes as simplest member of the class in question.
2. Tend to be "outer" formation.
3. Tend to be statistically less numerous.
4. Have inflectional morphemes with more extensive distribution.
5. Exhibit no changes in major distribution class membership.

6. May show a grammatical relationship between words.

According to Gleason expression and content are equally fundamental aspects of language. In this chapter the writer will attempt to point out some of the more important characteristics of such units in language structure.

Number is familiarly thought of as a contrast between one category indicating a single individual and another indicating two or more. These are traditionally designated as singular and plural. These names are intended to suggest the "meanings" of these categories. In fact, the possibilities of number distinctions are not exhausted with singular and plural. Some languages distinguish two or more plurals on the basis of distinctions. For example, Kru, a language of Liberia, has a singular and two plurals. One of these refers to any chance assortment of two or more of the objects referred to. The other refer to a group of objects which are in some way related.

Other languages make distinctions of the same sort that English does, but in greater detail. Many languages have three numbers: singular, dual, and plural such as in Arabic. Dual refers to two of a kind while plural applies

to three or more.

Gender is another category which is quite common in nouns. Typically, gender involves not only substitution but also concord. Probably the best definition of gender is a set of syntactic subclasses of nouns primarily controlling concord.

In European languages there is some correlation of gender with sex. This is reflected in traditional labels, masculine, feminine, and neuter. However, the correlation may be exceedingly loose. The names of many sexless objects are assigned to either masculine or feminine, even in those languages which have a neuter.

Person is a common category in verbs and pronouns. The third person certainly has a singular and plural in English. These forms have much in common syntactically and semantically with singular and plural nouns, and can often be directly substituted for them. The second person presents a different situation. In most dialects there is absolutely no distinction whatever between the so-called singular and the so-called plural. In the first person the situation is even more complex. Two forms occur in all dialects. However, the distinction between them is seldom comparable to that between singular and plural in nouns,

or to the distinction in the third person pronouns.

In short, morphological structure may be simple or complex. Such "bound" grammatical morphemes are called inflectional morphemes, and in this case inflectional suffixes: they never change the syntactic category of the words or morphemes to which they are attached. Bound morphemes are morphemes which never occur in isolation, e.g. the -s suffix in such English words as *sails*, *recognizes*, etc, and the ت /-ta/ suffix in such Arabic words as /katabta/, /hasibta/, etc. They are always attached to complete words. Similarly, there are "bound" morphemes that are for the most part purely grammatical markers, representing such concepts as tense, number, gender, case, possessive, and so forth. On the basis of isolatability, stems such as *sail*, *recognize*, /kataba/, and /hasiba/ belong to free morphemes, since it is possible to utter all these stems in isolation.

2.2. Classing Allomorphs into Morphemes

Eugene A Nida in 'Morphology: A Descriptive Analysis of Words' defines morphology as the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words. Morphemes are the minimal meaningful units which may

constitute words or parts of words, and the morpheme arrangemets which are treated under the morphology of a language include all combinations that form words or parts of words (Eugene A. Nida, 1949: 14).

According to Nida there are six principles which can be applied in identifying morphemes. This thesis, however, uses the second principle to explain the problem discussed. The principle says that forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness but which differ in phonemic form (i.e. the phonemes or order of the phonemes) may constitute a morpheme provided the distribution of formal differences is phonologically definable. It means that forms with some common semantic distinctiveness but with different phonemes or arrangements of phonemes can be put together as a single morpheme as long as there are phonological conditions which govern the occurence of such phonologically different forms.

In English, for example, in the series *comparable*, *context*, and *congregate*, the distribution of their prefix can be phonologically defined. Here the bilabial nasal precedes a bilabial consonant; an alveolar nasal precedes an alveolar consonant; and a velar nasal precedes a velar consonant. Thus, this type of relationship between these

forms can be symbolized as /kam- ~ kan- ~ kaŋ/. The wavy symbol ~ means that the difference of distribution between the alternant forms of a single morpheme is phonologically definable. The situation in which phonemes are phonologically similar, whether in terms of point of articulation or manner of articulation is termed assimilation. Assimilation may therefore be defined as the process whereby the position of the speech agents for the production of one sound is altered to a position more like that of a neighboring sound.

Besides, the morphophonemics adjustment is also used in describing the influence of personal pronouns toward verbs in Arabic and English. This because as the examples given above the influence which appears in the inflected verbs considerably brings some changes in their phonemic forms.

As has been suggested by W. Nelson Francis in 'The Structure of American English', there are also several types of morphophonemic change which are desirable to describe the phonemic relationships between allomorphs without resorting to historical (diachronic) considerations. And this is of course from the point of view of synchronic linguistics as well as what the writer

focuses upon her analysis. Of course, in attempting to describe the phonological environment of various types of morphemic alternants or allomorphs there will be kinds of phonological environment which differ greatly, but some kinds tend to recur more frequently than others. In order to explain in a measure the relationships of such phonological differences, the changes which take place have been spoken of in terms of processes.

It has been mentioned the process of assimilation in which the allomorphic distribution may be defined in terms of similarities of point of articulation or manner of articulation. In the chapter of analysis the processes will cover the assimilative process by which a vowel is affected by another vowel. Besides, there is also a process of loss of phonemes when one or more phonemes that are present in the normal allomorph of a morpheme may simply be missing in another allomorph. Assimilations are termed *progressive* and *regressive* according as the assimilated sound is influenced by a preceding or by a following sound. When the preceding sound influences the sound that follows, the assimilation is termed progressive, and when the second sound influences the first, it is called regressive.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS