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**INFLECTIONAL MORPHEMES IN STANDARD ENGLISH  
AND KURDISH: A CONTRASTIVE STUDY**

*MASTER'S THESIS*

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## **ABSTRACT**

The topic of the master's thesis is Inflectional morphemes in Standard English and Kurdish (a contrastive study). This thesis is a study related to the system of inflectional morpheme in Kurdish and English with a contrastive analysis approach. Contrastive analysis approach is used to evaluate differences and similarities particularly in the various aspects of inflectional morphemes in both contrasted languages with regard to their morphological forms, and grammatical aspects by investigating the role of inflection when connected to a stem. It is usually believed that the inflectional morphemes are closing items in English, and inflection can be described as the modification in the form of a word typically by adding inflectional morpheme in a systematic way to yield a new word, which reflects grammatically conditioned information such as number, gender, tense and mood. These grammatical relationships are compulsory for the word class depending on a specific grammatical context. There are limited numbers of inflections in each language and are used to denote aspects of grammatical function of a word. Outcomes illustrate that there are more diversity of inflectional morpheme in Kurdish than English, but they have some common properties as well as differences. They are the last item of any kind in the word. In collecting the data, we use descriptive method and comparative approach. The English inflection morphemes are collected from English grammar books, meanwhile the Kurdish are taken from two sources books and thesis.

We use a descriptive, comparative and an analytical method to investigate how inflectional morpheme is shown and performed from a morphological perspective. In order to study inflection in both contrasted languages we present definitions and the concept of morphology with its other parts such as morpheme, its classification and the concept of morphology and explain its own approach to the study of language. Therefore, it is essential to discover that inflectional morphemes

are used to create words as well as to understand how words are categorized in a syntactic case within sentences.

The purpose of the thesis is to analyze the inflectional morphemes as a universal phenomenon. The work is carried out from their position and function.

In addition, in an effort to find the method of analysis, we use descriptive method. In general, this method has three main phases of analysis in the research: first: finding and outlining fundamental notions of the systems inflectional morpheme in English and Kurdish Second: explaining what is intended by morphological forms and grammatical aspects. Third: analyzing the differences and similarities of inflectional morpheme in English and Kurdish on these units in a sentence or a word based on contrastive study. To attain this, we consider that this research resulted in several main points of differences and similarities of inflectional morphemes in both contrasted languages, some of which are true inflection morpheme in both and some are not in regard to morphological form.

As a result of this analysis, the abstract reached at are anticipated to be of value to teachers of English, English textbook writers, researchers, and to research groups of student who study English. It can also be of value to teachers of Kurdish, Kurdish textbooks, and Kurdish students as well.

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## **Introduction**

This study is a contrastive study of inflectional morpheme in English and Kurdish language. It outlines the similarities and differences among the items in the two languages in terms of morphological forms and grammatical aspects. This study investigates the behaviors of the English and Kurdish morphology, in particular, inflectional morpheme. In order to identify the main points between them. In addition, the study clarifies and identifies the main ambiguous points provided with examples for analysis.

The research is important because the study lies in demonstrating the morphological forms of inflectional morpheme of both languages with its grammatical aspects. It is focused on finding out the important and relevant main points of similarities and difference between two-contrasted languages to shed some light on the universe nature of language.

Our aim is to discover and clarify the main points of similarities and dissimilarities to prevent the learners from difficulty of both languages.

The subject of our research is to analyze inflectional morphemes through both contrasted languages, English and Kurdish.

The object of our research is to point out and find some similarities and differences of the inflectional morphemes.

As for the theoretical source, our investigation is focused on the findings of some outstanding scholar in English such as: (Aronoff,M and Fudeman,K , Carstairs-McCarthy, Crystal, David, Katamba,F and stonhm,J ) but as for Kurdish ( Marif AuRahman Haji, Fattah,M,M and Qadir,S,R ).

The theoretical value of the research is that it provides a concise brief and summarized background of the field of the concept of morphology and its features in general.

The practical value of the research is accounted for by possibility to use and results of our investigation to clarify the differences and similarities of both

languages. It is also useful for English textbook writer and researchers and to the English students as well as for Kurdish teachers and English students as well.

The structure of research contains 109 pages and consists of introduction, theoretical part (defining the concept of morphology, morphemes with its classification and the concept of inflection as well in the languages and the difference and similarities between them), practical part (identifying the similarities and dissimilarities in terms of morph syntactic units and grammatical aspect in the words, phrase and sentence).

Results, Conclusion and reference.Each unit consists of several logically interconnected sections followed by results in which we count the main outcome of our work. The total outcome of the research is summarized in a separate conclusion

The thesis offers a number of conclusions. The most significant conclusions that is shown from this study are that inflectional morphemes in English close the structure of the word while they do not close the structure of the word in Kurdish and nouns are inflected for definiteness and indefiniteness in Kurdish. References come at the end of the study.

Our research consists of 125 sources represented by books of Russian and foreign authors as well as Kurdish references and some articles, theses as well.



## **Chapter I The Concept of Morphology in English and Kurdish**

### **1.1 Definition of English Morphology**

The term morphology is one of the significant topics in present-day and many scholars talked about it. Plenty of scholars such as McCarthy, 2002, Katamba and Stonham, 1996, Aronoff, 2011, Haspelmath and Sims, 2002, explained this term.

In each language, words play a major grammatical role in which they are made out of smaller components by specific sample, but put together into sentences by rather different samples. Morphology can be a sub discipline of linguistics which deals with word and concerns with the study and analysis of structure, forms, and classes of word.

According to Booij states, that morphology is the study of the form of words. Thus, morphology deals with the internal constituent formation of words, which show the relationship between form and meaning of word in a systematic nature (Booij, 2007).

In addition, morphology is a branch of linguistic, which investigate the words; their inner structure and the way of words are made (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2011).

In addition, morphology deals with the word structure in which new words are recognized in the language of the world, and the form of the words can be different depending on how they are used in sentence (Lieber, 2009).

Besides, Khomutova notes, “morphology is the study of word-forms and their meaningful parts”(Khomutova, 2006:34).

Morphology is viewed as the branch of linguistics that is concerned with the relation between meaning and form, with words and between words (Fasold and Conner-linton, 2006)

To sum up, from some concepts that is stated above, we can say that morphology studies the organized correspondence in both the form and meaning of word grammatically, word and morpheme are significant units in studying morphology. Despite, the popular notion that the word is the smallest meaningful

unit, the smallest unit with meaning is in fact morpheme. In other word, many words are themselves morphemes, they couldn't be broken down into smaller unit that in themselves carry meaning. It is the study with these regularities that consist of the domain of inflection and word formation. Thus, the role of morphology in the grammar can be issued in the interfere between morphology and phonetic as well as morphology and syntax .And morphology is a way of increasing the lexical capacity by the speakers.

To conclude that, morphology is a study in the field of linguistics, which operates between two things to form word: morpheme and their elements.

## **1.2 Definition of Kurdish morphology**

The term morphology is one of the major subjects in current study and many scholars mentioned it. Plenty of scholars such as .Haji Marf, 2014,.Dzay, A, 2013, .Shwany, 2011 .Marouf and Rashid 2006, viewed this term.

Morphology is viewed that a science that studies the laws of words composition and morphemes from the aspect of formation, and change, composition and laws of their sequencing, and studies them within the framework of the word; in this manner, it studies the formation of complex words (It places them within its classification of words). This level of language that concentrates on the study of the interior of words plays an important role in the duties of morphology and the morphological laws in formation of words and morphemes (Mahwi & Omar, 2004).

According to Kareem, the term morphology points out it as investigating which deals with word in the state of forming and shifting (Kareem H.X.2011).

In 2010 Mahwi states that morphology is a main level in linguistics playing an important role in investigating the internal word and classifying the morphemes in which how they are formed in making a big unit .Morphology investigates a suitable connection in morpheme to show a word. (Mahawi, 2010)

In addition, the level of morphology is like a main level of language that has an active role in building with another branch of language and defined a lot by many

schools .Thus, morphology is the dealing with the interior component of a word and a key branch of linguistics, which holds special position in the language. It has an important role in forming relationships with other levels of the language (Marf and Rashid, 2013).

To sum, we can say morphology is the study of word formation, which investigate the composition of inner word and, which consists of two layers: an external one, which involving inflectionally bound form and an internal one, which is the layer of derivation.

### **1.3 The Concept of Morpheme in English**

The concept of “morpheme” From the emergence of this concept until now, it has been given many definitions. The beginning of these definitions dates back to Bloomfield’s definition that states, “The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of language” (Bloomfield, 1954: 161). This definition served as the basis to introduce the concept of morpheme and in many later morphological studies, it was established as a criterion to define the concept of morpheme and its limit.

Additionally, a large number of the linguists have studied the morpheme and the structure of words; among these are Sapir 1925, Bloomfield 1933 and Hockett 1952, Katamba and Stonham, 2006.

Afterwards, in some of the definitions in order to better explain the concept of the morpheme, the characteristics are shown. Some of the definitions were too generalized, had a wider limit and intermingled with other linguistic materials. One of the definitions, which is stated by Stageberg’s, “The smallest unit of language with meaning and indivisible into smaller units, one that can be repeated, is called a morpheme” (Stageberg, 1980: 83). According to this view, every linguistic unit should contain those features in order for it to be considered a morpheme. In this regard, it can be said that the concept of morpheme has a wide range and sometimes it includes words as well. In particular, some words become morphemes that have a meaningful and functional structure from the aspect of structure- simple words/ one-

morpheme. However, we should also know that some part of them do not have lexical meanings; they rather perform a syntactic function hence they are called independent (free) functional morphemes.

“Morpheme is the study of the smallest linguistic pieces with a grammatical function” (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2011)

Also, Brinton claims that morpheme is as the smallest meaning unit in a language, and isn't equal to a word but can be smallest unit such as the phoneme, the morpheme indicate either a class of form or an abstract from particular shapes of language. A morpheme maybe subdivided into smaller meaningful unit because it is not internally separate (Brinton, 2000).

According to Katamba & Stonham, note that morpheme is the minimal variety in the form of a word that connects with the smallest distinction in a word or sentence meaning or in grammar structure (Katamba and Stonham, 2008).

Besides, Zapata asserts that Morpheme is the smallest units of language that have several things within itself meaning, grammatical function and form word or parts of words (Zapata, 2007).

As well, Morpheme is the minimal indivisible units of language or grammatical function, which has a role in making up words (Katamba, 1993).

Likewise, Stageberg mentions that morpheme " is a short segment of language that meet three criteria:

1. It is a word or part of a word that has meaning.
2. It cannot be divided into smaller meaning parts without violation of its meaning or without meaningless remainders.
3. It recurs in different verbal environments with a relatively stable meaning (Stageberg, 1989: 83).

To sum up, we can say that morpheme is the least distinctive unit of grammar and the central concern of morphology, it is the basic unit of grammar structure, which cannot be further, divided or analyzed and can show different phonological

and morphological environment. And we can say that morphology confirm the morpheme. we can say that morpheme has a meaning and function. Morphemes ought to eventually combine sound and meaning; more precisely, they relate a particular kind of phonological representation with a particular type of semantic representation.

#### **1.4 The concept of Morpheme in Kurdish**

The concept dates back to the 1930s after the invention and identifying of its concept. During that period, the linguists started to search for a grammatical unit that can play the same role

Consequently, the concept of morpheme came about in the 1940s. Based on this concept, all grammatical materials can be analyzed into some smaller units that are known as morphemes (Maarouf and Fatah, 2011)

From its appearance up to the present day, the idea of morpheme has gone through many phases especially its development being parallel with the developmental steps of the American School of Structuralism. The concept of morpheme occupied an important position in the linguistic studies. A branch within linguistics was dedicated to study the morphemes and the way they are combined in the composition of words and other morphological constituents. Thus, many shortcomings arose in the theory of morphemes from the outcomes of all those studies and the development of the concept. These later became the subject of focus and reflection of linguists but still this did not result in diminishing the importance of the theory, its practice and reflection in different languages of the world.

Regarding to the definition of the morpheme, the linguists have not reached a unanimous vote; each defines it according to his/her opinion. Some define it as a meaningful linguistic unit, while others consider it a grammatical one. Henceforth, it can be said some view the phenomenon from the perspective of meaning and others from the perspective of function and meaning

However, concerning its definition by Kurdish linguists, it must be said that they have defined it under the influence of the western linguists' opinions. We see fit to present some of those attempts at its definition

According to Hawrami pinpoints, that morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of language. If it was to be further divided into two smaller parts or a single sound was to be cut from it, then neither of them would have meaning (Hawrami, 1981).

In 2004, Haji Marf states that it is the minimum meaningful entity of language, meaning no further contractions can be made from it without the meaning getting lost. For example, a word such as "*storm*" is one morpheme and has five phonemes; the word is smallest meaningful unit here and no further contractions can be made without rendering it meaningless. Thus, if it was to be divided into: "*st-orm*" neither of the two parts would give meaning. If the meaning is lost, then it is no longer considered a morpheme (Haji Marif, 2004)

Also, W. O. Amin, claims that a morpheme is the smallest important unit of language, it is comprised of a phoneme or more and has a role in grammar changing and removing any phoneme of the morpheme or partitioning its meaning into parts would in turn make the original meaning and role disappear; therefore, four faces of a morpheme can be identified:

- 1) It is the smallest meaningful unit of language.
- 2) It consists of one or more phonemes.
- 3) It has a role in grammar.
- 4) By changing and removing any phoneme of the morpheme or partitioning it, the original meaning and role disappears (Amin, 2014).

Besides, (Khawli, 2002) states that a morpheme is the smallest unit of language that has meaning

In addition, morpheme has a special item and few of them works as grammatical function and the other as lexical word and is possible to make them to give a meaningful unit. (Hussein, 2014)

To sum up, we can say that morpheme is the smallest unit of language that has a meaning or duty, because the term “meaning” here indicates something and the term “duty” something else though they can together or separately indicate a morpheme. The meaning behind this is that any unit of language if meaningful can be considered a morpheme. Thus, it does not give a meaning when being cutting into some pieces, but has a grammatical function and phonological unit as well.

### **1.5 Classification of Morpheme in English**

In 2007 Zapata viewed that there are two kinds of morphemes which are free morphemes are those morphemes which can occur alone as words and have a meaning or fulfill a grammatical function; whereas Bound morphemes are those morphemes which never occur alone as words but as parts of words; they must be attached to another morpheme ( Zapata, 2007).

According to Brinton defines a classification of morphemes are of two main different types which are based on meaning and form. The first one is lexical morpheme states a dictionary meaning, which are found in dictionary such as noun, adjective, adverb, and verb, which form open class to which new member, must be attached. Lexical morphemes are free roots or parts of words. Grammatical morpheme states a specific number of meaning or relations within the sentence that are not actually open class, but they show tense, voice, with the verb and number and gender with noun. The second one is based on form. A free morpheme, which stands alone as a word whereas bound morpheme cannot but it, could be combined to another morpheme (Brinton, 2000).

Either from the point of view of Davies and Elder state that there are various categories of morphemes that could be lexical such tie or grammatical morphemes such as –d- in which a speaker does not have a choice, the grammar of the language requires the morpheme to be present if the event happened in the past. Another class in which they mention are free and bound morpheme (Davies and Elder, 2004).

To sum up, we can say that the category of morphemes are of two types the first is free morpheme which stand alone to give full meaning by themselves in a sentence as a single meaning word and found in dictionary such as the word, Man, set, glass, and pen and it cannot be broken down into smallest meaningful unit and is also named independent form and it has lexical meaning. The second morpheme is bound morpheme which cannot give full meaning and cannot stand alone in a sentence and should be added to another morpheme such as ( ish, un, lly, tion ) since they are not a word but they are parts of words and it stands for both meaning and function as in prefix and suffix of a word

### **1.6 Classification of morphemes in Kurdish:**

According to these scholars Peshraw salah, 2015, Mustafa Raza, 2013, shirwan Hussein, 2014 mention two kinds of morphemes available in Kurdish language:

Free morpheme are those which has its own independent morpheme and are recorded in a dictionary and also those which can have its own role and function in sentence, whereas, bound morpheme are those which is so- called blocked morphemes because there are a limited number in language so they have no independent meaning and coming with free morpheme then give meaning.

In addition, two types of morphemes are available which is root morpheme is a kind of morpheme that has a capacity to stand alone and also has a meaning, and also it can be added to another morpheme to create new word, whereas, bound morphemes are those including all of additional morphemes that come out before and after the base which have the function and also change the category of the word ( Merawdaly, 2001)

In addition, in 2014. Haji Marf points out the classification of morphemes into three types:

Firstly. Root morpheme is the smallest base of word which carries a full word meaning and also is called free morpheme as well, secondly Derivational



morpheme, although the root of the word contains the original meaning of the word , but not any language has the ability only by the root and free word can give a meaning .The prefix and suffix are used to help the root and free word to make indefinite words and have a meaning as well and thirdly inflectional morphemes are those which have a grammatical function that connect the relationship of word inside the sentences (Marif ,2014).

Also, Abdulla describes two types of morphemes first is free morpheme is those that can stand alone to give a full dictionary meaning, whereas, bound morpheme are those that works as a grammatical function and added to the word to give meaning(Abdulla ,2013).

To draw the conclusion, we can say that the classification of morphemes in Kurdish language are of two types the first is free morpheme which stand alone to give full meaning by themselves in a sentence as a single meaning word and found in dictionary and the second morpheme is bound morpheme which cannot give full meaning and cannot stand alone in a sentence and should be added to another morpheme.

### **1.7 The concept of Inflectional Morphemes in English**

Crystal believes that inflection (or inflexion) can be defined as a term used in morphology to denote to one of the main processes of the word-formation that is inflectional morphology. Inflectional morphology indicates to grammatical relationships, like plural, past, and possession. A word inflects for past, plural etc. e.g., *play, plays, played* constitutes a single paradigm (Crystal, 2003).

In addition, Huddleston and Pullum state inflection as the distinction in the forms of a lexeme. For example, *car* and *cars* are dissimilar inflectional forms of the same lexeme CAR. Correspondingly, *big, bigger, biggest* are inflectional forms of the lexeme BIG. These differences are grammatical (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005). They are covered under a single dictionary entry and there is no exact mentioning of the word-forms in the dictionary. (Bauer et al., 2006: 77)

Inflection is viewed as the variation of a lexeme, which adds grammatical information to the lexeme depending on the specific syntactic requirements of a language. This type of information refers to feature within a set of grammatical contrasts, such as singular vs. plural, 1<sup>st</sup> person vs. 2<sup>nd</sup> person, masculine vs. feminine, present vs. past and many others. Syntactic requirements mean context to make such a contrast. In the following English sentence, the presence of the quantifier *two* helps to create a context in which the property {+plural} can be realized: *Olivia bought two ----- on line yesterday.*

The grammatical property (+plural) is required by the rules of syntax rather than by any particular morphological form. The syntax does not care which particular form is chosen as long as the noun is plural (Lardiere,2006).

According to Robinson , inflection is taking a word out of a lexicon and putting in it in a sentence in which the word is changed to work in the right way in relation to that particular sentence (Robinson ,2003 ).

Furthermore, Aronoff says that inflection is mostly seen as including the grammatical information such as number, gender, case, tense, person etc. He also expresses one of the characteristics of inflection, which is paradigmatic. Thus, every English non-modal verb shows a paradigm, which consists of the following (Aronoff, 1976), forms:

V	V- s	V -d1	V -d2	V -ing
<i>sigh</i>	<i>sighs</i>	<i>sighed</i>	<i>has(sighed)</i>	<i>sighing</i>

In addition, Lyons expresses the practical understanding of the term inflection may be started with the term *word*. The question of "How many words are there in English?" is ambiguous. One interpretation *sing, sings, singing, sang and sung* can be regarded as different words. In another interpretation, they are considered as different forms of the same word *sing*. Thus, *sing* is a lexeme and *sing, sings, sang* etc. are word-forms. Nevertheless, *sing* has a position among other forms of SING: it is the base form (Lyons, 1981).

However, Carstairs-McCarthy, calls attention to inflectional morphology as the area of morphology concerned with changes in word shape through affixation determined by the grammatical context where a word shows (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002).

According to Thornbury inflectional morphology defines that words such as verbs, nouns, adjectives are inflected to transfer various grammatical meanings as in *she works* , *she worked* , *she is working* in which the suffixes **-s**, **-ed** , **-ing** are different inflection suffixes (Thornbury ,2006). Inflectional morphology is the process of adding an affixes to a word and changing its form according to the rules of grammar (Richard et al., 1985: 139; cited in Saadi, 1999: 5).

To draw with, we can say that the concept of inflection morpheme stays on the basic concept of lexeme. A lexeme is a unit of linguistic analysis that comes back to a specific syntactic class, which has a regular meaning or grammatical function.

Thus, we can say inflectional morpheme is the process by which inflectional morpheme is attached to words. Moreover, it shows the expression of their semantic and syntactic relationship to other words in the sentence. Thus, it shows an agreement between subjects and predict.it represents not only grammatical function but also morphological form and meaning as well as grammatical aspects as well

### **1.8 The concept of Inflectional Morpheme in Kurdish**

According to Shadan Hama Amin says that inflection is a set of morphemes that work within the framework of syntax and their role is specifying the relationships between words in the sentence. In general, they cannot change the meaning of words and the sets of parts of speech. In other words, these affixes in order to convey the meaning of a grammatical concepts and meanings, they contribute to setting the structure of phrases and sentences” (Shadan Hama Amin, 2016). This means there are fewer non-common cases in their usage. In case there were some examples deviating from the law, they are in very few numbers. For

example, it is considered as a general law, when we say ' (An) that is put at the end of a noun to make it plural.

In addition, Marf inflectional morphemes have grammatical functions in order to organize the relations between of words, (Marf, 2012) the inflectional morphemes in Kurdish language are limited and less than derivational ones. The researchers give a deep report about inflection in Kurdish and the function of them as well.

Furthermore, Fatah notes that inflections are attached to words and base, and don't change the category of the word, For instance, when (tr and trin) which is in English ( more and most) are added to adjective without changing the class word. It is until remaining as an adjective and used in the position an adjective (Fatah etal, 2006).

From the point of view of Bestoon says that "the meaning of inflection can be explained in language as a process in which a free morpheme combines with a bound one to make correct sentences, with the help of the bound morphemes according to syntactic rules; that is why it cannot be said that morphology and syntax are different from each other." (Hassan,Bestoon : 2012:35).

To sum up, we can say that inflectional morpheme are particular in numbers and limited. They are identified to be obligatory parts of morphology and syntax levels. They are those morphemes that carry grammatical meanings and notions, which contribute in forming phrases and sentence structures; they are added as syntactic suffixes used in speech and for syntactic functions. Inflection treats as an element used in the last words to show a relationship among words and never change the class word they are bound word together to state a variety of meanings.

## Results

The concept of morphology and all other aspects mentioned in the theoretical part are similar to English language because Kurdish language had taken from English language in general then Kurdish language sought to find the ways to conform this concept with its rules and this language has its own properties. Then they conducted to apply on their words and seen how they are comparable with their words. It is noted that almost all are close to each other in terms of the concept.

Furthermore, as a result on the classification of the morpheme and inflection and its types of morphemes, we were able to put forward some facts about it that we will order as follows:

Firstly, the morpheme has more than one specific definition. The linguists have not yet agreed upon a unified definition for the term that excludes criticism and shortcomings, and one that can apply to every language.

Secondly, after studying the concept of the morpheme, we have established a fact that is linguists should refrain from the relationship between morphemes because it is a grammatical unit; the existence and non-existence of such relationship has been a very debatable topic since the 1940s until now. The linguists have not reached an agreement and never will because it is a complicated issue, because it creates many problems for the theory of morpheme to an extent that oftentimes it is thought the concept of the morpheme is no better than the one of the word

Thirdly, morpheme is a principal grammatical unit much bigger than the phoneme; this is as far as the linguists can agree upon. The only difference between a morpheme and a phoneme is in meaning: the morpheme has a meaning and expresses a purpose and participates in making a bigger unit, a word.

To draw with, It is noticed that almost from the first items till the end, it is seen much similarities between two languages because of the Kurdish language has taken almost from English.

## Chapter II Inflectional Morphemes in English

### 2.1 Introduction

This section is dedicated to the inflectional morphemes in Standard English. It studies morphological forms, meaning and grammatical aspects.

### 2.2 Inflectional Morphemes in English.

Lexical words might take inflectional morphemes to indicate meaningful relationship similar to those expressed by function words as *the boys' father* vs *the father of the boy*. The rule of inflectional is limited i.e the relationships can be appointed by function words. These syntactic classes are indicated by inflectional: nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs (Biber et al., 1999).

(Anderson and Stageberg, 1970) Say that a small number of regular morphemes marks some of inflectional morphemes of English. English has a very small number of inflectional morphemes (Stockwell and Minkova, 2001). English has eight inflectional morphemes (Fromkin et al., 2003). The inflectional morphemes can be shown as follows:

s	third-person singular present
ed	past tense
ing	progressive
ed	past participle
s	plural
's	possessive
er	comparative
est	superlative

### 2.3 Noun Inflection

Though English has a very poor system, two major word categories have distinctive inflectional properties, nouns and verbs (Radford, 1997). Inflection would be one of the different characteristics of nouns. Morphological characteristics of nouns are inflected for number (Huddleston, 1984; Biber et al., 1999, Reznik, et al 1998) that is an obligatory inflection category in English nouns (Katamba, 1993). The main difference is between singular that denotes "one" and plural, which denotes '*more than one*' (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973; Lardiere, 2006) *variable nouns* are those, which have both forms (Finch, 2000). It is a grammatical term describing more than one person or thing that is opposite of singular (Leech and Ivanic, 2001). The singular form can be unmarked lexical base (Crystal, 2003) and the plural can be formed by distinct morphological operations. When nouns are inflected, their forms are changed for certain inflectional properties through special inflectional morphemes. English nouns have very few inflectional forms. There is nothing that might really be called case (Huddleston, 1984).

There is only one inflectional morpheme in English nouns (-S1) (Gleason, 1961). There is another inflectional morpheme which is the possessive inflectional morpheme where the characteristic spelling form (-s) can be used for both inflectional morphemes, though the possessive is written as (-'s). The character (-S1) for the plural and (-S2) for the possessive can be used for their identification. According to this, nouns have a paradigm that usually inflects for number and case (plural and possessive):

	<u><i>Singular</i></u>	<u><i>Plural</i></u>
Stem	<i>book</i>	<i>books</i>
Possessive	<i>mother's</i>	<i>mothers'</i>

(Huddleston and Pullum, 2005)

Therefore, there are only four-noun class in English. They may be the singular base form, the plural form and the two possessive forms that is added to singular and plural forms as shown above according to (Willis, 1975; Jefferies, 2006).

In the *noun paradigm* does not have the four forms. A number of nouns having both a singular and a plural form (Trask, 1999). A large number of nouns have no possessive form where the '*of structure*' often occurs of the (S) inflectional morpheme that is saying, *the ceiling of the room* not *the room's ceiling* (Stageberg, 1971).

### 2.3.1 The Inflectional Morpheme (-S1)

A countable noun can be of two different types, which are singular and plural: *the road- the roads, dish-dishes* (Eastwood, 2005). Plurals have two types regular and irregular (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973).

The majority of plural nouns in English are made by adding the inflectional morpheme to the singular stem (Thomas, 1986)

Singular nouns have morphological characteristics whose plurals might be built by adding an inflectional morpheme (Haegenan and Gue'ron, 1999) in a regular expectable style (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002). The modification for the plurals of many nouns which consist of adding one of the Inflectional morphemes (-s) or (-es) to the singular stem forms (Frank, 1972; Kuiper and Allan, 1996; Biber et al., 1999, Leech and Ivanic, 2001) as in:

Stem	<i>class</i>	<i>car</i>	
Plural	<i>classes</i>	<i>cars</i>	(Huddleston and Pullum, 2005)

The two forms of inflectional morphemes are alternated using in various context (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005). The normal plural inflectional morpheme is (-s) as in *cat--cats* (Crystal, 2003), but if a noun stem ends in (s, z, x, sh or ch) the inflectional morpheme is taken the shape (-es): *box, boxes* (Biber et al., 1999, Biber and Leech, 2002). If the noun ends with "ch" which is pronounced /k/, the



inflectional morpheme (-s) is added as in *stomachs* /stʌmɑ:k/ (Sinclair et al., 2004). In some cases spelling makes many changes when (-S1) is added (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973; Leech and Svartvik, 1994).

Nouns can be modified their forms in specific ways for grammatical purposes within sentences (Trask, 1993). In the sentence

*He plans to contact her in a few weeks.*

The noun *week* must be affixed with plural -s as required by the qualifier phrase *a few*. The morphological mechanism of suffixation is used to convey grammatical information. However, the resultant would be ungrammatical if the inflectional morpheme -s is not added, as in:

*He plans to contact her in a few week.* (Lardiere, 2006)

The grammatical classification of number works through subject-verb agreement. A singular subject must be followed by a singular verb, as in:

*She lives in China.*

If the subject is plural, the verb must be followed by a plural verb, as in: most people live in Asia than any other continent. (Hewings, 1999)

### 2.3.2 The morpheme (-S2)

The possession is built by using apostrophe (-'s) inflection to noun (Krylova L.P and, Gordon E.M: 2007). When it is added to a noun or a name it is called a possessive form, some grammarians call it the genitive (Sinclair et al., 2005). Two types of possessive are available, the first is (-'s) possessive and the second is zero (or bare) possessive:

's girl--girl's woman--woman's women--women's James--James's

Zero girls--girls' barracks--barracks' James--James'

(Huddleston and Pullum, 2005)

Crystal, 2003 The key meaning of the ('s) structure would be possession that signifies the relation of the noun to another noun. (Allerton, 1979). The possessive's signals that one noun is the head and the other is the modifier, which adds additional



with names of biblical origin: *Matthias' Church* (Leech and Svartvik, 1994) in which there is no change in pronunciation (Alexander, 1988).

**b)** Proper names, which end with -s pronounced /z/, have different usages in which both *Dickens's novels* and *Dickens' novels* can be found (Swan, 2005). They may take either's or ( ') (Frank, 1993). But -'s is more common (Swan, 2005). These spelling forms are pronounced differently (Sinclair et al., 2005). With some, famous names ending in -s, only the apostrophe is added and pronounced /s/ or /iz/ as in *Keats' works*. Possession can be shown in the plural forms ending in -s by adding the apostrophe as in *Joneses' houses* (Alexander, 1988).

**c)** In fixed expressions such as for.....*sake* as for *goodness' sake* (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2002).

The possessive is not used with all nouns (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990). The choice of the possessive can be more related to gender classes in which the possessive-s is favored by animate nouns (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973). The following normally take the possessive 's/s':

\*Personal names: *Toms's bag*

\*Personal nouns: *the doctor's surgery*

\*Collective nouns: *the committee's decision*

\*Higher animals: *the horse's stable, the horses' stables.*

The inflected possession can be also used with certain types of inanimate nouns:

\*Geographical names: *Europe's future*

\*Institutional names: *the school's history*

\*Place noun+ superlative: *New York's tallest skyscraper*

\*Temporal nouns: *a week's holiday*

\*Fixed expressions: *(be) at death's door*

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973; Alexander, 1988)

The following illustrates the uses of possessive –s:

1) *Possession or belongingness: Something that belongs to a person:* The possessive -s can be used to:

refer to that something belongs to or is combined with:

John's hat (Stageberg, 1971), (Reznik et al 1998)

refer to noun that someone possesses something:

*.We should read Janet's books.* (Katamba and Stonham., 1993)

The definite articles are dropped when possessive is used:

***The** car that is John's = John's car* (Swan, 2005)

If something belongs to more than one person or thing whose names are linked by *and* the 's is put after the second name:

*Helen and **Tim's** apartment* (Sinclair et al., 2005)

Quality possessed by a person: The possessive can be used to indicate a quality possessed by a person or things:

*The woman's abruptness* (Sinclair et al., 2004)

Quality possessed by a thing: The possessive's is used when referring to an object when specifying a part of it:

I like the *car's* design. (Sinclair et al 2000)

Part of a person or animal: The possessive -s can be used to indicate a part of body:

*The patient's leg.* (parrot., 2000)

Part of a thing: The possessive -s is used to refer to one part of a thing:

*The car's engine* (Sinclair et al., 2004)

Action done by a person: The possessive -s can sometimes be used with nouns which refer to an action indicating who is performing the action as in:

*Mr.Lawson's resignation* (Sinclair et al., 2005)

The possessive forms can be used with abbreviations and acronyms:

He will get a majority of *MPs* ' votes in both rounds.

The majority of *NATO's* members agreed. (Sinclair et al., 2005)

Possessives are independent on the following nouns. Noun is common to delete the following noun (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2002). The omission of the noun after 's or s' is typical to the following:

If the reference is contextually *clear* a possessive is used without a following noun as in:

*.Whose is that? - Peter's* (Swan, 2005)

The possessive is omitted when indicating to work and the thing itself, such as shops places, and houses

My room is next to *mother's*. (Drozdova et al., 2010)

*Where someone lives*: The possessive form refers to peoples' home or place :

She is going to a friend's. (Biber et al., 2002)

Shops and businesses: The possessive form can also be used to refer to someone's particular office or shop, such as we are all meeting at Dave's .

(Eastwood, 2005)

She has not been back to *doctor's* since. (Sinclair et al., 2005)

Double possessive is used –an –s- possessive subsequent the *of* - structure. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973)

.He was an old business client of Grandfather's . (Krylova and Gordon, 2007)

With a group of words functioning as a unit, the inflectional morpheme (-S2) can also attach to the last word in the phrase (Frank, 1993). The last word in a noun phrase is not always a noun (Parrot, 2000) as in:

*That man you met yesterday's bicycle* (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002)

Adam, 1973 can add the phrase *the man in the brown coat's* has a word such as role in *the man in the brown coat's newspaper*. The function of the-'s is irrelevant to the word which is attached. It combines the word *newspaper* with the premodifying structure. The possessive 's is likely best regarded as an *enclitic* particle or *postposition* (Allerton, 1979) The possessive form is not considered as

further inflected forms because (-'s) links itself to is not a morphological unit as a noun root but as a syntactic unit, specifically a noun phrase (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002).

The term possessive cannot be a satisfactory label for this morpheme since many varieties of distinct semantic relationships between the possessive noun and the noun that follows can exist (Stageberg, 1971). These semantic relationships are as follows:

**Characteristics (description):** The 's structure is used if the first noun signifies to a *person or animal*

*John's hat* is nice. (Stageberg, 1971)

**Origin:** The ('s) structure can be used to speak about things which people produce:

I heard the *girl's story*. (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1973)

**Subject:** The 's structure in which the person does the action or some other verbs:

*the man's reply* (the man replied) (Eastwood, 2005)

**Object:** The person who the action is directed at( the object of a verb):

the *prisoner's* release (they released the prisoner) (Eastwood, 2005)

**Attributive:** The 's structure is used in an attributive way:

On occasion ,*Martha's* courage failed her (Martha was courageous)  
(Biber and Leech, 2002)

**Measurement of Time:** The possessive's is denoted something continues for a particular length of time:

*today's* newspaper. (Reznik et al, 1998)

**Worth:** When speaking about a sum (value) 's is used:

*Fifty pounds' worth* (Biber et al., 1990)

Parrot, 2000 expresses other kinds of possessions such as relationships as family relationship, as *the other girl's twin*, and creation, as *Einstein's theory*. (Frank, 1972; 1993) further adds other relationships as the use of possessive with

words referring to natural phenomena as *the earth's atmosphere*, and with names referring to people working together as in *the ship's crew*.

## 2.4 Verb Inflections

The forms of verbs differ from making the conjugation of verbs. The inflectional categories in regard to verb forms are person, number, tense, aspect and mood (Strang, 1968). In most languages the verbs show greater morphological complexity than any other word class. Inflectional categories can add further specification to the event, state, process or action signaled by the verb. Inherent verbal categories have tense and aspect (Katamba, 1993). The aspect that can be used for incomplete action called imperfective (or progressive) and the one that used to refer to completed action called perfective (or perfect) aspect (Ibid, 1993).

The grammatical forms are described in connection with tense. The different tenses are expressed by verb inflectional morphemes or by auxiliaries (Frank, 1993). It is to be recalled that English is claimed to morphologically distinguish only two tenses: *past* and *present* (Allerton, 1979) ;( Lardiere, 2006).

Number differs from the sense of number in regard to nouns. In verbs, it is a dependent grammatical function since it is depended on the number of the subject i.e. the characteristic of agreement and not on anything inherent in the verb (Strang, 1968).

English verb lexemes have more grammatical forms than nouns or adjectives (Kuiper and Allan, 1996). Verbs are recognized by their inflectional morphology (Radford, 1977). Verbs have five various inflectional forms (Radford, 1997; Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002). The changes in form are through adding an inflection to the stem form, which can be labelled **V0**, **V-s**, **V-ed**, **V-ing**, **V-en** (Kuiper and Allan, 1996; Leech et al., 2006). The relevant inflections are the stem, the 3<sup>rd</sup> Psp tense inflectional morpheme (-s), past inflectional morpheme (-ed), the present participle inflectional morpheme (-ing), and the past participle inflectional morpheme (-ed) or (-e (n)) (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973; Radford, 1997) as in *studies*, *studied*,

*studying, had studied, and has flown* (Bolinger, 1975). The inflectional categories give rise to these different grammatical word forms (Kuiper and Allan, 1996). Of these inflectional forms, three are morphologically regular (Lamberts, 1972).

### 2.4.1 The Verbs Paradigm

The verbs paradigm are quite clear in English. A vast majority of verbs in English have paradigm which consisting of six inflectional forms Table (5) illustrate the paradigm for the verb *walk*, with sample sentences and how the forms are used (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005):

	paradigm	Example sentence
Primary Forms	Past <i>walked</i> 3 <sup>rd</sup> psp <i>walks</i> Plain present <i>walk</i>	She <i>walked</i> home She <i>walks</i> home They <i>walk</i> home
Secondary Forms	Plain form <i>walk</i> Present participle <i>walking</i> Past Participle <i>walked</i>	She should <i>walk</i> home She is walking home She has <i>walked</i> home

Table (5) The Verb Paradigm in English. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005)

Primary forms are shown inflectional differences of tense past vs present and could occur as a sole verb in a clause. Secondary forms do not have tense inflection and do not occur as a head of a clause (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005).



One of the properties of word-class verb is inflectional morphemes. Verbs are tensed: they have one of the inflectional properties *past tense and present tense*. For example, in *He lived in Sydney* and *He lives in Sydney*, the words *lived* and *lives* are prototypical verbs. In the present, the verb agrees with the subject as 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular vs general (not 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular): *He lives in Sydney vs I/we/you/they live in Sydney* (Huddleston, 1984). Verbs have tensed forms:

In Table (5) above the words *walk* and *walked* are revealed twice in the paradigm. There was a difference between inflectional form and its shape. Shape is meant either spelling or pronunciation. The past and past participle have distinctive forms but both have the same shape *walked*. Similarly, the present and the stem form share the shape *walk* (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005).

#### 2.4.2 The Morphology of Lexical Verbs

Lexical verbs are considered under two heads: regular and irregular. In all of the forms the (-s) affix and (-ing) participle are predictable from the base (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973).

The V-ed and V-en can vary in a number of different ways. The V-en forms are called V-en because they sometimes have a distinctive inflectional morpheme (-en) as in *eaten* instead of (-ed) (Leech et al., 2006). The regular and irregular verb forms are as follows (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002):

<i>Forms</i>	<i>Stem</i>	<i>3<sup>rd</sup> Psp</i>	<i>Prp</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>PP</i>	
			(-s <sub>3</sub> )	(-ing <sub>1</sub> )	(-d <sub>1</sub> )	(-d <sub>2</sub> )
Models	<i>perform</i>	<i>performs</i>	<i>performing</i>	<i>performed</i>	<i>performed</i>	
	<i>give</i>	<i>gives</i>	<i>giving</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>given</i>	

Irregular verb forms differ from three e.g., *put, puts, putting* to eight (*be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been*). The modal auxiliaries are defective (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973). Modals identify two (*can, could*) or even just one (*must*) (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002).

One of the signs of the category of a word as a verb was its participation in the verb paradigm. If a word is suitable with three or more of the slots, the word is labeled a verb. (Stageberg, 1971)

Regular lexical full verbs have the following forms in which each plays a different role in the clause (Frank, 1972). Most English regular verbs have four different forms (Leech and Ivanic, 2001), Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990) ;( Greenbaum and Nelson, 2002):

- 1) verb base form called the free form: *laugh*.
- 2) verb + -s: The-s form can add to the stem a suffix in (-s): *laughs*.
- 3) verb + -ing present participle. The (-ing) participle adds to the base form a suffix in (-ing): *laughing*.
- 4) verb + -ed past /participle. The (-ed) form can add to the base form a suffix in (-ed): *laughed*.

The dictionary form without inflectional morpheme or without modification is called a base. The base is used to constitute the first tense **-aspect-mood**. It is formally and functionally the unmarked form (Strang, 1968). The base form is identical to the infinitive and the present. This form is the identifying form of the lexeme (Jefferies, 2006). The form is named the stem that comes after *to*, *auxiliaries*, and in the present except for the third person singular, e.g., *to sit*, *can go*, and *we eat* (Stageberg, 1971).

The vast majority of English verbs are regular (Kuiper and Allan, 1996, Leech et al., 2006, Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973). Furthermore, all new verbs that are coined or borrowed follow the regular pattern (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973; Kuiper and Allan, 1996). The inflectional morpheme of the form (ing) and the third person singular present tense are very straightforward (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005).

In all regular verbs as in *call*, two (-ed) forms are identical as in *I called him* and *I have called him* (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990; Leech et al., 2006) which have different functions in phrases and sentences (Kuiper and Allan, 1996).

Irregular verbs may have either an unpredictable form or predictable -ed form or both (Crystal, 2003).

### 2.4.3 The morpheme (-S3)

This form is usually made by adding (-s) or (-es) inflectional morpheme to the stem (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005). The (-s) inflectional morpheme means the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present tense (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005). The third person singular present consists of the stem+ (-S3) (Lamberts, 1972) as in *walks*. Irregular verbs are making their forms by adding an inflectional morpheme (-s) to the base (Crystal, 2003).

Robinson, 2003 claims that finite verbs are marked for person, number and tense. The difference between: *I walk* and *he walks* is that (S<sub>3</sub>) marks the 3<sup>rd</sup> person. The difference between the 3<sup>rd</sup> person *he walks* and the third person *they walk* is one of number. The (-S<sub>3</sub>) marks the singular and present *he walks*. When an inflection carries more than one piece of information, like this inflectional morpheme (S3). Thus, the inflectional morpheme (-S3) is the inflected form, which indicates three inflectional categories: *person, number and tense* (Kuiper and Allan, 1996). However, in English there is a lot of *syncretism* in the verbs. The present shows syncretism except in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular.

The inflectional morpheme (-S3) can be found when the verb is in the present (Kuiper and Allan, 1996). The present third person can be used with singular nouns and these pronouns *he / she/it*, and words for which these pronouns can substitute and with word groups:

- a. That freshman *cuts* his class every Wednesday.
- b. He *cuts* his class every Wednesday.
- c. Each *cuts* his class every Wednesday. (Stageberg, 1971)

The 3<sup>rd</sup> Psp exemplifies person-number combination. When speaking with inflectional categories of person and number, one can typically refer to a grammatical agreement relation, particularly subject-verb agreement. English has

only one inflectional agreement marks for its regular verbs and only on present tense verbs: 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular (-s) as in:

*He/ She/ It runs.* (Lardiere, 2006)

#### 2.4.4 The inflection (-ing)

Another verb inflectional morpheme is the progressive (-ing) inflectional morpheme. All English verbs, regular and irregular have the form (Jefferies, 2006) the(ing) is made by adding the (ing) to the stem of the verb (Krylova and Gordon, 2007). The English present participle consists of verb stem + (-ing) inflectional morpheme (Lamberts, 1972), (Robinson, 2003). This formation of the present participle is very simple and regular in which the inflectional morpheme (ing) is the only affix used. The (-ing) inflectional morpheme is a straightforward addition to the stem:

*Push+ -ing = pushing    sleep+ ing = sleeping* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973)

What is called the *progressive tenses* of a verb is constructed by using any of the copula *be* plus the present participle (Lamberts, 1972) ;( Lardiere, 2006).The grammatical distribution which combines with seven of the eight forms of *is* that *be : am , is , are , was , were , be , been* – to make verb phrases, e.g .:

a. They were *writing* letters.

b. She must have been *sleeping*. (Stageberg, 1971)

The progressive encodes that the action is (was) continuous or in progress, repeated or habitual, e.g.:

a. John is *painting* the kitchen.

b. John was *painting* the kitchen. (Lardiere, 2006)

The forms *is painting/was painting* are called progressive forms. They indicate that the action of the painting *is / was* going on and *John* never completed painting the kitchen (Lardiere, 2006). The (-ing) inflectional morpheme is also used as:

- a non –finite verb form in a subordinate clause:

After *carrying* all the suitcases, the hotel porter expected a tip.

- a personifying adjective in noun phrase:

The *singing* policeman

- a derived head noun, in the position normally taken by nouns:

The *dancing* was wild and dangerous. (Jefferies, 2006)

#### 2.4.5 The inflection (-ed)

The morphology of English past is complicated and unpredictable. There is a regular pattern, but there are also a number of irregular patterns (Lamberts, 1972). They are arranged in order for descending size: (-d1) and (-d2) and the others are (-en) forms of (-d2) (Gleason, 1961).

The two forms of past and past participle are taken together since all regular and a high proportion of irregular ones are morphologically identical. The regular past and past participle are constructed by adding either (-d) or (-ed) inflectional morpheme to the orthographic stem form and often with a spelling change (Stageberg, 1971) (Crystal, 2003). Look at given examples below:

Stem	<i>laugh</i>	<i>prefer</i>	<i>hope</i>	<i>deny</i>
P and PP	<i>laugh-ed</i>	<i>prefer-ed</i>	<i>hop -ed</i>	<i>deni-ed</i>

(Huddleston and Pullum, 2005)

This inflectional morpheme indicates the past of English regular verbs: (-d1) (West, 1975). The (-ed) inflectional morpheme has one use: to express the past, as in:

*I kicked the ball* (Crystal, 2003)

The use of past indicates that the event happened sometime prior to the moment of speaking (Lardiere, 2006). The past form (-d1) is simple because it shows no variation for person and number. It is an open-class of morpheme because of its productivity (Lamberts, 1972). New verbs added to the English vocabulary regularly acquire the (-ed) inflectional morpheme (Thomas, 1965); (Crystal, 2003b). The (-

ed) inflectional morpheme can represent two various functions that are different in the forms of some irregular verbs, e.g.:

i. She *laughed* at us. (-d1)

ii. She *has laughed* at us. (-d2)

iii. She *has given* us a smile.(-d2) (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2002)

The (-ed) participle form encodes a kind of temporal characteristic whether the action is (was) completed, e.g.:

*John has painted the house.* (Lardiere, 2006)

The English (-ed) participle form has four grammatical uses:

1) It expresses a past participle aspect (Crystal, 2003). It connects with the auxiliary *have* to form verbal phrases, the past participle form can be called perfect tense. The idea is not that the action has been completed, but it has current relevance (Lamberts, 1972), e.g.:

*I have kicked the ball.* (Crystal, 2003)

2) It expresses the passive voice. With the auxiliary *be* the past participle construct the passive (Stageberg, 1971),( Lamberts, 1972), e.g.:

*The ball was kicked.* (Crystal, 2003b)

3) It starts with a clause in specific kinds of a subordinate clause:

*Kicked and battered, I hobbled off the field.* (Crystal, 2003b)

4) It is used as an adjective, e.g.:

*A watched kettle never boils.* (Robinson, 2003)

#### 2.4.6 The inflection (-en)

The verb-en is called the perfect participle (Kuiper and Allan, 1996). In most cases, the participle contains a distinctive inflectional morpheme spelled in three alternative ways as shown below:

1) **n** after vowel :

*grown lain seen sewn torn*

2) **ne** for *bear, do, go*:

*borne done gone*

3) **en elsewhere:**

*broken chosen fallen swollen taken*

(Huddleston and Pullum, 2005)

See, grow, and sew finish in complex symbols, and (-n) is directly added to them. With *lay* English has particular case of *y* replacement. If the inflectional morpheme is added to *tear* the mute *e* following *r* is deleted. The second items are exceptions. The (*en*) alternant should be found in all other cases. When it is added to a form ending in the mute *e*, the simple rule of (*e*) deletion carries out as in *chose* + *-en* = *chosen* (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005).

Irregular verbs are different from regular verbs either in the past inflection or the (-ed) participle inflection is irregular (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1973). The formation of past participle is not regular (Lamberts, 1972). A number of varieties of morphological relations can be found between the base, past and past participle. Here are some of examples are shown below:

	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>E</i>	<i>F</i>	
Stem	<i>show</i>	<i>take</i>	<i>ride</i>	<i>speak</i>	<i>fly</i>		
Past	<i>showed</i>	<i>took</i>	<i>rode</i>	<i>spoke</i>	<i>flew</i>		
PP	<i>shown</i>	<i>taken</i>	<i>ridden</i>	<i>spoken</i>	<i>flown</i>		(Huddleston and Pullum, 2005)

## 2.5 Adjective inflections

Comparison is an adjectival class that is existing in many languages including English (Allerton, 1979). It should be the same degree, to higher degree, or to a lower degree. For a higher degree comparison, there are three types of comparison in English of inflectional contrast: absolute, comparative, superlative (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1973) ;( Greenbaum and Nelson, 2002) ;( Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002).

The stem form of adjective have three terms of comparison called *absolute*, comparative and superlative form which some Grammars call plain or *positive*. In this study the term positive is used. Higher degrees of comparison express through inflectional morpheme (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2002). The inflectional morphemes identify two steps in the expression of a higher degree: first adding a comparative inflectional morpheme (-er) and a superlative inflectional morpheme (-est) (Crystal,

2003b). Morphologically varied forms of adjectives are found in only a small proportion of adjectives (Strang, 1968). Only gradable adjectives enter into inflectional contrasts (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973).

There can be also a syntactic way of expressing a higher degree through the using of *more and most* for comparative and superlative that is called periphrastic (Crystal, 2003b). Such adjectives are uninflected for phonetic reasons (Sami, 1984). The concepts such as the *same* and the *lower* degree are also expressed syntactically (Crystal, 2003b).

### 2.5.1 The inflections (-er) and (-est)

Inflections provide the way in which the quality expressed by an adjective can be compared (Willis, 1975). One of the central adjectives which shows comparative and superlative degree is by (er) and (-est) (Biber et al, 2002). Adjectives form a comparative form with the meaning of 'adjective -to a higher degree' and a superlative form with the meaning of 'adjective - to the highest degree' (Allerton, 1979).

Inflection of adjectives is relatively **simple** and **regular**: (-er) and (-est) which are constant in form in the vast majority of adjectives (Gleason, 1961). The regular inflections sometimes involve changes in spelling or pronunciation (Leech and Svartvik, 1994). The comparable paradigm is as follows:

<u>Forms</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>
Inflections		(er)	(est)
Models	sweet	sweeter	sweetest
	Deadly	deadlier	deadliest

(Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002)

The above examples show that this paradigm can furnish the pattern for these groups: nearly all one-syllable adjectives as *hot*; some disyllabic adjectives, specifically those ending in - *ly* and -*y*, as *funny or lovely*; a few adverbials of one or more syllables as *fast* and one preposition *near* (Stageberg, 1971).



Adjectives inflect are shown contrast between *positive*, *comparative* and *superlative* forms (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005). A Comparative is used to describe something or someone which has more of a quality and characteristic than another. Qualitative adjectives consist of adjectives with (-er). A comparative is used to compare one person, thing, action, event or group with another person, thing, etc. (Sinclair et al., 2005), e.g.:

Max is *taller* than Tom.

(Huddleston and Pullum, 2005)

### 2.5.2 Morphological and Phonological Properties of the Stem

The morphological and phonological properties of the stem determine whether an adjective form can undergo the inflectional processes or not (Huddleston, 1984). Descriptive adjectives have special morphological forms for comparison. The length of adjectives have an important role in deciding the use of (-er) and (est) (Crystal, 2003).

Adjectives of one syllable normally take the inflectional morpheme (-er) and (-est) at the end of the adjective as in (*tall*) –*er* in the comparative and (*tall*) –*est* in the superlative (Leech and Svartvik, 1975), (Frank, 1993), e.g.:

*He drove faster this morning.*

(Parrott, 2000)

Some monosyllabic adjectives are not inflected: *true*, *\*truer*, *\*truest* (Leech and Svartvik, 1994).

The rules for constructing comparative and superlative of two-syllable adjectives are more complicated (Frank, 1993). Many adjectives make their comparatives and superlatives with (-er) and (-est). Many of which are permitted both forms of comparison, e.g., *That is a quieter / more quiet place* (Crystal, 2003).

(Zandvoort, 1965); (Leech and Svartvik, 1975); ( Huddleston ,1984) state that disyllabic stems that take (-er) and (-est) are either morphologically simple ending in:

syllabic / l / (-*ple*, -*ble*, -*tle*, -*dle*) as in *simple*—*simple*-- *simplest*,

/ (-er / -ow or -some) as in *cleverer*, *narrower*, *handsomer*

On the other hand, morphologically complex ending in *-ly* or *-y* preceded by a consonant *happy- happier- happiest* (Frank, 1993) ;( Leech and Svartvik, 1994) or beginning with the prefix *-un* as in *unkind* (look at below example). However, the second groups are less formal (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990), (Frank, 1993).

Stems of more than two syllables do not inflect except for a few as in *unfriendly* (Huddleston, 1984). A few three-syllable adjective beginning with the inflectional-*un* allow inflectional morphemes of (-er) and (-est) as in *unhappier-unhappiest* (Celece-Murcia and Larsen –Freeman, 1999) as in:

*He felt crosser and unhappier than ever.* (Sinclair et al., 2004) Long adjectives as *awkward* etc.,-*ed* adjectives, and *-ing* adjectives are not inflected for comparative and superlative (Leech and Svartvik, 1994), e.g.: *interesting, \*interestinger, \*interestinest; wonded, \*wondeder, \*wondedest* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973).

Constructions such as present and past participle of verbs which modify nouns take both forms although the inflected form is limited to spoken English as in:

Sven said that was the *dancingest* girl she had ever met. (Lamberts, 1972)

### **2.5.3 The Grammatical Aspect of (-er)**

The comparative inflected adjectives have the following usages:

Inflected adjectives can be used as modifiers in front of a noun, e.g.:

The family is moved to a *smaller* house. (Sinclair et al., 2004)

It can also be used as complements after a linking verb, e.g.:

His breath became *quieter* (Sinclair et al., 2004)

Inflected adjectives is changed by intensifiers, e.g.:

**much** *easier* (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990)

Comparatives are often followed by *than* by saying exactly what is compared by using a number of structures after *than*, which can be noun phrases, or clauses:

an area *bigger than* Great Britain. (Sinclair et al., 2005)

In formal English, a subject pronoun follows *than*, but in informal spoken English, an object pronoun often follows *than* (Swan, 2005), e.g.:

- a. I am *older than he is*.            b. I am *older than him*.

Another way of describing something that has more of a quality than anything else of its kind is done by using a superlative adjective. The superlative (-est) has the following usages (Sinclair et al., 2004):

- 1) Only qualitative adjectives have superlative but few color adjectives also have them (Sinclair et al., 2005), e.g.:

Some of the *greenest* scenery in America.            (Sinclair et al., 2004)

- 2) Inflected superlative adjectives are nearly always preceded by *the* because one is talking about something definite. They can be used as modifiers in front of a noun, e.g.:

He was the *cleverest* man I ever knew.            (Sinclair et al., 2005)

- 3) They can also be used as complements after a linking verb:

He was the *youngest*.            (Sinclair et al., 2004)

- 4) They can be used on their own if it is clear what is being compared as in:

*The sergeant was the tallest*.            (Sinclair et al., 2005)

- 5) In fairly formal English inflected superlative adjectives are used as head words, e.g.:

They are often too poor to buy even the *cheapest* of houses.            (Sinclair et al., 2005)

## **Results**

The outcome of this chapter is that the concept of inflectional morphemes are limited in English and restricted to some parts of speech, (nouns, and verb, adjective) which show the structure in correct agreement. As we have observed from this chapter, the inflectional morphemes in English stick to many elements: number, gender, and person, case, tense and voice can be defined under each inflectional category; the parts of speech inflected for that particular category will be listed. For each part of speech, the main portion, or the base or root, and the changed items are determined. Then it is evident that some inflections are typically obligatory. The inflectional morphemes have a syntactical level and can affect within a sentences about words, which comes before. As for the grammatical forms are described in connection with tense. The different tenses are stated by inflections that is why we can say that English is claimed morphologically to differentiate by two tenses. The sentence is ungrammatical if the incorrect choice is made. inflectional morphemes have the role to state syntactic relation such as agreement in sentences. Inflectional morpheme never shift the syntactic category of the base word, but are only able to modify the grammatical form of a word that can fit into a particular syntactic case. In addition, inflectional morpheme makes the structure closed. Inflectional morphemes do not add new items; they come at the end of words

## Chapter III Inflectional morphemes in Kurdish

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter is focused on inflectional morphemes in central Kurdish .It studies with Kurdish noun inflections, verb inflections, adjective inflection, adverb inflection and pronoun, preposition inflection. It includes the morphological, grammatical aspects of Kurdish inflectional morphemes.

### 3.2 Noun Inflections

There are two kinds of nouns used in Kurdish as inflected for definiteness, indefiniteness, number, and possession (McCarus, 1958, Marif, 1977, khoshnaw, 2015) use these items

#### 3.2.1 The Definite morpheme (aka)

In Kurdish, definiteness are divided into two types that refer to inflectional morphemes (khoshnaw, 2015), (Amin, 2015).They are connected and used in noun phrases (Qadir, 2003). They are (-aka) and (-a) (Aziz, 1367; Mukiryani, 1989, khoshnaw, 2015).

In addition, Dizay, 2013 indicates (-ka) as a definite inflectional morpheme. The morpheme (-aka) is the main one referring to definiteness and has some allomorphs since it is connected to the majority of nouns (Ibid, 2013).The majority of nouns are connected with (Marif, 1979)

The morpheme (-aka) can be combined to the noun stem and makes a noun define (khoshnaw, 2015);( Hawramani, 1973). It is shown that the noun is a particular one (McCarus, 1958). It can be active with common nouns (Marif, 1979; Sherko, 2002), e.g.:

*piyaw* + *aka* = *piyawaka* 'the man' (Dizay, 2013)

When the morpheme (-aka) is linked to the noun, it points out the singularity of the inflected noun that is famous among other classes or genders, e.g.:

*kur*+ *aka*= *kuraka* "one boy in this class" (Qadir, 2003)



If the noun is inflected with the definite (-aka), the izafa (-i) can be omitted and (-a) is connected to the adjective, such as:

*kich-aka chwan-a*

(The girl is beautiful).

(Marif, 1979)

If (a) is linked to an adjective, (-aka) is combined to the noun, such as.:

*gul chwana becomes gulaka--- chwana*

(The beautiful flower )

(Qadir, 2003)

The inflection (-aka) does not come with the demonstrative pronouns, such as:

a. \**am guI-aka*

b. \* *aw kiteb-aka*

(This flower-)

( that book )

(Qadir, 2003)

The inflection (aka) does not come with proper nouns and common noun (Qadir, 2003), such as:

\* *roshna-aka*

(\* The Roshna )

(Qadir, 2003)

The definite inflection can be combined to other parts of speech using the nouns and adjectives such as:

*mirdin mirdin-aka*

'( the death)'

### 3.2.2 The Definite morpheme (a)

The inflection (a) refers to definiteness and singularity (Marif, 1979). The inflection (-a) can be used rarely compared to (aka) (Mukiryani, 1989). It marks the meaning of the thing that was mentioned before.

*Kura Kurd* ("the Kurdish person")

(Fattah & Qadir, 2006)

In the arrangement of suffixation, the two definite inflection morphemes cannot come together because nouns cannot be inflected for definiteness twice, such as .:

*zin -- a + aka = \*zinaaka* ("the woman")

(Fattah, 1980)

This inflection would also be attached to the noun in a noun phrase such as:

*dayki kch-a* ("the girl's mother")

(Qadir, 2003)

The key reason of the inflection (-a) is to show in conjunction with the demonstrative adjectives, *am...a* and *aw...a* (Kurdoeyef, 1984). A nominal phrase, which qualified by the demonstrative adjective and can be taken (-a) (MacKenzie, 1961; Hawramani, 1973) such as:

*am pash-a-ya* (this king ) (MacKenzie, 1961)

Also, Fattah and Qadir, 2006 say that the morpheme (-a) may probably be an allomorph of the definite inflection (-aka). So, **kura** in the sentence

*aw kur-a na-yet*

(That boy does not come)

This above example contains two morphemes (*kur + a*) where (-a) is bound and illustrates definiteness and could not be compensated by (-aka ) such as \**aw kuraka* (Fattah and Qadir, 2006).

### 3.2.3 The Indefinite morpheme (-ek) or (e)

Nouns are inflected to denote lack of definiteness (Fakhri and Mukiryani, 1982). The inflection (ek) or (-e) combine to nouns to refer to indefiniteness and singularity (Hawramani, 1973). This indefinite inflection morpheme is taken from number one (Marif, 1979). This morpheme is attached to a noun, which is not specific, such as:

*walat + ek = walat-ek* a country (Dizay, 2013)

The phenomenon of cumulation can be observed. For example, *bakh-ek* in which the inflection (ek) denotes two inflectional categories, which are fused into one inflection: indefiniteness (unknown garden) and number (one garden). Kurdish is described as having the characteristics of both agglutinating and incorporating language (Fattah and Qadir, 2006; Amin, 2007)

The noun is inflected with indefinite inflection (ek) takes the plural (an) e.g.:

*kas+ an + ek = kasanek / kasane* a person (Marif, 1979)

Hence, the plural inflection (an) appear between the noun and the indefinite inflection.



If the inflectional morphemes are collected into classes regarding their inflectional properties as (definiteness and indefiniteness), then two inflection morphemes that belong to the same class cannot be combined together (Fattah and Qadir, 2006), e.g.:

*mal (aka+ ek) = \*malakek* \* 'the a family'

The indefinite inflection ( ek) has the following usages:

1) If the noun comes with the adjective in a noun phrase, the indefinite inflection is connected to the noun in many cases, e.g.:

*diwar-ek-i bariz* (A high wall) (Marif, 1979)

2) It can be attached to the common noun, e.g.:

*helanay-ek-i kotr dorstakam* (I make a dove nest) (Muhedin,

2013)

3) It is followed by the izaf (-i) when followed by a noun or an adjective:

*bzn-ek-i rashm kri* (I buy a black sheep). (Muhedin, 2013)

4) It can be connected to the whole noun phrase:

*kiteb-ek-i rezman-ek da-kr-im* (I buy a grammar's book) (Qadir, 2003)

5) It can be connected to the adjective when omitting the noun, e.g.:

a. *kich-ek-i chwanm bini* b. *chwan-ek-m - bini*

a I saw a beautiful girl. a beautiful one saw-I. (Qadir, 2003)

6) It can be connected to a proper noun for description followed by a relative clause:

*toy-ek- ka kurdi- dalsosbit*

You which you are Kurdish must be loyal. (Qadir, 2003)

7) The inflected nouns are never formed in a phrase or a sentence since everyone has its own grammatical attribute, e.g.:

a. *min kras-aka-m kri* b. *min kras-ek-im kri*

I bought the dress. I bought one dress. (Fattah and Qadir, 2006)

8) Reduction takes place in conjunction with the numeral *yak* (one), e.g.:

*yakekyan yakyan* one of them (MacKenzie, 1961)

9) It is attached to a number, which is accurately clear

Chandhazar—**ek** (Some thousands ) (Fattah & Qadir, 2006)

### 3.2.4 The Plural inflectional morpheme (an)

Nouns are shown two numbers, singular and plural in Kurdish and is said to things or persons that have more than one (khoshnaw, 2015). The stem is singular and the plural is constituted by adding inflectional morphemes (McCarus, 1958). In Kurdish, the morpheme (an) is the main inflection for the creation of plural nouns (khoshnaw, 2015; Dizay, 2013, Qadir, 2003). Normally, the inflection (-an) is a major one and connected to the end of singular nouns (khoshnaw, 2015), e.g.:

*Kur+ -an = kuran* 'boys' (khoshnaw, 2015)

The plural inflection (-an) is added to a noun that is inflected with a definite or indefinite inflectional morphemes (Qadir, 2003), e.g.:

*Kani-ka + -aka + -an = kanikan* the wells (Qadir, 2003)

When the definite noun ends with (ka) and changed to plural should be added (an) in the end such as

Mamosta-**ka**-----mamostak-**an** (Qadir, 2003)

The inflection (-an) has the following usages:

1) The plural form (an) is used in a noun phrase, e.g.:

a. *darga-k-an-i zur-ak-an*      b. *darga-k-an-i zur-aka*  
the doors of the rooms      the doors of the room (Qadir, 2003)

2) It is attached to any adverb such as,:

Rosh---Rosh-**an** (Day----daily ) (Fattah & Qadir, 2006)

3) The plural inflection can be combined to the head that comes before the izafa inflection, e.g.:

*khwendkar-an-i zirak* (The clever students) (Ibrahim, 1978)

4) When there are more than one noun coming together attached by a coordinator (u / w) 'and', the plural inflection (an) is connected to the second noun in Kurdish (Ibrahim, 1978; Marif, 1979) e.g.:

*krekar w chutiyar-an*

Workers and farmers

(Ibrahim, 1978)

5) The plural inflection cannot be used with the inflected indefinite nouns to demonstrate plurality (Marif, 1979). It denotes the meaning of the selection among other things rather than plurality (Ahmad, 1990), e.g.:

*kich + ek + -an = kichekan*

girl + Indef + Plural = 'one girl'

(Ahmad, 1990)

6) A noun qualified with a cardinal number can be used without the inflection (an) (MacKanzie, 1961; Marif, 1998) as in a, and b, e.g.:

a. *chwar shaw* 'four nights'    b. \**chwar shawan* 'four nights'

### 3.2.5 The Vocative morpheme (-a), (e) and (-ina)

Vocative is considered as inflectional morpheme in Kurdish (Aziz, 1367). Vocative is a special type expressing nouns, and in some languages are considered, as a separate language (Trask, 1993) Gender difference does not anymore use ordinary utterances but in contexts there are some prominent inflectional morphemes particularly in a vocative case (Marif, 1979). This was the remnant of case system in Kurdish (Fattah and Qadir, 2006). The class of number has its role in defining the vocative inflection that denotes gender (Fakhri & Mukiryani, 1982). Their markers are (ina) for plural female and masculine and (o,e) is for single male. (khoshnaw,2015)

The vocative inflection can be connected to a singular noun to display direct address (McCarus, 1958). The inflection (a) is combined to the end of a masculine noun (Ameen, 1986) and (e) is connected to the end of a feminine noun that denotes a single referent (Marif, 1979; Amedi, 1987), e.g.:

a. *mam + a = mama*    Hey, aunt!

b. *kich* +*-e* = *kiche* Hey, girl ! (Qadir, 2003)

In addition, Qadir, 2003 points out (-o) as a vocative inflection combined to the end of a masculine noun as in *xalo and kako* 'Hey, brother!' The vocative masculine inflection (-a) may indefinitely be connected to masculine and feminine nouns as in *dayka (or daya)* 'mother', *nana* 'grandmother' (Qadir, 2003), e.g.:

*day-a gyan* 'mother dear!' (MacKenzie, 1961)

The vocative inflection may probably have its impact on some Arabic names producing in some phonological changes (Amedi, 1987), e.g.:

a. *aziz* → *aza* (man' names) (Muhedin, 2013)

b. *khacha* → *khache* (girl' names) (Qadir, 2003)

The vocative case in the plural form has the inflection (-ina / yna) that are connected to the end of the noun irrespective of its gender (Hawramani, 1981; Aziz, 2005), e.g.:

*kur-ina / ki-china war-in*

Hey, boys/ girls come! (Marif, 1979)

The vocative inflectional morphemes have a finite use; they can be used with few nouns and their uncommon use resulting in their decay (Qadir, 2003). They are used when no other inflectional morphemes are linked to the noun or they are not followed by other parts of speech (Qadir, 2003). These are few clarifications of them:

1) If the inflected noun follows by another noun or an adjective, the vocative inflection is omitted and substituted by a conjunction morpheme (-a), e.g.:

*kiche* → *kicha -bchkol* 'a little girl' (Qadir, 2003)

2) If the inflected nouns with o, -e, and -ina are inflected with the definite inflection (aka) or the possessive (-im), the vocative inflectional morphemes cannot be used (Ysupova, 2005), e.g.:

*khushke* → *khushkakam* 'Hey, my sister!' (Qadir, 2003)

4) If the noun is inflected with the vocative inflection (-a or-o), and followed by the attribute, they function as the izafa morphemes (-i) or (-a), e.g.:

*kaka*→ *kaka bra*, *kaki bra* 'Hey, brother!' (Qadir, 2003)

### 3.2.6 The Genitive (Izafa) morpheme (-i)

Kurdish possession appears various forms where each has its own properties (Fattah, 1980). There are two izafa inflectional morphemes (-i) and (a) (Marif, 2004). They are combined the head in a with noun phrase to connect the attribute and the head (Marif, 1979). When nouns are qualified by an attribute or by another noun, are generally linked by the izafa inflection (MacKenzie, 1961; Marif, 2004). The first word is always the head as in *chiy-ak-an-i Kurdistan* 'the mountains of Kurdistan' (Fattah, 1980). This inflection is related to masculine, feminine singular and plural nouns (MacKenzie, 1961), e.g.:

*kur-i min* my son    *kich-i min* my daughter (Rassul, 2005)

The izafa (-i) can be used to begin speech (Fattah, 1980). It is related to pronouns, proper and common nouns which have the role of the head, e.g.:

a. *gul-ek-i mor*                      b. *eway-ak-i dilsoz*  
a purple flower                      \*your the loyal (Qadir, 2003)

The features are nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs. The inflection can be related to the last part of the noun phrase (Qadir, 2003), e.g.:

a. *kabra-yak-i rish spi* a grey-bearded fellow (MacKenzie, 1961)

A noun qualified by more than one characteristic is attached by the izafa, e.g.:

*kich-ek-i cwan-i chwarda sal*  
a beautiful, fourteen –year –old girl (MacKenzie, 1962)

### 3.2.7 The Izafa inflection (-a)

The inflection (-a) is also the izafa inflection, but it differs from (-i) by using and by conveying the meaning. It is less active than (-i) (Marif, 1979). A qualified

noun can shape an open compound with the qualifier (MacKenzie, 1961) in which one part is the head and the other is the attribute.,e.g.:

*kur-a pasha*

King's son' (Fattah, 1980)

The meaning of possession in this form is indirect. It might be obvious when compared to izafa (-i), e.g.:

*kur-a pasha = kur-i pasha* 'king's son' (Fattah, 1980)

Such phrases have idiomatic notions as disagreement in addition to possession. These compound words are inflected with other inflectional morphemes since they can be considered as one unit (Fattah, 1980), e.g.:

a. *kur-a pash-aka* 'The king's son' (the whole word is defined)

b. *kur-i pash-aka* 'The king's son' (the second word is defined)

When the inflection is built with the izafa (-a), the attribute might be a noun or an adjective (Marif, 1979) but not a pronoun (Qadir, 2003). The izafa (-a) can be used to state a particular property of a head, e.g.:

*kur-a zirak-aka* == 'the clever boy' (Qadir, 2003)

In addition, Fattah, 1980, the izafa (-i) is in progress and more common than (-a). MacCarus, 1958 thinks that the second word is more significant than the first as in:

*merd-i pir* 'old husband'

*pir-a merd* 'old man' (Fattah, 1980)

When the inflection (-i) is shifted in (a), the attribute comes first, e.g.:

*ba-yi + rash = rashaba*

Black = 'storm' (Abdulla, 2007)

### **3.2.8 Izafa and Other Inflected Nouns**

Often the nouns are inflected with (-aka), (ek), and (-an) take the izafa inflection (Marif, 1979& Mahmud, 2002).

#### **Izafa (-i)**

If the attribute is a noun or a pronoun having the meaning of possession, the izafa (-i) is connected to the head (Marif, 1979), e.g.

*kur-ek + i = kureki*      in    *kureki to*      'a son of yours'

If the attribute is a common noun, the izafa inflection (-i) can be related to the head.

The inflection morphemes (-aka), (-ek) and (-an) are related to the attribute, e.g.:

*kur-i piyaw-aka*    'the son of the man'

*kur-i piyaw-an*    'the sons of men'      (Marif, 1979)

### **Izafa (-a)**

If the noun is inflected with the izafa (-a), the definite (-aka), the indefinite (ek) and the plural (-an) are combined to the attribute only, e.g.:

a. *barkh-a bichkol-aka-m*

b. *aster-a barz-ak-an*

My little sheep (my lamb)

the high stars

(Marif, 1979)

### **3.2.9 The Possessive inflections**

The pronominal clitics are related to nouns (Marif, 1987). So, nouns are inflected with (*-i m, man, t, tan, y, -yan*) to reveal possession (Fattah, 1980) which are closed items (Amin, 1982).

They have the function of possession when the independent personal pronouns are changed. For example, *bray min -- bram* (Amin, 1998). The use of pronominal clitics for possession is not semantic because the inflectional morphemes are not shown obviously to whom things belong. Possession of this kind can be used frequently because the shapes are shorter than the izafa inflectional morphemes (Fattah, 1980)

The possessive inflectional morphemes are used with:  
concrete nouns (Fattah, 1980), e.g.:

*dast + -im = dastim*      'my hand'

*dast + -man = dastman*    'our hand'

*dast + -it = dastit*      'your hand'

*dast + -tan = dastan*      'your hands'

*dast + -i = dasti* 'his / her hand'

*dast+ -yan = dastyan* 'their hands' ( Ahmad, 1990)

Nouns are inflected with the possessive inflectional morphemes without taking the definite inflection, e.g.:

\**dast+-aka+-m+ br-i*

I cut my hand (Fattah, 1980)

Certain nouns are not directly inflected with possessive inflectional morphemes until they take the definite or indefinite inflectional morphemes (Fattah, 1980), e.g.:

*qalam + - aka + -im = qalamakam*

'my pen' (Ahmad, 1990)

some nouns that have both shapes, the uninflected one and the inflected one with (- aka) (Fattah, 1980), e.g.:

a. *kur + - im= kurim*      b. *kur + - aka + -im = kurakam*

'My son'                      \*'the my son' (Ahmad, 1990)

Adjectives are inflected with a possessive inflection when they function as a noun in a noun phrase, e.g.:

*kiteb-a chak-ak-an-im*

my good books (Fattah, 1980)

In Kurdish inflectional morphemes are used more than prefixes and infixes. So, inflectional morphemes are organized in sequences to form complex words according to a particular rule (Fattah, 1980). Nouns are inflected with more than one inflection (Fattah and Qadir, 2006). This is shown as follows (Fattah, 1980):

Word + definite inflection+ plural inflection + possessive inflection + subject.

Therefore, the sequence of the possessive inflection is after all other inflections, e.g.:

*minal-aan-im- bin-i* (I saw my children) (Fattah, 1980)



### 3.3 Verb Inflections

Verbs are inflected only for a two-way tense contrast: present and past in Kurdish (MacKenzie, 1961; Amin, 1979). Tense is understood as a syntactic notion and time is a semantic notion. The tense morpheme is fused in the stem (Amin, 1979). The stem of verbs is the bound root in Kurdish (Amin, 1976). The formations of the verbs are based on one of these stems (Amin, 1986), e.g.:

Past stem	Present stem		
<i>mird-</i>	<i>mir-</i>	' die'	
<i>nard-</i>	<i>ner</i>	' send'	(Amin, 1979)

These two tenses are changed by modal Affixes in which the difference between tense and mood are made (MacKenzie, 1961). Kurdish grammarians follow the rule of deriving other verb forms from the present stem that can be considered as base in spite of many exceptions and irregularities. Verbs are classified syntactically and semantically into transitive and intransitive verbs in Kurdish. They reveal these grammatical categories: *person, number, tense, aspect, mood, transitivity* and *voice* (Amin, 1976 (Mukiryani, 1989)).

Kurdish grammar uses the term tense in a very wide way in which the different forms, *nustim*' I slept' *danustim*'(I sleep, I am sleeping, I will sleep) *nustibum*' I had slept ' *binu*, 'Sleep! etc. are considered as different tenses. In Kurdish the contrast between *khwardim* ' I ate' and *daxom* ' I am eating' is of past vs present, while *khwardim* 'I ate' and *damkhward* 'I was eating' are different in aspect (Amin, 1979).

The present tense is based on the present stem and the imperative mood. The past tense is based on the past stem ,the progressive, the past participle on which based the present and the past perfect. Therefore, the past form and the past participle relate with *forms of the substantive verbs* to form extra compound tenses (MacKenzie, 1961).

*Person and number* are denoted by means of a linguistic form named pronominal clitics (Fattah, 1999).

### 3.3.1 The Present Inflection (-a)

In Kurdish a pronominal clitic follows a noun or the adjective predicate in the present tense that is a counterpart of the English verb 'to be' in its copulative use (Hawramani, 1973); (Amin, 1979)

The verb *bun* 'to be' (copula) has a *suffixed form* that has a present meaning (McCarus, 1958) & (Ameen, 1986). The copula disappears as  $\emptyset$  (zero) morph when the subject is not the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular but it has the form (-a) in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular (Amin, 1979) as in:

Present / copula  $\rightarrow$  -a (subject is in 3<sup>rd</sup> sg)  
- $\emptyset$  (subject is not 3<sup>rd</sup> sg) (Amin, 1979)

The above diagram can be illustrated as follows:

<i>zirak-(<math>\emptyset</math>) im</i>	<i>zirak-(<math>\emptyset</math>) i</i>	<i>zirak-a <math>\emptyset</math></i>
I am clever.	You are clever.	He is clever.
<i>zirak (<math>\emptyset</math>)-in</i>	<i>zirak-(<math>\emptyset</math>) -in</i>	<i>zirak-(<math>\emptyset</math>)-in</i>

They are clever. You are clever. (Plural) We are clever (Baban, 2006)

This weak inflection (-a) is not realized because verbs always have tense morphemes or pronominal clitics combined to them. (Rassul, 1995).

Some semantic areas covered by the predicates take place with the copula such as (Amin, 1979):

- 1) Identity: the identification of one identity with another, e.g. ;

*Roza kich-a (Copular)*

Roza is a girl. (Hawramani, 1973)

Identity includes comparison, in which the sentence is marked intentionally, e.g.:

*zanyar piyaw-a (Copular)*

Zanyar is a man. (Amin, 1979)

It is understood for the hearer that *Zanyar* is a child but his behavior is like a grown up man.

2) Role: A context which attribute a specific work to the subject, e.g.:

hawkar asingar-a (Copular)

Hawkar is a blacksmith. (Amin, 1979)

The inflection has the function of the predicate denoting a real state e.g.:

a. bahar xosh-a                      b. mihabad shar-a

Spring is nice.                      Mihabad is a city. (Ameen, 1986)

### 3.3.2 The Past Inflectional Morphemes (-a, -i, -u, -t, -d)

In Kurdish infinitival verbal nouns are fixedly finished in / -n / after vowels or /-in /after consonants that are preceded by one of these sounds / -a, -i, -u, -t, -d / (Mackenzie, 1961) ;( Marif, 2000). The traditional grammar regards the infinitival verbal nouns as a base to derive the past (Amin, 1984). The past stem can be taken from the infinitive after deleting the final consonant /-n /and the preceding / i / to derive a past stem (Liznay Kor, 1976) ;( Fakhri and Mukiryani, 1982), e.g.:

*hena-n* 'to bring' → *hena* 'brought' (Marif, 2000)

Past stems can be classified into two kinds: vowel stems and consonant stems (McCarus, 1958) .

In the light of what has been presented, the process of having the past tense is a traditional one. The modern linguists prefer to add to the root the past inflectional morphemes / -a, -i, -u, -t, -d / to form the past tense. They are recognizing as follows:

This inflection might be added to the root to build the past tense:

Infinitive → root + a = past form (Fattah and Qadir, 2006)

The above formation is illustrated as follows:

Int: *wast* 'stand' + a = *wast-a* 'stood' (Marif, 2000)

The inflection /-i /

The inflection / i/ is added to the root to form the past tense, e.g.:

T: *nus* 'write + i = *nus-i* wrote (Amin, 1992)

The inflection /-u /

The inflection / u / is added to the root to form the past tense, e.g.:

Int: *ch* 'go' + *u* = *ch-u* 'went' (Amin, 1984)

The vast majority of verb stems finish in / i / or/ a /but a few ends in / / u / (McCarus, 1958) ;( Rassul, 1995).

Past stems finishing in consonants are /-d / or / -t/. (Marif, 2000):

The morpheme /-t /

The inflection /-t / is added to the root to form the past (Omar, 2005), e.g.:

Int: *khaw* 'sleep' + *t* = *khaw-t* 'slept' (Marif, 2000)

There are some exceptions, e.g.:

a) *palew* 'filter' + *-t* = *palawt* 'filtered' (McCarus, 1958)

In the above example there is a vocalic alternation to form the past.

b) *parez-* 'protect' + *-t* = *paras-t* 'protected'

c) *hawesh-* 'throw' + *-t* = *hawish-t* 'threw' (McCarus, 1958)

In the above examples (b and c), there is a vocalic alternation: /e / becomes (a / and / e / becomes / i / (Amin, 1984) and a voiced sibilant / z or z / alternates with a voiceless sibilant / s or s / (Marif, 1976).

The morpheme /-d /

The inflection / -d / is added to the root to form the past tense, e.g.:

T: *ner* 'send' + *-d* = *nar-d* 'sent' (Amin, 1984)

The past formation is accompanied with a vocalic alternation / e / becomes / a / as in example above (Amin, 1984).

Grammatically, the past stem is taken the pronominal clitics: verbs are taken transitive verbs intransitive (McCarus, 1958) & (Liznay Kor, 1976). The following paradigms exemplify the active indicative of the past tense for the transitive and intransitive verbs:

T: a. *kir-d-im* 'I did' Int: b. *nus-t-im* 'I slept'

*kir -d-i(t)* 'You did' *nus- t-i(t)* 'You slept'

<i>kir -d-î</i>	'He did'	<i>nus- t</i>	'He slept'
<i>kir-d-man</i>	' We did'	<i>nus- t-în</i>	'We slept'
<i>kir-d-yan</i>	<i>They did</i>	<i>nus- t-in</i>	'They slept'

(Liznay Kor, 1976)

After this concise discussion of the morphological description of the past form, it can be clear that verbs that finish with / -a, -i, -u, -t, -d / refer to past tense in Kurdish.

### 3.3.3 The Past Participle inflection (-u)

The inflectional morpheme (-u) denotes the past participle (MacKenzie, 1961) (Marif, 2004). The formation of the past participle can be based on the past stem. It is built from a stem that is active or passive in voice (Yusupova, 2005) that is shown as follows:

Past stem	Past participle	
<i>kusht-</i>	<i>kushtu</i>	'have killed'
<i>kushra-</i>	<i>kushraw</i>	' have been killed' (Yusupova, 2005)

The rule for the active can be as follows:

Root + past inflection + past participle inflection as in: *Kush-t-u* 'have killed'.

The rule for the passive is as follows:

Root + passive inflection + past inflection + past participle inflection as in:

<i>khwaz-r-aw</i>	'have been borrowed'	(Rassul, 1995)
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The past participle form uses to constitute the present and past perfect. *The present perfect* comprises of the past and the past participle inflection (-u) that has been followed by the pronominal clitics for *agreement*. The transitive verb shows the form of the substantive verb (-a) as an auxiliary following the pronominal clitics and in the intransitive (-a) shows in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular only (Liznay Kor, 1976) (Ameen, 1986) (Amin, 1986). The paradigm of the present perfect indicative is shown as follows:

a. T verb		b. Int verb
min <i>khward-u-m-a</i>	' I have eaten'	<i>hat-u-m</i> 'I have come'
to <i>khward-u-t-a</i>	' You have eaten'	<i>hat-u-yt</i> 'You have come'
aw <i>khward-u-y-a (ty)</i>	' He has eaten'	<i>hat-u-a</i> 'He has come'
ema <i>khward-u-man-a</i>	'We have eaten'	<i>hat-u-yn</i> 'We have come'
ewa <i>khward-û-tan-a</i>	' you have eaten'	<i>hat-u-n</i> 'You have come'
awan <i>khward-u-yan-a</i>	' They have eaten'	<i>hat-u-n</i> 'They have come'

(Amin, 1995)

The empty morph (ty) reveals after (-a) in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular of the transitive verb *khward-u-y-a (ty)* (Amin, 1984).

*The past perfect* indicative is formed by (Marif, 2004):

Root + past inflection + root of the 'verb to be' *bun* (-b-) + Cl

The above formation is illustrated as follows:

T: *kirdibum* 'I had done'

Int: *nustibum* 'I had slept' (Marif, 1987)

As adjectives, the past participle may be taking the *izafa* inflection *khanu-a sutawaka rukha* 'The burned house destroyed' (Rassul, 1995). This adjectival form is not inflected for degrees of comparison (McCarus, 1958).

### 3.3.4 The Perfect Subjunctive morpheme (-bi )

The inflection (-bi-) is added to the past stem to form the perfect subjunctive (Amin, 1979) e.g.:

T: Root+ past inflection: *khwar-d-*  
'eat' past

Perfect subjunctive: *khwar-d-ibi -*  
eat –past- may

'might eat' (Amin, 1979)

In both cases, the verb is transitive or intransitive, the formation of the perfect subjunctive is diagramed as follows (Liznay Kor, 1976):

Root + past inflection + **bi** + pronominal clitic

It is shown as example below:

T Verb	Int Verb	(Marif, 2000)
a . kirdibim 'I might have done'	b. kawtibim 'I might have fallen'	
kird-ib-it 'You might have done'	kawt-ib-it 'You might have fallen'	
kird-ib-êt 'She might have done'	kawt-ib-êt 'She might have fallen'	
kird-ib-mân 'We might have done'	kawt-ib-in 'We might have fallen'	
kird-ib-tân 'You might have done'	kawt-ib-in 'You might have fallen'	
kird-ib-yân 'They might have done'	kawt-ib-in 'They might have fallen'	

### 3.3.5 The near Past Subjunctive morpheme (-ba)

The near past subjunctive tense can be built from the past stem and a specific form of the auxiliary verb *bun*. The modal prefix (-b (i)) is optionally combined to the form (MacKenzie, 1961), (Liznay Kor, 1976) of the intransitive verb and sometimes it is not used with transitive verbs (Marif, 2000). The formation is diagramed as follows:

(bi) + root+ past inflection + *ba* + pronominal clitic

The above formation can be exemplified as follows:

a. <i>kirdibam</i> 'had I done'	b. <i>kawtibam</i> 'had I fallen'
<i>kirdibat</i> 'had you done'	<i>kawtibay(t)</i> 'had you fallen'
<i>kirdibay</i> 'had she done'	<i>kawtiba</i> 'had she fallen'
<i>kirdibaman</i> 'had we done'	<i>kawtibayin</i> 'had we fallen'
<i>kirdibatan</i> 'had you done'	<i>kawtiban</i> 'had you fallen'
<i>kirdibayan</i> 'had they done'	<i>kawtiban</i> 'had they fallen'

(Marif, 2000)

The transitive is also formed as: bi + pronominal clitic + root + past inflection+ ba; for instance, *bi-m-kird-iba* 'had I done' (Liznay Kor, 1976).

### 3.3.6 The Past Continuous Subjunctive morpheme (-aya)

This inflection denotes the subjunctive mood in the *past* and *past perfect*. The morpheme (bi-) is prefixed to the past with the inflection (-aya) to form the *past conditional* (MacKenzie, 1961), (Marif, 1987).

The arrangement of the pronominal clitics differs from transitive and intransitive verbs. For transitive, they are entered before the stem, while for the intransitive they are entered before (-aya) as shown below:

T: bi- + Cl + root + past inflection + (ba) + -aya

Int: bi + root + past inflection + (ba) + Cl + -aya (Amin, 1998)

The above formation is illustrated in the following examples:

T Verb

Int Verb

a. *bi-m- kward-aya* 'had I eaten'

b. *bi-hat-maya* 'had I come'

*bi-t- kward-aya* 'had you eaten'

*bi-hat-itaya* 'had you come'

*bi -kward-aya* 'had he eaten'

*bi-hat-aya* 'had he come'

*bi-man- kward-aya* 'had we eaten'

*bi-hat-in- aya* 'had we come'

*bi-tan- kward-aya* 'had you eaten'

*bi-hat-n -aya* 'had you come'

*bi-yan- kward-aya* 'had they eaten'

*bi-hat-n -aya* 'had they come'

(Amin, 1998)

The *past perfect* subjunctive is formed as follows with modification:

T: bi- + Cl + root + past inflection + -bu- aya

Int: bi- + root + past inflection + Cl + -bu- aya

(Marif, 2000)

This shows as follows:

a. T Verb

b. Int Verb

*bi-m-kward -ibw-aya* 'I would have eaten'

*hat-ibu-m-aya* 'I would have come'

*bi-t-xward -ibw-aya* 'you would have eaten'

*hat-ibu-t-aya* 'You would have come'



*bi -kward –ibw-aya* 'She would have eaten'    *hat-ibu-w -aya* 'She would have come'

*bi-man--kward –ibw-aya*'We would have eaten' *hat-ibuy-n-aya*'We would have come'

*bi-tan-kward –ibw-aya* 'you would have eaten' *hat-ibu-n-aya* You would have come'

*bi-yan-kward –ibw-aya* 'They would have eaten' *hat-ibu-naya*'They would have come' (McCarus, 1958)

The transitive is formed as: Root +past inflection + bu +Cl+ aya as in *gir-t-ibu-m-aya* ' I would have caught' (Liznay Kor, 1976).

The normal sequence of the three subjunctive inflections when they come together is that the inflection ( aya) never precedes ( ba), e.g.:

*bikawtibmaya*    'had I fallen' (Marif, 2000)

The subjunctive forms can be used in requests, hopes, wishes, desires, conditional, necessities, probabilities, opinions etc. in connection with some articles and words such as *wish, if,* etc. (Marif, 2000), e.g:

a.. *khozga bi- ch u -m- -aya*

b. *ranga ch-u-b-in*

I wish I had gone.

They might have gone (Ameen, 1986)

### 3.3.7.1 The Causative Morpheme (and)

Morphologically, there is a clear causative construction derived from the non-causative by means of inflection morphemes (Amin, 1979). In Kurdish, only intransitive verbs are causativized through a productive rule including the addition of the morpheme (Amin, 1979). The addition of the causative inflection (-and) to the intransitive present stem yields the past stem of the causative (MacKenzie, 1961), (Muhammad, 1976) (Amin, 1985; and Fattah, 1989) as shown below:

Past stem – past inflection + and = Causative past stem

*rukha – a + and = rukhand*    'cause to destroy'

*mird – d + and= mirand*    'cause to death'

*khawit* – *t* + *and* = *khawand* 'cause to sleep'  
*bazi* – *i* + *and* = *baz and* 'cause to defeat'  
*nu* – *u* + *and* = *nwand* 'cause to sleep' (Qadir, 2003)

The passive intransitive verbs are cliticized with group B and C but the inflected transitive verbs are cliticized with the 1<sup>st</sup> group A to show **agreement** (Amin, 1992), e.g.:

*min shk-and-im* 'I broke it',  
*to shk-and-it* 'You broke it'  
*aw shk-and-i* 'He broke it',  
*ema shk-and-mān*, 'We broke it'  
*ewa shk-and-tan* 'You broke it',  
*awan shk-and-yan* 'They broke it' (Amin, 1985)

### 3.3.8 The Passive morpheme (- r)

The inflection (r) denotes the passive voice of the verb (Qadir, 2003) (Fattah and Qadir, 2006). Passive forms are derived from the present stem to which the passive inflection (-r) can be linked and the thematic vowel (a) for the past and (e) for the present stem (Amin, 1979) (khoshnaw, 2008). This is shown in the following diagram:

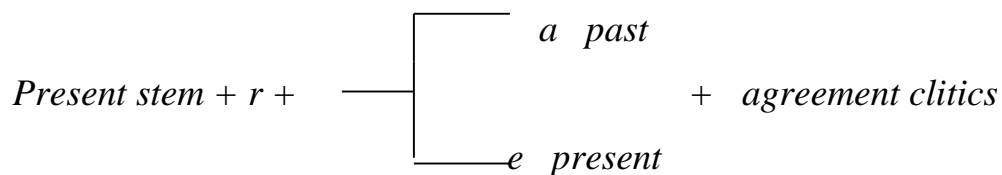


Diagram (5). The Formation of the Passive Inflection. (Amin, 1992)

In addition, (Naqishbandi, 1973) states that, the letter (-d-) must be put between both (-r) as in *kirdra*. He distinguishes between the inflectional morphemes (-dra) and (-ra) as passive inflectional morphemes.

The intransitive verbs are semantically passive (Amin, 1985). Only transitive verbs take passive inflectional morphemes (Amin, 1979), e.g.:

*kushtin* 'to kill', *kush-* → Passive stem + r = *kush-r-*

Present passive: *kush-r-e da-kush-r-e-m*

Pr- kill-Pass- Pr-Cl ' I am killed'

Past passive:

*kush-r-a kush-r-a-m*

kill- Pass-P- Cl ' I was killed'

(McCarus,1958)

The distribution of (-a) and (- e) is grammatically conditioned: / a / and can be used with the active and passive of the past stem, while / e / can be used with the present passive stem (Fattah and Qadir, 2006), e.g.:

a. *para-ka diz-r/a*

b. *para-ka da-diz-r/e*

The money was stolen.

The money is stolen.

The kind of *portmanteau morph* is observed in which the morph (-r) has two grammatical functions denoting passive and transitive, two functions are mixed into one (*cumulation*) (Fattah and Qadir, 2006).

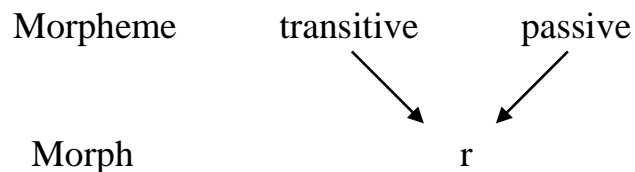


Diagram (6) .Cumulation of the Passive Inflection (-r).

(Fattah and Qadir, 2006)

There are some exceptions, in which the passive form can be based on a past stem (Fakhri and Mukiryani, 1982) e.g.:

to say' *gut + r + a = gutra* ' it was said' (Amin, 1979)

The formations of the passive stems of some verbs are *irregular* (MacKenzie, 1961). When the passive inflectional morphemes are added to the stem ending in /- a /or /-e / they can be modified into / i / (Amin, 1979), e.g.:

*nan* 'to put' , *na+ r+ a= nira* 'was put'

*na+ r+ e = nire* 'will be put' (Amin, 1979)

The passive stem undergoes regular conjugation as an intransitive verb (Amin, 1979). The present active are cliticized with group A, but in the passive they

are cliticized with group B and C (Amin, 1992). The following examples show the present and the past passive indicative, e.g.: (McCarus, 1958) states that as below:

a. Present passive	b. Past passive
'I am pestered to death'	'I was pestered to death'
<i>da-khu-r-e-m</i> 'I am eaten'	<i>khur-a-m</i> 'I was eaten'
<i>da-khu-r-e-yt</i> 'You are eaten'	<i>khur-a-yt</i> 'You were eaten'
<i>da-khu-r-e-t</i> 'He is eaten'	<i>khur-a-ø</i> 'He was eaten'
<i>da-khu-r-e-yn</i> 'We are eaten'	<i>khur-a-yn</i> 'You were eaten'
<i>da-khu-r-e-n</i> 'You are eaten'	<i>khur-a-n</i> 'You were eaten'
<i>da-khu-r-e-n</i> 'They are eaten'	<i>khur-a-n</i> 'They were eaten'

### 3.3.9 The Verbal Postpositions as Inflections

There are only three prepositions in Kurdish (*bo* 'for, to', *ba* 'to' and *la* 'at') that are related to verbs as inflectional morphemes particularly those verbs denoting dative case as *chun bo* "to go to", *dan ba* 'to give to' etc. (Qadir, 2003), (Amin, 1989) and (khoshnaw, 2015) say that there are four preposition so he adds another one (a) as

Azad dachet bo zanko. Azad goes to university

Aza dachet-a -zanko. (khoshnaw, 2015)

The inflection (-a) can be combined to verbs and followed by adverbs. This inflection *bo* 'means 'to' as its counterpart (Ibrahim, 1978) functioning as an indirect object of the verb (Ameen, 1986), e.g.:

a. *shilan hat bo Hawler*      b. *shilan hat-a Hawler*

Shilan came to Hawler.      Shilan came to Hawler. (Baban, 2006)

The inflection (-a) is linked to verbs whose preposition is *ba* 'to', e. g.:

a. *min bakhshi-m ba ?aw*      b. *min bakhsh-i-m-a ?aw*

I granted him.      I granted him. (Amin, 1984)

The inflection can also be related to verbs that are usually followed by these adverbs: *naw* 'in', *nizik* 'near', *tanisht* 'beside', *sar* 'on', etc., e.g.:

*khist-im-a naw dolab-aka*

I put it in the cupboard. (Amin, 1984)

The preposition *ba* or *la* are shown morphemic alternant when followed by a noun or pronoun: *ba* is shifted into /*pe* / and / *la* / is changed into / *le* /, e.g.:

a. *ba to da-le-m*

b. *pe-t da-le-m*

I say to you.

I say to you.

(Amin, 1986)

### 3.4 Adjective Inflectional morpheme

Adjectives share some of the classification of nouns included like definiteness and number similar in form and function (Hawramani, 1981: 187; Bakir, 1995) and possess a particular classification characterized by the adjectives themselves that is comparison (McCarus, 1958). An adjective is part of speech that describes a noun or pronoun that doesn't connect to time as well as describes a situation and things. (Dizay, 2013)

In addition, its characteristics, what we means here is that those which are combined to form and carrying the meaning of inflectional morpheme such as (tr-er) and (trin-est) These are attached to inflectional morpheme using for comparison and superlative. (Muhedin, 2013)

#### 3.4.1 The Definite inflection (aka) and the indefinite inflection (ek)

Two kinds of adjectives can be related to the end of the adjective stem which are the definite (-aka) and the indefinite (-ek) (McCarus, 1958), e.g.:

a. *chak* + *aka* = *chakaka* 'the good one'

b. *chak* + *ek* = *chakek* 'a good one' (McCarus, 1985)

#### 3.4.2 The Plural inflection (-an)

The plural inflection (-an) can be attached to an adjective stem (McCarus, 1958), e.g.:

*Chwan* + *-an* = *chwanan* 'beautiful ones' (Ahmad, 1990)

### 3.4.3 The Comparative and Superlative Morphemes (-tir) and (trin)

Three types of adjectives degree In Kurdish are available the positive, the comparative and the superlative (Khoshnaw, 2015) ;( Amin, 2015),(Shwani,2011). The positive cannot be used for comparison between two things, it is only a base form of adjectives (khoshnaw, 2015), for instance, *zirak* (clever). Higher degrees of comparison are noted through inflection morphemes adding (tir) for comparative and (trin) for superlative (Hawramani, 1973), (Fakhri and Mukiryani, 1982).

This morpheme can be made morphologically by adding the inflectional morpheme (tir) to the adjective stem to compare between two things or persons which one of them is better than another (khoshnaw, 2015). It is built in using (tir) to compare two things or person that show the quality of things than other items (Khoshnaw, 2015), e.g.:

*zirak+ -tir = ziraktir* 'cleverer. (Dizay: 2013)

The comparative (-tir) can have some usages:

The postposition *la* uses between the things included in the comparison that can be nouns, pronouns, infinitives, and numbers, e.g.:

a. *tre la sew khosh-tir-a*                      d. *pench la chwar ziya-tir-a*

Grapes are nicer than apples.                      Five is more than four. (Marif, 1992)

The structures compared can be a phrase, e.g.:

*piyaw-i aza laPiyaw-i tirsinok bash-tir-a*

A brave man is better than a coward man. (Marif, 1992)

Frequently the postposition *la* cannot be found but the articles like (*ya, yan, Yana, yaxud* (or)) may be found in addition to the two compared items, e.g.:

*tawar chwan-tir-a yan tablo*

Tawar is more beautiful or Tablo. (Marif, 1992)

The inflection of comparative adjective has the role of the attribute after the head by the izafa inflectional morpheme (-i) or (-a) (MacKenzie, 1961), e.g.:

*guldan-a gawra-tir-aka*

*the bigger vase.* (Qadir, 2003)

This morpheme is used for comparison with one person, with a group of persons or things with a number of things. (Khoshnaw, 2005).

*Chwan + -trin = chwantrin* nicer' (Marif, 1988)

The inflection of superlative adjective has some usages:

The inflected superlative adjective as an attribute comes before the head (Qadir, 2003), e.g.:

*khosht-rin roz* 'the happiest day' (Bakir, 1995)

If the inflections are divided into classes according to their inflectional properties, then two inflection morphemes can belong to the same class are not combined together, e.g.:

*am gula chwan-tir-a trin-a*

This flower is nicest. (Fattah and Qadir, 2006)

### 3.5 The pronoun Inflectional Morpheme

Pronouns (jenaw) are the bound morphemes, in Kurdish, playing great role in making itself in sentences and phrases, and have impact on verb according to transitive and intransitive too.

Pronoun is a word used instead of others names (Amin, 2015). It is defined as morphemes which are referred to person but used instead of them ( Dizay, 2013). Personal pronouns are specific measure used as possessive which are used in noun phrase and sentence that is considered as inflectional morpheme (Qadir, 2003). They are pronouns, which are regarded as a bound morpheme and are attached to a word, are not available and used independently such as ( m,t,yat,yan,man,yan,n,at,) (Shwani, 2011).

#### 3.5.1 The Personal pronoun mixed (jenaw)\_

Personal pronouns (mixed) are those pronouns that cannot stand alone to give meaning until they stick to a word (Amin, 2015). They stick to a noun or verb to give meaning (khoshnaw, 2015).

Iam human-

In Kurdish, personal pronoun (mixed) are as follow: (Qadir, 2003)

Group	First person		Second person		Third person	
	Singula r	Plura l	Singula r	Plura l	Singula r	Plura l
First	M	Man	Ta	Tan	Ya	Yan
Secon d	M	Yan	Yat	N		N

(khoshnaw, 2015) says that (m-man, t-tan, y- yan) are used with past transitive, such as;

brd-m. (I took)	first person singular	
brd-man. (We took)	first person plural	
brdi—t. (you took)	second person singular	
brd-i. ( he/she took)	third person singular	
brdi-an. (they took)	third person plural	(khoshnaw,

2015)

There are a few pronouns, which are used with past intransitive (m-yan, yat-n, zero pronoun-n) such as Hat, 'come' - infinitive

Hat—m. (I come) 'First person singular', hati-n ( we come) 'first person plural'

Hati-t. (You come) 'Second person singular, hati-n-(she/he comes) ' second person plural

Hati-n ( they come) third person plural on (khoshnaw, 2015)

There are other pronouns like (ma-yan, yat,y and n, at-n ) which are used with present transitive and intransitive verbs.(khoshnaw,2015) Such as;



dach-m ( I go )	' first person singular'
dach-n ( we go )	'first person singular'
dach-yat or dach-y ( he /she goes )	' second person singular'
dachi-n ( they go )	' second person plural'
dach-yat (he/she go)	'third person singular (khoshnaw, 2015)

In Kurdish, these inflectional morphemes (m-man, t-tan,y-yan) are recognized as possessive pronoun in noun phrase though they are used for other things (Qadir,2003) such as:

Kuri- khom	become kur-m. ( my son )	' as possessive pronoun'
bawki to	become- bawki-t.	' as possessive pronoun'
Your father	father your	
Mali ewa --	-mal-tan.	'as possessive pronoun'
Your house	house your	(Qadie, 2003)

It is used with past transitive, which shows a subject marker and possible to make both roles as possessive and subject and used singular and plural definite and indefinite (Qadir, 2003) such as

Kitebaka-t-m-	khendawa. (I read your book )	'Possessive and subject'
Kura ka-t-m biny	(I saw your ( the ) boy)	
Noun-singular definite-possessive-subject-verb		

The morpheme (n and a ) are used with imperative which are used only in singular and plural ,such as: ( khoshnaw,2014)

Danishtin –	infinitive 'sit'	
Danish--a	singular 'sit you	
Danishi--n	plural 'sit you for plural'	(khoshnaw, 2015)

They are attached to adverb for the first, second and plural third (Marif, 2014)., such as :

Mn lera-m	' Iam here'
To lera-yat	'you are here

## Results

As we have reached the outcome of Kurdish inflectional morphemes is that there are many inflections connected to (noun, verb, adjective, preposition and pronoun) to show grammatical relation. There are many inflections, which use in noun phrase to show definite and indefinite noun. Some of the inflections are original, which are closed the structure of the words but some are not closed it. Therefore, in this case, we have observed that in Kurdish, some inflections are not original inflection. It is clear that the izafa inflections is an original inflection attached to the head in which the relation between two words is created. We can say that inflectional morphemes behave in a similar way to those in English. Nouns are inflected for number. Nouns are inflected for definiteness vocative. The possessive considers as the original Inflections. Verbs take the passive and the causative inflections as well. We found that verbs are inflected for tense, aspect and mood. Prepositions and pronouns take inflectional morphemes. The syntactic inflectional morphemes enter the construction of noun phrase represented by definite and indefinite articles. The concept of inflectional morphemes are limited to some parts of speech. Then it is clear that inflections are obligatory as well. The sentence is ungrammatical if the improper selection is used. Inflectional morphemes have the role to state syntactic relation such as agreement in sentences. Inflectional morpheme don't change the syntactic category of the base word, but are only able to modify the grammatical form of a word that can fit into a particular syntactic case. In addition, they come at the end of words.

## Chapter III Contrastive Analysis

### 4.2.1 Noun Inflections in Contrast

As for similarity, there is a similarity in both languages in the formation of plurality which is accomplished through the addition of inflectional morpheme (-s) to a noun stem in English and (-an) in Kurdish (See 2.3.1 and 3.2.4). Thus, English and Kurdish learners or students do not expect to confront difficulty. Both forms are the main ones leading plurality towards regularity and simplicity that make learning easier.

As for difference, one of the differences that is observed between the two contrasted languages is linked to the spelling form. In English, the plural inflection has two spelling forms used in different contexts: (-s) and (-es) , while the plural inflection has only one spelling form (-an) in Kurdish . Compare:

Eng: *cat -- cats*

*Fox-- foxes*

Kur: *kur --kuran*

*Boy-- boys*

The plural inflection is a close item that has the characteristic of non-suffixability in English; while in Kurdish the plural inflection does not close the structure of the word. It might be followed by other inflections, as in the izafa inflection (-i) , Compare:

Eng: *book--books*

Kur: *khwendkar-an-i zirak* (Clever students)

The plural inflection is added to other nouns inflected by the definite inflection in Kurdish, as in:

Kur: *kur-ak-an*

The boys

The plural inflection (-s) in English is a true inflectional morpheme that works on the word level, whereas the plural inflection (-an) in Kurdish is not a true inflectional morpheme coming to a phrase level that is considered as a semi-clitic ,Compare:

Eng: *bigger dogs*

Kur: *darga-k-ani shur-ak-an*

The doors of the rooms

The plural inflection can be related to all the nouns when more than one noun happens in succession attached by a coordinator (u or w) ' and', while in Kurdish the plural inflection is connected to the last noun . Compare:

Eng: workers and farmers

Kur *krekar u chutiyar-an*

A noun can be inflected with the plural inflection if qualified by a cardinal number to agree with the numerals, while in Kurdish, a qualified noun does not take the plural inflection (-an). The counted nouns always remain singular . Compare:

Eng: *three nights*

Kur *se shaw*

If a plural form of a noun is used in a sentence, a plural verb is used that denotes subject - verb agreement in English, while in Kurdish the subject –verb agreement is shown through the pronominal clitics. Compare:

Eng: *The boys sleep.*

Kur: *kur-ak-an nust-in*

As for similarity in possessive case, both English and Kurdish have a systematic pattern in making possession that is performed by adding inflections and hence causes no trouble. The structure to form possession is stated by the addition of the inflection (-'s ) to the end of the noun for the singular stem and the apostrophe ( ' ) only to the end of the regular plural nouns and (-'s) to the irregular plural noun in English, and (**i and a**) in Kurdish , as in:

Eng: *Jane's book*

Kur: *kur-a pash-aka*  
(the king's son)

In English the inflection (-S2) is related to the last word in the phrase even if it is not a noun i.e. it is connected to other parts of speech that is best regarded as a clitic. The possessive cases are connected the head in a noun phrase to connect the attribute and the head as in:

Eng: *John gave Mary his sister's old bicycle*

Kur: *chiy-aka-an-i Kurdistan*  
*The mountain of kurdistan*

The possessive is used to denote parts of a person in both languages, as in:

Eng *John's hat*

Kur: *kur-a zirak-aka* 'the clever boy

As for difference in possessive pronoun, The structure to form possession in Kurdish is made by adding the pronominal clitics to the end of the noun stem regardless of regular and irregular plural forms i.e. they are postnominals: ((**i**) **m**, (**i**) **t**, **i** / **y**, **tan**, **man**, **yan**) , while, these inflections have the possessive pronouns as their counterparts in English, they are prenominal. Compare:

Kur: *chaw – chaw-im*

Eng: eye -- *my* eye

*chaw—chaw-an-im* \_ (*my* eyes)

There are two kinds of possession in English: possessive (-'s) and the zero possessive. The first is used with the singular nouns, irregular plurals, and nouns ending in (-s) and the second is used with nouns regular plurals and nouns ending in (-s) , while possession is classified into three groups in accordance to their agreement with the possessive inflections . Compare:

Eng: *colleague--colleague's*                      *colleagues-- colleagues'*

*Dickens-- Dickens's*                      *Dickens-- Dickens'*

Kur: *dayk-it / your* mother

*qalam-aka-y / His pen*

*kur-im, kur-aka-m / My sons*

When the noun is plural, the possessive inflection is followed the plural inflection in Kurdish as in :

Kur: *kur-aka –an-im*

*Kur-akan-im.*

**my sons**

The structure of the possessive (-s) , it is shown a relation of one noun to another in which one noun is a head and the other is modifier in English , while in Kurdish there is only the possessive inflection related to the **head** . Compare:

Eng: *Mary's dress*

Kur: *dastim*

**my hand**

Adjectives is inflected with the possessive inflections if they function as nouns in Kurdish, while adjectives is not taken possessive inflectional morpheme in English. Compare:

Eng: \*my goods' books

Kur: *kiteba chak-ak-an-im* (my good books)

In Kurdish nouns are inflected with more than one grammatical inflection to form complex words according to specific rules. It means that grammatical inflections are not close items in Kurdish. On the contrary, there is only one inflection morpheme to close the structure of the word in English Compare:

Eng: noun + one inflectional morpheme

*Mary's dress*

Kur: noun + definite morpheme + plural inflection + possessive inflection

*mindal+ aka + an + I* (his children)

In English the definite articles are omitted when the possessive inflection is used .On the contrary, the definite inflection precedes the possessive inflections in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *John's* car

Kur: *kur-aka-y* \_ (his son)

The choice of the possessive (-s) is more attached to gender classes in which the possessive (-s) is favored by animate nouns and used with certain types of inanimate nouns in English . Conversely, possessive inflections demonstrate person, number, but they do not show gender in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *the doctor's surgery*

Personal nouns

*a week's holiday*

Temporal nouns

Kur: <i>biram</i>	my brother	1 <sup>st</sup> person singular
<i>braman</i>	my bothers	1 <sup>st</sup> person plural
<i>dayk-it</i>	your mother	2 <sup>nd</sup> person singular
<i>dayki-tan</i>	your mothers	2 <sup>nd</sup> person plural
<i>chawi</i>	his eys	3 <sup>rd</sup> person singular
<i>chawyan</i>	his eyes	3 <sup>rd</sup> person plural

As for similarity in Izafa, In Kurdish possession is also expressed by the izafa inflection (-i) to connect both the head and the attribute. Similarly, possession is performed by the possessive (-s) to link both nouns in English. Compare:

Eng: *the car's engine*

Kur: *kras-i kichaka* (The girl's dress)

As for difference in Izafa ,In Kurdish the izafa inflection (-i) is related to the first word that is always the head . On the contrary, the possessive (-S2) is related to the first word that is a modifier to denote the relation between two nouns in English Compare:

Eng: *the child's toy*

Kur: *chiya-k-an-i Kurdistan*

## The mountains of Kurdistan

In Kurdish the izafa (-i) can be related to the head that might be a pronoun, proper and common noun and the attribute can be a noun, pronoun, adjective and adverb . Conversely, the relation is expressed by two nouns in English . Compare:

Eng: *the car's design*

Kur: *ewayak-i dilsoz*

\*Your loyal (Your sons)

If the attribute is a common noun, the izafa (-i) is related to the head, and the definite inflection, the indefinite inflection and the plural inflection are combined to the attribute in Kurdish, while, the reverse cannot be applicable in English. The position of the definite and indefinite articles in English is prior to the first noun which the plural inflection is related to. Compare:

Eng: *a girl's story*

Kur: *kur-i piyawek* (Son of a man (a man's son))

As for similarity in (a) Izafa, the inflections of both languages are related to the first noun to state possession.

As for difference, the inflection (-a) is another form of possession in Kurdish in which a changed noun forms a compound that takes other inflectional morphemes. In English possession can be expressed by the inflection (-s) but this formation of a compound noun is impossible. Compare:

Eng: Peter's eyes

Kur: *kura pasha*

The attribute is a noun or an adjective but not a pronoun when inflection is made with the izafa (-a) in Kurdish. On the contrary, the relation is stated by the two nouns in English. Compare:

Eng: *the girl's story*

Kur: *kura zirakaka* (the clever boy)



The definite inflection (-aka), the indefinite inflection (ek) and the plural (-an) are combined to the attribute only if the noun is inflected by the izafa inflection (-a) in Kurdish, while, the reverse is impossible in English. Compare:

Eng: *the girl's apartment*

Kur: *kicha kurdek* -- (a Kurdish girl)

As for similarity in vocative, there is no similarity in this point between contrasted languages

As for difference, in Kurdish, there are some inflection morphemes related to a noun stem to denote a vocative case: (-a), (-e ), (-o) and (-ina). The category of number has the role in determining the vocative inflections. Conversely, nouns are not inflected to denote vocative but expressions such as Hey! is used informally in addition to the above expressions. Compare:

Eng: *Hey! Girl*

Kur: *kiche (Hey! Girl )*

*Bawka ( Hey, Father)*

As for similarity for (aka) and (a) there is no point of similarity between two contrasted languages concerning the definite.

As for difference, Formally, definiteness is formed by inflections combined to the end of the noun phrases in Kurdish as in (-aka) and (-a) , while in English, its counterpart is stated as a grammatical free morpheme (or by a function word) '**the**' used before the noun as a separate item. Compare:

Eng: *the girl*

Kur: *mnal-aka*

When the noun stem is plural, the plural inflection (-an) is connected to the definite inflected noun in Kurdish. In English, it has the same syntactic position preceding the noun it changes. Compare:

Eng: *the girls*

Kur: *kich-ak-an... the girls*

The inflection (-aka) has the characteristic of clitics because clitics is related to a stem already containing clitics or inflections in Kurdish.

The inflection (-aka) is attached to the noun when the noun is followed by proper nouns, personal or reflexive pronouns in Kurdish, whereas the definite article is not used in such a case in English. Compare:

Eng: \* *the your son*

Kur: *kurakay to*

The definite inflection is attached to adjectives and attached to the end of the last adjective in Kurdish (See 3.2.1.3), whereas adjectives are not inflected and also the definite article is not used with adjectives in English. Compare:

Eng: \**the beautiful*

Kur: *chwanaka the beautiful one*

The inflection (-a) is also a definite inflection in Kurdish in which the use of the plural inflection (-an) is not possible. It appears in conjunction with the demonstrative adjective, whereas such a case is not found in English. Compare:

Eng: \**this the boy this bo*

Kur: *?aw kura*

As for similarity in (ek) there is no point of similarity between two both languages relating the indefinite.

As for difference, Indefiniteness is formed by a morpheme (-ek) suffixed to nouns in Kurdish, but it expresses by a free grammatical morpheme (a or an) preceding the nouns as a separable item in English. Compare:

Eng: **a** book

**an** apple

Kur: *qalamek (a pen)*

The indefinite inflection can be related to adjectives in Kurdish, whereas, adjectives are not inflected with indefinite inflection and it is not used before adjectives in English. Compare:

Eng: \* *a beautiful*

Kur: *chwan-ek. (a beautiful one )*

#### 4.2.2 Verb Inflections in Contrast

As for similarity in (s3), the inflection (-s) is the only verbal inflectional agreement in English. Agreement in Kurdish is denoted by pronominal clitics. One of the similarities between affixes and clitics is that both are bound morphemes.

As for difference, verbs are inflected for person, number and tense to show agreement with the subject. The formation is performed by the inflection (-s) or (-es) that add to the end of the regular and irregular verb stems meaning the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present tense that is an example of cumulation. On the contrary, verbs are cliticized to show subject-verb agreement in Kurdish. So, person and number categories are denoted by the pronominal clitics that are different for transitive and intransitive verb stems. Compare:

Eng: He/ She / It runs.

Kur: T: *aw nan dakhwa(t)*      Int: *aw danue(t)*

He eats bread.

She sleeps.

As for similarity (ing), there is one point of similarity that is observed is that affixes refer to the present participle in both languages. Both are straightforward additions to the regular and irregular verb stems except some defective verbs in English, as in

Eng: *push -- pushing*

Kur: *hen -- da-hen-im* (I am bringing)

As for difference, the verbal inflection that shows present participle is formed by the verb stem plus the inflection (-ing) in English, but the formation of the present participle is performed by adding the prefix (-da) to the verb stem. This prefix refers to the simple present, the progressiveness and the future in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *read-- reading*

Kur: *ch -- dachim*

go --I go-- I am going --I will go

The progressive tense is formed by using any of the copula *be* plus the present participle form of the verb stem in English, while, the syntactic distribution of progressiveness is formed by the prefix *da* plus the verb stem plus the pronominal clitics in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *They are sleeping.*

Kur *awan danun.*

The (-ing) inflection is also used for few other items such as: non-finite verb form in a subordinate clause, a personifying adjective in a noun phrase, and a derived head noun in English, whereas the prefix *da* is not used but other derivational inflections are used. Compare:

Eng: *the writing was good*

Kur: \*danusaka bash bu / nusrawaka bash bu

As for similarity in (ed) and (d1)The inflection (-d) or (-ed) is added to the verb stem for the regular formation of the past tense in English. Also, the inflections / -a, -i, -u, -t, -d / are added to the root to form the past tense.

Eng: *play --played*

Kur: *nus—nusi....write--wrote*

*kaw~kawt ...fall-- fell*

The past form (-d1) is simple in English because it doesn't show difference in number and person. Likewise, the past forms in Kurdish do not show variation in person and number in Kurdish, as in:

Eng: *I kicked the ball.*

Kur: *min kras-aka-m kr-i*

I bought the dress.

As for difference, the regular past (-d1) and past participle (-d2) are formed in the same formation demonstrating two different functions in English. There is syncretism between these two forms (See 3.4.5.1), but, the addition of the inflections

/-a, -i, -u, -t, -d / to the verb stem is to make the past only. The past and past participle are not the same in form except in (-u ) in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *She **laughed** at us.*

*She **has** laughed at us.*

Kur: *wast-- wasta --**wastaw***

*Stand—stood-- stood*

Both regular (-d1) and (d2) have the same set of phonologically conditioned allomorphs / t-d-id / in English (See 3.4.5.2), whereas the past inflections in Kurdish are themselves allomorphs: three vowels and two dental stops. Compare:

Eng: *looked /lukt/, stayed /steid /, ended /endid/*

Kur: *hena, fri, chu, xawt, xwend*

brought, flied, went, slept, studied

As for similarity (ed) and (d2).The construction of the regular past participle is close to the regular past formation in English as discussed above. The past participle in Kurdish is made by adding a inflection (u) to the past stem as in:

Eng: *carry\_**carried***

Kur: *kawt\_**kawtu***

Fall\_**have** fallen

The past participle is used as an adjective in English. Similarly, it is also used as an adjective which is symbolized as (-u) and as usually occurs postnominally in Kurdish. In both languages, the participle form is not inflected for comparative and superlative, as in:

Eng: *A **watched** kettle never boils.*

Kur: *khanw-a **sut-a-w-aka** rukh-a. (The burned house destroyed.)*

As for difference, The past participle is made by adding a inflection to the base form of the verb used in active and passive in English, whereas the construction of the past participle is performed by adding a inflection (-u) to the past stem that might be active and passive in voice. Compare:

Eng: *kick \_kick-ed* have kicked            have been kicked

Kur: *kush-t-u*            have killed            active voice

*kush-r-a-w*            have been killed            passive voice

The inflection (-d2) states a past participle aspect in relation with the auxiliary *have* preceding the inflection (d2) to form verbal phrases in English: present perfect and past perfect regardless of the type of the verb. The past participle is also used to form the present and past perfect, but the form is followed by the pronominal clitics of group A for agreement. The transitive verb has the substantive verb (-a) as an auxiliary following the clitics. The intransitive verb is followed by the clitics. Compare:

Eng: I have kicked the ball.

He has kicked the ball.

They had kicked the ball.

Kur: T: *khwardu-m-a*            I have eaten.

*khwardu-man-a*            we have eaten.

Int: *hatuyt*            you have come.

*hatuyn*            You have come.

Kur: T: *kirdibum*            I had done.

Int: *kawtibum*            I had fallen.

The past participle forms the passive with the auxiliary *be* in English, whereas the passive is expressed by the inflectional morpheme (-r) in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *The ball was kicked.*

Kur: *aw kushrawa*            (*He* has been killed.)

As for similarity (en), the irregular past participle has the same usage as the regular one. It is used with *have* to form verbal phrases in English (See 2.4.6.2). The same is true in Kurdish as in:

Eng: *She has broken the glass.*

Kur: *min kras-ek-im kr-i-w-a*

I have bought the dress.

As for difference, The construction of past participle is irregular in that either the past inflection or the past participle inflection is irregular. The inflection (-en) is added to the stem and the past form in English; while, the construction of the past participle takes from the past form in Kurdish as discussed above. Compare:

Eng: *show—showed--shown*

*Know—knew--known*

*Write--wrote written*

*Break—broke--broken*

*Do- did--done*

Kur: *kri--kriw* 'have bought'

If used as an adjective the (-en) form is limited to prenominal position in English, but the past participle is restricted to postnominal position in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *the broken door*

Kur: *darga shkawaka*

As for similarity (a) The inflected form (-a) in Kurdish and the copula *is* that denote the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present have the same semantic area like identity, role etc. Both have the function of a real state , as in:

Eng: *Winter is cold.*

Kur: *zistan sarda.*

As for difference, the inflection (-a) that follows a noun or an adjective predicate in Kurdish is a counterpart of the English verb '*to be*' in its copulative use. The copula has a inflected form (-a) in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular and realized as a *zero morph* when it is not the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular. It is the counterpart to the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present copula verb *is* which a free morpheme preceding the noun or an adjective in English. Compare:

Eng: *Roza is a girl.*

Kur: *roza kich-a.*

As for similarity (bi), the point of similarity, which is observed between the two languages is that the subjunctive forms are used in requests, hopes, wishes, desires, conditional etc. as in:

Eng: *I wish I had done.*

Kur: *khozga bi –m- kird –ib-aya.*

As for difference, the perfect subjunctive is formed by adding the inflection (-bi) to the past form in Kurdish, while it is made by modal auxiliaries that are free grammatical morphemes in English. Compare:

Kur: Root+ past inflection + bi + pronominal Cl

Eng: modal auxiliary + have + PP form of the base form

Transitive and intransitive verbs take different clitics in Kurdish as in:

Kur: T: *kird**ib**et* He might have done.

*kird**ib**tan* You might have done.

Int: *kaw**tib**im* I might have fallen.

*kaw**tib**in* We might have fallen.

As for similarity (ba), the same point of similarity discussed in is observed between the two languages. As for difference, the inflection (-ba) is added to the past stem to denote the near past subjunctive in Kurdish. It is made by a past form plus a particular form of the auxiliary verb **bun** plus a pronominal clitics, whereas, it is stated by auxiliaries in English. Compare:

Kur: T: *kird**ib**am* had I done

*kird**ib**amān* had we done

Int: *(bi) kaw**tib**ay(t)* had you fallen

*(bi) kaw**tib**ayin* had you fallen

As for similarity (aya), the same point of similarity discussed is found between the two languages. As for difference, the inflection (-aya) is added to denote the subjunctive mood in the past and past perfect. The morpheme (bi-) is prefixed to the past form plus the inflection (-aya) to form past conditional, whereas, mood is



expressed by auxiliaries as free grammatical morphemes and shows no distinction in transitivity in English, as in:

Kur: T: bi + pronominal Cl + past stem + **ba** + aya  
Int: bi + past stem + **ba** + pronominal Cl + aya  
T: *bi-m-kird-ib-aya* had I done  
Int: *(bi)-kawt-iba-m-aya* had I fallen

The past perfect subjunctive is made as follows:

Kur: T: bi + pronominal Cl + past stem + **bu** + aya  
Int: (bi) + past stem + **bu** + pronominal Cl + aya  
Kur: T: *bi-m-xward-ibw-aya*  
Eng: I would have eaten.  
Kur: Int: *hat-ibu-m-aya*  
Eng: I would have come

As for similarity (and), no similar points is observed regarding causative construction between the two languages. As for difference, Morphologically, a causative construction is derived from non-causative by means of inflections in Kurdish. The intransitive present stem is causativized by adding the inflection (-and) to yield the past form of the causative. On the contrary causativity is expressed lexically by free morphemes as *kill* 'cause to die' or by a derivational inflection (-en) as *widen* 'make wide' (Katamba, 1993) in English. Compare:

Eng: *He made the child defeat*  
Kur: *aw mindal-aka-y baz-and*

The inflected transitive verbs are cliticized to show agreement, as in:

Kur: *aw shkandi* He caused to break.  
*awan shkandyan* They caused to break.

The verb is also inflected with the transitive inflection (-en) to yield the present form of the causative in Kurdish. Conversely, it is stated lexically i.e. by free morphemes. Compare:

Kur: *shke* + *-en* = *shken* 'cause to break'

In the present all the verbs are cliticized with group B and C as in:

Kur: *da-yan-shk-en-im*

I make them break.

As for similarity (r), There is no point of similarity between both languages concerning the passivity. As for difference, Passive forms are morphologically derived from an active transitive verb of the present stem to which the passive inflection (-r) is combined plus the thematic vowel (-a) for the past tense and (-e) for the present which are grammatically conditioned in Kurdish, whereas passive formation is performed by the past participle form of the verb stem preceded by one form of the auxiliary *be* in English. Compare:

Kur: *kush* + *r* - *kush-r-e* = *da-kush-r-e* - *m*.

I am killed.

*kush-r-a* - = *kush-r- a-m*. (I was killed).

Eng: *be* + past participle

*The bag is stolen.*

*The bag was stolen.*

As for similarity (a), Formally, there is no point of similarity that is observed between the two languages. As for difference, three prepositions (*bo* 'for', to' *ba* 'to' and *la* 'at') related to verbs as inflections in Kurdish. Their counterpart verbal inflection is (a). On the contrary, prepositions are free grammatical morphemes without being modified into bound morphemes. Compare:

Eng: You came to Slemani.

Kur: *ewa hat-in bo Slemani.* *ewa hat-in-a Slemeni.*

### 4.4.3 Adjective Inflections in Contrast

Both languages have a three-term inflectional contrast: positive, comparative and superlative for adjectives. In English comparative and superlative adjectives are morphologically formed by adding inflections (-er) and (-est) to the end of the adjective stems. Similarly, it is accomplished in the same way by adding the inflections (-tir) and (-trin) in Kurdish. They are true inflectional morphemes in both languages because they lean on words rather than phrases as in:

Eng: *tall \_ taller \_ tallest*

Kur: *dresh \_ dreshtir \_ dreshtrin*

Both inflected comparative and superlative adjectives are not combined together in Kurdish. The same is true in English, as in:

Eng: \* *This flower is **nicerest**.*

Kur: \* *am gula **cwantiratrina***

Comparatives are often followed by *than* saying exactly what is compared by using a number of structures, which can be noun phrases or clauses in English. Similarly, Comparative is also followed by the postposition *la* in Kurdish as in:

Eng: an area ***bigger than*** Great Britain

Kur: *shanya **chwantira la*** hataw

Shanya is more beautiful than Hataw.

In both languages inflected comparative adjectives is modified by intensifiers, as in:

Eng: ***much** easier*

Kur: ***zor** asantir* (Much easier)

Comparative inflection is not possible when two descriptions are compared in both languages, as in:

Eng: \* *Vanya is **cleverer than** brave.*

Kur: \* *Vanya **ziraktira la** aza*

Inflected superlative adjectives is used on their own if it is obvious what is being compared in English. The same is applied in Kurdish as in:

Eng: *The sergeant was **the tallest**.*

Kur: *sewa **gawratrina*** (Sewa is the oldest.)

As for difference, in English, the morphological and phonological properties determine the formation of the comparative and superlative adjectives. The length of adjective plays a role in determining the use of (-er) and (est). On the contrary, the length of adjectives does not play a role in such formations in Kurdish. All descriptive adjectives allow (-tir) and (-trin). Compare:

Eng: *fast\_ **faster** **fastest***                      monosyllabic

*Simple\_ **simpler** **simplest***                      disyllabic

*Unhappy\_ **unhappier** **unhappiest***                      trisyllabic

Kur: *chwan \_ **chwantir** \_ **chwantrin***

*Beautiful \_ **more beautiful** \_ **most beautiful***

*nashirin \_ **nashirintir** \_ **nashirintrin***

*Ugly              uglier              ugliest*

The use of **than** is fixed in position which is after the inflected comparative form in English, whereas the position of its counterpart **la** can occur between the two compared structures followed by the comparative form in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *This book is **cheaper than** that book.*

Kur: *to **la min** **aza-tir-i**.* (You are braver than me.)

Inflected comparative adjectives are used as modifiers preceding the noun they modify in English. Conversely, they are used as attributes following the head noun they modify in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *The family is moved to a **smaller house**.*

Kur: ***kiteb-ek-i bash-tir*** (a better book)

Inflected comparative adjectives are formally followed by subjective pronouns but informally by an object pronoun in English, whereas subjective and objective pronouns are similar in form in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *I am older than he is (him).*

Kur: *min gwarantir-im la ?aw (law).*

Inflected superlative adjectives are preceded by *the* and used as modifiers in front of the noun in English, whereas inflected superlative adjectives are not preceded by any article but used as modifiers in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *the cleverest man*

Kur: *khoshtrin rosh* (the happiest day)

Adjectives share some grammatical categories of nouns such as definiteness, indefiniteness and number in Kurdish, whereas these categories are not characterized by adjectives in Kurdish. Compare:

Eng: *the good ones*

Eng: *the beautiful ones*

Kur: *chak-aka*

Kur: *chwan-an*

Eng: *a good one*

Eng: *the high ones*

Kur: *chak-ek*

Kur: *barz-ak-an*

#### 4.5.4. Pronouns

As for smiliarityt ,in English, there are pronouns which are used within the verbs and nouns according to person and number, as well as in Kurdish is the same as English such as

He plays/ they play

Brd – (man) (we took)

Brd- (m) ( I took)

In English, pronouns and possessive pronoun take part within the sentences, as well as in Kurdish is the same as English such as:

I read your book. (Ketibakati-m khendawa)

As for difference, In English, pronouns are used in front of the verb and nouns, while in Kurdish; they are used as inflection morpheme with verb, nouns and possessives such as:

Eng: My leg.

Kue: Qachi-m (my leg)

Brd-m (I took)

In Kurdish, pronouns cannot give a meaning alone and is bound morpheme, while in English pronouns are free morpheme and can stand alone to give meaning such as:

Brd---**m** -- .it cannot give meaning alone.

He goes ...**He**--- can give meaning alone.

In case of imperative, In English the verb is used alone, whereas in Kurdish the imperative should be added the pronoun at the end of the verb such as:

Danish\_**n** (sit you all)

Sit .....

In Kurdish, pronouns are used to mix with the verbs and nouns and don't reveal alone , whereas in English pronouns are separate and reveal alone such as:

Eng: I sat on the sofa

Kur: Danishti--**m**

## Results

In the light of what we have noticed in this chapter, we can get the following result. The inflectional morphemes have a great role in both contrasted languages to show the agreement within the structure of the sentence and even words as individual words. We have observed some properties between them, which are similar in putting the inflection, but some properties are definitely different. There are some inflections in Kurdish, which are not available in English. Some inflections function as original inflection in Kurdish, whereas in English are not found. There are some inflections different in positions and functions in both languages. As for **noun**, they are similar points and functions but also have different spelling form. In addition, in terms of **possessive**, in Kurdish, the noun and verbs are used to show possessiveness, while in English it attaches to noun only. **Verbs** are inflected for person, number and tense to show agreement with subject, while in English it is different, though they have similarity in some points. As for **adjectives**, both have functions for inflections but have different position and also in English language it depends on the length of words but in Kurdish it does not. As for **pronoun** in Kurdish is used as bound morphemes and have influence on verbs according to transitive and intransitive and they are original inflections, while in English they are different coming before noun and verb which has different function and position.

## Conclusions

In the light of the previous analysis, a number of conclusions can be shown below and according to the results; we have reached at the following conclusions. In terms of the morphology and its other types, we have noticed that there is no difference between the two languages since Kurdish languages has been built and taken the concept of morphology from English as a basis to creating its languages. But as for inflectional morpheme, we have concluded at some points that Kurdish language has its own characteristic in applying its languages and scholars looked for the way to developing their language. Thus, we sum up some following points concerning the inflectional morphemes in both contrasted languages as illustrated below; we have observed the following similarities:

1. Both languages are inflected for a number. In English, the plural is as original inflectional morpheme but in Kurdish is not original inflection. It is a semi-clitic.
2. Both languages have inflection that refer to possession. In English the possession ('s) is regarded as clitic and in Kurdish is as semi-clitic.
3. Both English and Kurdish have comparative and superlative inflection for adjective. Both are true inflections.
4. Both languages are inflected for number in pronouns .In Kurdish, pronouns are used with nouns, verbs and possession as inflectional morpheme and is original inflectional morpheme ,whereas in English ,pronouns aren't used as inflection morpheme and are used only with a noun and a verb separately.

On the other hand, we have found the following differences:

1. The concept of morphemes in general are the same in terms of definition ,its types and inflection as well because the Kurdish language takes it from English and the basis of morphology in Kurdish is built by depending on English. Therefore, we noticed that there is a difference in terms of concepts.
2. In Kurdish, nouns have inflection for definiteness, indefiniteness and vocative, i.e they are expressed by bound morpheme or other expression. It is concluded that the



definite is not a true inflection morpheme, while the indefinite morpheme is a true inflectional morpheme.

3. Verbs are inflected for tense and aspect in English, but they are inflected for tense, aspect and mood in Kurdish.

4. The verb (To Be) in English is a free morpheme but it is a bound morpheme in Kurdish as the present morpheme ( a) and the morpheme (ba) in the near subjunctive mood.

5. Verbs are inflected for transitivity and passivity in Kurdish, but in English, there are not particular morphemes for inflectional properties.

6. Prepositions are always free morpheme in English, but they can be bound morpheme attached to verbs in Kurdish

7. Adjectives are inflected for number, definiteness and indefiniteness but these categories are not characterized by adjective in Kurdish.

8. Inflectional morpheme makes the structure closed of the word in English, but they are not closed the structure of the word in Kurdish.

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**Appendix 1.** The list of the English examples.

<i>Cat</i>	<i>cats</i>
<i>Fox</i>	<i>foxes</i>
<i>book</i>	<i>books</i>
<i>bigger dogs</i>	
Workers and farmers	
<i>three nights</i>	
<i>The boys sleep</i>	
Read	
<i>John's hat</i>	
Play	
<i>Jane's book</i>	
<i>Helen and Tim's apartment</i>	
He plays	
<b>my</b> eye	
<i>colleague--colleague's</i>	
<i>Dickens-- Dickens'</i>	
<i>Mary's dress</i>	
my goods' books	
<b>John's</b> car	
<i>thedoctor's surgery</i>	
<i>a week's holiday</i>	
<i>the car's engine</i>	
<i>the child's toy</i>	
<i>the car's design</i>	
<i>a girl's story</i>	
Peter's eyes	
<i>thegirl's apartment</i>	
<i>Hey! Girl</i>	
<b>the</b> girl	
<b>the</b> girls	
<b>*the</b> beautiful	
<i>this boy</i>	
<b>A</b> book // an apple	
<b>Early</b>	
<b>*a</b> beautiful	

<i>Reading</i>
<i>They <b>are</b> sleeping</i>
I was writing, too.
<i>Play</i>
<i>kicked</i>
<i><b>laughed</b></i>
<i>carried</i>
<i>The ball was <b>kicked</b>.</i>
show
Know
Write
<i>Break</i>
Do
<i>the broken door</i>
<i>Winter is cold.</i>
<i>Roza <b>is</b> a girl</i>
<i>I wish I had done.</i>
<i>He made the child defeat</i>
I make them break.
<i>The bag <b>is stolen</b>.</i>
<i>The bag <b>was stolen</b>.</i>
You came to Slemani.
<i>Tall-taller-tallest</i>
This flower is nicerest.
than
much
the tallest.
<i>fast</i>
<i>Simple</i>
<i>Unhappy</i>
cheaper than
<i>Smaller house.</i>
<i>the cleverest man</i>
<i>He concentrated <b>harder than</b> ever.</i>

**Appendix 2.** The list of the Kurdish examples translated in English language

<b>Kurdish words</b>	<b>Transated words</b>
<i>Kur - kuran</i>	Boy - boys
<i>khwendkar-an-i zirak</i>	Clever students
<i>darga-k-ani shur-ak-an</i>	The doors of the rooms
<i>krekar u chutiyar-an</i>	Workers and farmers
<i>se shaw</i>	Three nights
<i>kur-ak-an nust-in</i>	<i>The boys sleep</i>
<i>qachim</i>	My leg
<i>Daftar u kitebakan-im</i>	My copybooks and books
<i>qach-it</i>	your leg
<i>chaw – chaw-im</i>	My eyes
<i>dayk-it</i>	Your mother
<i>qalam-aka-y</i>	His pen
<i>kur-im, kur-aka-m</i>	My son
<i>dastim</i>	My hand
<i>Kiteba chak-ak-an-im</i>	my good books
<i>kur-aka-y</i>	His son
<i>biram</i>	My brother
<i>kras-i kichaka</i>	The girl's dress
<i>chiya-k-an-i Kurdistan</i>	The mountains of Kurdistan
<i>ewayak-i dilsoz</i>	Your loyal
<i>kur-i piyawek</i>	Son of a man
<i>kura pasha</i>	king's son
<i>kicha kurdek</i>	a Kurdish girl
<i>kiche</i>	Hey, girl
<i>bawka</i>	Hey ,father
<i>mnal-aka</i>	The kid
<i>kich-ak-an</i>	The girls
<i>chwanaka</i>	<i>the beautiful one</i>
<i>aw kura</i>	This boy
<i>qalamek</i>	A pen
<i>chwan-ek.</i>	<i>.(a beautiful one )</i>
<i>Aw nan dakhwa(t)</i>	He eats bread
<i>aw danue(t)</i>	She sleeps

<i>nusi</i>	Wrote
<i>Kaw - kawt</i>	fall-- fell
<i>kr-i</i>	bought
<i>wasta</i>	Stood
<i>khwar-d-ish-im</i>	I ate too
<i>kawtu</i>	Have fallen
<i>aw kushrawa</i>	He has been killed.
<i>darga shkawaka</i>	<i>The broken door</i>
<i>zistan sarda.</i>	<i>Winter is cold</i>
<i>roza kich-a.</i>	<i>Roza is a girl.</i>
<i>khozga bi –m- kird –ib-aya.</i>	<i>I wish I had done.</i>
<i>kirdibet</i>	Done
<i>aw mindal-aka-y baz-and</i>	<i>He made the child defeat</i>
<i>da-yan-shk-en-im</i>	I make them break.
<b>da</b> -kush-r-e- m.	I am killed
kush-r- <b>a</b> -m.	I was killed
<i>ewa hat-in bo Slemani</i>	You came to Slemani.
<i>Dresh-dreshtir_ dreshtrin</i>	Tall- taller - tallest
<i>am gula cwantiratrina</i>	<i>This flower is <b>nicerest</b></i>
La	Than
Zor	Much
<i>gawratrina</i>	The tallest
<i>chwan</i>	beautiful
<i>nashirin</i>	ugly
to la min	You than me
<i>kiteb-ek-i bash-tir</i>	a better book
<i>khoshtrin rosh</i>	the happiest day
<i>aw <b>zutir</b> hat <b>la</b> gashaw.</i>	He came earlier than Gashaw
<i>bo-sh-it da-kir-im</i>	I buy for you, too.
Brd – (man)	We took
<i>khendawa.</i>	read
Danisht-- <b>im</b>	I sit