A STUDY OF THE GENITIVE CASE
OF ENGLISH NOUNS

A Thesis
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Teachers' Training Institute

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By

Mariana Pranoto
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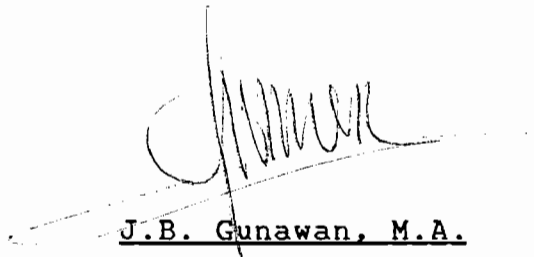YOGYAKARTA
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Approved by:

Drs. A. Aryanto, M.A.

Major Sponsor

J.B. Gunawan, M.A.

Sponsor

IKIP Sanata Dharma

Drs. F. Danuwinata, S.J.   . Soepomo Poedjosoedarmo

Rector   Head of English Department

One is never too old to learn.

L.G. Alexander

Hope is a looking forward to

something with an earnest belief.

Often it means an expectancy of

light when one is still in darkness ....

Life takes new strength and meaning

when there is hope ....

Esther Baldwin York

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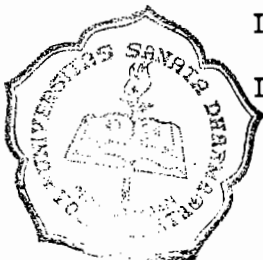Finally, I would express my gratitude to all my friends who have helped me finish my thesis, in particular Father Helio Herman OFM, cap and Fransiska Maria W. who have lent me books, magazines and novels; M. Immaculata A.B. and Susi for their constant attention.

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THE TABLE OF CONTENTS

viii

THE TABLE OF FIGURES

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

People who want to be able to play chess must know the rules of playing it. Similarly, learners who want to to be able to use a foreign language correctly and appropriately have to master, among other things, the grammar of the language. Besides the grammar, the vocabulary and pronunciation must also be learnt. Those three elements of language: grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, are the bases of language skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing. In addition, the learners need to acquire the patterns of sociolinguistic behaviour of the language in order that they are able to use the language appropriately.

In Indonesia, English is taught in schools as the first foreign language. Indonesian students, therefore, have to learn English grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and patterns of sociolinguistic behaviour so that they are able to use English correctly and appropriately in real activities, namely, listening, reading, speaking and writing.

English grammar consists of a great deal of items. One of the grammatical items is the genitive case. As a

learner of English, I personally desire to make a study about the genitive case of English nouns.

I.1. The Background of Study

In English there are various ways to express possession (Hornby, 1975:151,152). Some of those ways are using certain verbs like have (or more colloquially have got), belong, own or possess; using nouns such as owner, possession or possessor; using possessive pronouns; using possessive adjectives; or using nouns in the genitive case.

> She has a lovely dress.
>
> He is the owner of these houses.
>
> That book is hers
>
> That is my dog.
>
> Susan's sister is very beautiful.

From my own experience, I can say that the genitive case of English nouns as one of the various ways to express possession has never been specially and deeply discussed in class. As a result, I, and probably my peers, have not understood this grammatical point well despite ten years of studying English in Junior and Senior High Schools and at the English Department of IKIP Sanata Dharma. This fact makes me interested in making a further study of it.

In fact, it is not easy to understand the whole system of the genitive case. Learners of English still find some difficulties concerning the forms of the genitive case of English nouns. For example, when they want to form the genitive case of the compound noun son-in-law, they are confused where they have to add the apostrophe plus s: after the word son or after law. Besides, they also find two different forms of the genitive case of a noun, for instance, Jones' and Jones's. They want to know which form is correct.

The understanding of the forms of the genitive case, however, does not guarantee that the learners will have no problem. A more difficult problem arises because of the meaning of the genitive. Mostly, the learners of English think, or they are taught, that the genitive is only used to express one meaning, namely, possession because genitive case can also be called possessive case. Having such understanding, they are confused with the meanings of genitive structures like Caesar's murder, my uncle's arrival. They ask themselves, "Do the structures really mean Caesar owns murder and my uncle possesses arrival?" Then they come to the idea that the genitive case expresses other meanings than 'possession'. Unfortunately, it is very hard to define the meanings (Christophersen and Sandved, 1974:35).

The following problem is caused by the fact that there are two other structures of nouns besides the genitive structure. One of them consists of two nouns in their common case.

the Leacock study.

dog food.

the table legs.

The other structure is made up of one noun in the common case followed by another noun in a prepositional phrase.

the book of Job.

the letter from the general.

the legs of the table.

the husbands of my aunts.

Sometimes the same nouns, however, can also be put in the genitive structure.

Leacock's study.

the dog's food.

Job's book.

the general's letter

my aunts' husbands.

Those three structures confuse the learners of English. They want to know how they differ from one another and if the genitive structure can always be replaced by the other two ones. However, the exact details of the use of those three structures are rather complicated (Swan, 1981:421).

All of the problems above make me eager to steep myself in the genitive case of English nouns. I realize that it is not easy for me to do this. Yet, my conviction that the mastery of the genitive case will help me understand English better urges me to do my best.

In The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, William Morris wrote that a case is "a pattern of inflection of nouns, pronouns and adjectives to express different syntactic functions in a sentence", and that genitive, from Latin genitīvus, means "of, pertaining to, or designating a case that expresses possession, measurement, or source" (Morris, 1976:208,549,550). Although genitive case can also be called possessive case, I prefer to use the former term since the word possessive does not represent all meanings of the case.

Furthermore, I use two specific terms, namely, the structure of prepositional phrase postmodification and the structure of noun premodification. Some grammarians like George O. Curme (1966:125), A.S. Hornby (1975:153), Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Startvik (1972:194) call the structure like the book of Job and the legs of the table the of-genitive. The last four experts also name it the periphrastic genitive. On the other hand, some other grammarians do not regard

this structure as genitive case. I personally agree with these grammarians for such a structure is not an inflection, but a structure of postmodification. John M. Kierzek, for example, calls it the _of_-phrase (1947:280), Michael Swan the _of_-structure (1981:422), Paul Christophersen and Arthur O. Sandved the _of_-construction (1974:34). The last two state further that sometimes other prepositional constructions can replace the genitive, for instance, _the letter from the general_. For this reason, I use the term the structure of prepositional phrase postmodification in this thesis. Then, this term leads me to name the structure like _the Leacock study_ and _dog food_ the structure of noun premodification.

I.2. The Aim of Study

The aim of this study is to understand the whole system of the genitive case of modern English nouns, especially in the point of view of forms, meanings, usages and functions. These are the things that I think need more clarification.

I.3. The Scope of Study

This thesis will cover the discussions on the following questions:

1. How is the formation of the genitive case of nouns?

2. What is meant by the group genitive?

3. What are the various meanings of the genitive?

4. What types of nouns can have genitive forms?

5. How are the genitive nouns used?

6. In what cases can the genitive structure be replaced by the structure of prepositional phrase postmodification or by the structure of noun premodification?

7. If the replacements change the meanings, how are the meanings different?

8. If the replacements do not change the meanings, which structure is more common?

9. What are the reasons for its being more common?

10. What are meant by the elliptic, the local and the double genitives?

11. What are the functions of the genitive nouns?

I know that there is the genitive case of English pronouns; however, I do not talk about it in this thesis. I limit my study in the genitive case of English nouns since I consider that discussing something specific deeply is better than discussing something broad superficially. For the same reason, I research the replacements of structure only from the point of view of the genitive.

I.4. The Hypotheses of Study

I put forward the following hypotheses as the
starting point of my reasoning and explanation. First,
there must be rules to form the genitive case of English
nouns since some nouns form their genitive by adding
apostrophe plus s, but some others take apostrophe only.
Second, the genitive case does not only convey the
meaning of 'possession', but also expresses other
meanings. A genitive structure G'(s) H does not always
mean G possesses H. Third, some types of nouns can take
the genitive inflections, but some others cannot.
Fourth, the genitive structure may sometimes be replaced
by the structure of prepositional phrase
postmodification or by the structure of noun
premodification. Finally, a genitive noun appears in a
noun phrase or in a sentence; therefore, the noun must
have a certain function.

I.5. The Methodology of Study

In order to collect data, I have made a library
research. I read a lot of grammar books, for examples,
A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language and A
Grammar of Contemporary English by Randolph Quirk,
Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik,
Practical English Usage by Michael Swan, Guide to
Patterns and Usage in English by A.S. Hornby, English

Grammar by George O. Curme and _An Advanced English Grammar_ by Paul Christophersen and Arthur O. Sandved. Besides, I also consulted some dictionaries such as _Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English_ by A.S. Hornby, _A Dictionary of American Idioms_ by Maxine Tull Boatner and John Edward Gates, and _Dictionary of American Grammar_ by Roberts C. Whitford and James R. Foster. This consultation was done for the sake of the information about genitive meanings. Furthermore, I tried to find data, especially concerning the use of genitive, by reading some stories, magazines, newspapers, novels, poems and scientific books. Here are some of the sources: _The Most Dangerous Games_ - a short story by Richard Connel; the magazines _Dialogue, Reader's Digest, Time, National Geographic Magazine; Ethan Frome_ - a novel by Edith Wharton; _The Jakarta Post_ newspaper; _Look to This Day!_ - a collection of poems; and _Direct Use of the Sun's Energy_ by Farrington Daniels.

Having collected the data, I implemented the analytical technique to divide the already obtained data into components, sub-components, and so on. The data was analyzed in terms of forms, meanings, usages and functions. Then each of them was classified again and again into smaller sections.

Furthermore, I drew some conclusions from my analysis and made some suggestions dealing with the teaching of the genitive case based on the study I have done. I finally wrote everything I have done in this thesis.

I.6. <u>The Plan of Presentation</u>

This thesis consists of six chapters. It begins with an introduction in chapter I. In the introduction I give the background of my studying the genitive case of English nouns, the aim of the study, the scope of what I will discuss, the hypotheses that I will prove through the research, the methodology of this study, and my plan to present this thesis.

Chapter II then will discuss about the forms of the genitive case of English nouns. This chapter has four sections, namely, the formation of the genitive noun, the rules to form the genitive inflections, the rules to pronounce the genitive inflections and the group genitive. I present the form first because it is the simplest part of the system of the genitive case. People who want to learn the system should take the form as their starting point.

Next, chapter III will deal with the meanings of the genitive case of English nouns. I will clarify the difference between the specifying and the classifying

genitives, the meanings of the specifying genitives, the meanings of the classifying genitives and the degree of arbitrariness of the semantic classification of the genitive. The understanding of each meaning of the genitive is very significant for people who study this case.

Furthermore, the discussion on the usage of the genitive case of English nouns will be in chapter IV. I will explain the type of noun acting as a genitor, the type of noun acting as a headword, how a noun in the genitive case is used and the use of the genitive case in daily use. By studying the usage, people will be able to use the case correctly and appropriately. They are not just able to know the genitive forms and to understand the meanings that the forms express.

In addition, chapter V will be about the functions of the genitive nouns. I will point out every possible function; namely, as a determinative, as a modifier, as a prepositional complement, as a subject, as a subject complement, and as an object. The understanding of the functions will complete the mastery of the genitive case of English nouns.

Finally, a conclusion of what I have discussed in the previous chapters and some suggestions concerning the teaching of the genitive case of English nouns will end this thesis. Hopefully, the suggested points will be

useful for teachers of English and the results of my study can also contribute to the deeper mastery of any learner of English, especially one of high or university level.

Chapter II

THE FORMS OF THE GENITIVE CASE

This chapter discusses the forms of the genitive
case of English nouns. I divide this chapter into four
sections, first, the formation of the genitive case;
second, the rules to form the genitive inflection;
third, the rules to pronounce the genitive inflections;
and fourth, the group genitive.

II.1. <u>The Formation of the Genitive Case</u>

The genitive case is made up of a genitor and its
genitive inflection. "The genitor is the form before the
apostrophe, and the genitive inflection is the following
<u>'s</u> or <u>'</u>" (Crowell, 1964:26). Since we deal with the
genitive case of nouns, the genitor here is a noun. The
noun can be singular, regular plural or irregular
plural. In speech the genitive inflection is manifested
in one of the four possible forms: [s], [z], [ɪz], or
[φ].

Examples:

	Written		Spoken		
Singular	cat + 's --> cat's	[kæt]	+[s]	-->[kæts]
	child+ 's --> child's	[tʃaɪld]+[z]	-->[tʃaɪldz]
	Ross + 's --> Ross's	[rɒs]	+[ɪz]	-->[ˈrɒsɪz]

Xerxes+ ' -->Xerxes' ['zɜ:ksi:z]+[ɸ]-->['zɜ:ksi:z]

Regular   cats + ' -->cats'   [kæts]   +[ɸ]-->[kæts]
 Plural
           boys + ' -->boys'   [bɔɪz]   +[ɸ]-->[bɔɪz]

Irregular children + 's -->children's ['tʃɪdrən]+[z]-->['tʃɪldrənz]
 Plural
           geese   + 's -->geese's   [gi:s]   +[ɪz]-->['gi:sɪz]

II.2. The Rules to Form the Genitive Inflections

In making the genitive case of a noun, we have to choose between apostrophe only, ', and apostrophe plus s, 's. The choice of the genitive inflextion follows some rules.

II.2.1. Apostrophe: '

We add this written form to the succeeding genitors.

II.2.1.1. The genitor is a regular plural noun.

boys'   days'   minutes'   PMs'   Smiths'

cats'   dogs'   parents'   Joneses' thieves'

Note: Plural nouns like thieves and wives are irregular in some degree. However, in the discussion about the genitive case, they tend to be included in the regular plural instead of in the totally irregular (Kenyon and Knot, 1953:478; Jespersen, 1976:138). Henceforth, I do the same thing.

II.2.1.2. A singular noun ending in a sibilant that constitutes an older, foreign and classical name, especially that of more than one syllable, normally takes an apostrophe without s. Most of the names are ancient Greek and Roman (Swan, 1981:261; Zandvoort, 1980:96). Some of the names are the following:

Oedipus'	Democritus'
Socrates'	Archimedes'
Xerxes'	Menelaus'
Epicurus'	Theognis'
Achilles'	Lucretius'
Aeneas'	Barnabas'
Catullus'	Anaxagoras'
Euripides'	

II.2.1.3. An apostrophe is also added to a sibilant - ended singular noun that is in the expression for ... sake or is followed by a word beginning with an [s] (Rijneke, 1949:74).

for	acquaintance'	sake
	conscience'	Pears' soap
	goodness'	Louise' sister
	peace'	

There are different opinions about the rule of adding ' to a sibilant - ended singular noun in the fixed expression for ... sake. According to Quirk et al,

this rule only holds for [s] - ended nouns (1985:321].
On the other hands, many grammarians such as P.
Christophersen, A.O. Sandved (1974:30) and E. Schaap
(1955:15) state the apostrophe is also used for nouns
which end in sibilants other than [s]. As we know, there
are still five hissing sounds in English besides [s],
namely [z,ʃ, ʒ ,tʃ,dʒ]. I think the latter opinion is
more complete because we can put a singular noun ending
in any sibilant in such an expression. We can look at
the example below.

```
for ¦ Adams'  ¦ sake
    ¦         ¦
    ¦ George' ¦
```

II.2.1.4. The last genitor is a singular noun the ending
          of which is [z], but it neither belongs to the
          group of II.2.1.2. nor is included in the
          group of II.2.1.3. These are some of them.

Adams'	Hopkins'
Andrews'	James'
Barnes'	Jones'
Charles'	Miles'
Collins'	Mills'
Denise'	Myers'
Dickens'	Perkins'
Evans'	Peters'
Giles'	Sanders'
Hawkins'	Simmons'

        Hayes'   Stevens'

        Holmes'   Woods'

The   members of this group may also take   an   apostrophe

with s̲ as a variant (Let us see II.2.2.4.)   Nevertheles

the form of inflection ' is more common (Quirk, et   al.,

1972:197).

        There is uncertainty concerning the modern   names

like those above as well as other singulars ending in an

s̲. Some grammarians like A.J. Thomson, A.V. Martinet

(1983:12), Thomas Lee Crowell (1964:28) and Marcella

Frank (1972:14) base the choice of the inflection on the

last letter of the genitor instead of its last sound.

They state that singular nouns ending in an s̲ including

personal family names and other proper nouns may employ

either ' or 's. This statement causes troubles. There

are many singulars that do not end in the letter s̲, but

have a sibilant ending sound. Meanwhile, singulars

ending in the letter s̲ do not always take one certain

sibilant ending sound. In brief, they overlap. We may

observe the examples below.

        Denise   :   :
                    :   :
        Li̲z̲ .   : <----- [z] ----> : Adams̲
                    :   :
        Louise .   :   : Charles̲
                    :   :
        Rose   :   :

```
Bruce          :               : Agnes     Iris
               :               :
Felix          :               : Boris     Lewis
               :               :
Fox            :               : Denis     Louis
               :               :
·niece         : <----- [s] -----> : Douglas   Mavis
               :               :
               :               : Francis   Nicholas
               :               :
               :               : Gladys    Thomas
```

It will be difficult then to determine the rules   to pronounce   their genitive inflection. All in all, Quirk and friends' guide that departs from the last sound of the genitor is more systematic.

II.2.2. Apostrophe plus s: 's

The second written form, namely ,'s is for genitors of the following types.

II.2.2.1. First, the genitor is a totally irregular plural noun. As a matter of fact, there is only a limited number of totally irregular plurals in English.

Examples:

children's	lice's
dice's	men's
dormice's	mice's
geese's	women's

In this thesis, I use the term irregular plural instead of totally irregular plurals.

II.2.2.2. Besides, an apostrophe with s̲ is added to a singular noun that does not end in a sibilant. Examples:

boy's	Mary's
cat's	moment's
China's	tiger's
brain's	today's
Europe's	IBM's
freedom's	NSC's

(Time, July 1987: 1,22)

John's	MP's
lion's	PM's
	VIP's

(Thomson and Martinet, 1983:12)

The singular noun of this class might be in the form of an acronym, that is to say, a word which is formed from the initial letters of words that compose a name (Hornby, 1981:9).

> MP = Member of Parliament, Military Police
>
> PM = Prime Minister
>
> VIP = Very Important Person

Some acronyms are pronounced as sequences of letters, for example, PM [ˈpiːem]; some others as a word, for instance, NATO [ˈneɪtəʊ] (Quirk, et al., 1985:1582)

II.2.2.3. Moreover, some singular ancient names ending in sibilants sometimes take this form of genitive inflection. (Let us compare the type

of genitors to that in II.2.1.2.). R.W.
Zandvoort in his book A Handbook of English
Grammar declares that,". Some writers prefer
the full form of the genitive of classical
names not ending in [i:z] ... " (1980:96), and
then presents two instances.

Aeneas's   Catullus's

[i(:)'ni:æs]   [kə'tʌləs]

Whereas, Quirk et al express so succintly that
Greek names of more than one syllable use an apostrophe
only (1972:195,196). Thus, they imply that one-syllabled
Greek names employ an apostrophe plus s.

Zeus's

II.2.2.4. In addition, the genitor is an [z] - ended
singular, but it is not a sibilant - ended
ancient name, not one in the fixed expression
for ... sake, nor one followed by a word
beginning with an [s]. This type of genitive
is a less common variant of that in II.2.1.4.

Adams's   Hopkin's

Andrews's   James's

Barner's   Jones's

Charles's   Miles's

Collins's   Mills's

Denise's   Myers's

Dickens's   Perkin's

Evans's	Peters's
Giles's	Sanders's
Hawkins's	Simmons's
Hayes's	Stevens's
Holmes's	Woods's

II.2.2.5. Finally, an apostrophe plus s comes after singulars ending in [s,ʃ,ʒ, tʃ,dʒ]; however, the singulars are not sibilant - ended ancient names , not in the fixed expression for ... sake, nor folllowed by a word beginning with an [s]. Here are some of them.

Agnes's	Julius's
Augustus's	Keats's
Carlos's	Lois's
Davis's	Lucas's
Elis's	lioness's
Ellice's	Marx's
Francis's	Morris's
George's	niece's
Harris's	Phillips's
Hicks's	Ross's
bitch's	science's
church's	Thomas's
goose's	tigress's
horse's	Willis's

In short, we can say that some groups of genitors take an apostrophe with s̲, some others an apostrophe without s̲, and one group of genitors an apostrophe with or without s̲. In some cases, we find that the rule to choose one between two genitive inflections is still uncertain.

II.3. The Rules to Pronounce the Genitive Inflections

The genitive inflection 's is pronounced according to the rules of the pronunciation of the -s inflection of verbs and plural nouns; in contrast, the other inflection ' is not realized. It means that in speech the apostrophe with s̲ takes one of the forms [s], [z], or [ɪ z] depending on the ending sound of the genitor. Whereas, the pronunciation of the genitor that is followed by an apostrophe without s̲ does not change. Consequently, there are four genitive forms in speech: [s], [z], [ɪz] and [ɸ]

II.3.1. The First Spoken Form: [s]

This form is for genitors with 's that end in other voiceless consonants than [s, ʃ , tʃ]. These genitors are almost always singular nouns and seldom irregular plural ones.

II.3.1.1. The genitor is a singular noun ending in [p,t,k,f,θ,h].

Examples:

    [p] : Europe's   ['juərəps]

           ship's   [ʃɪps]

    [t] : cat's   [kæts]

           moment's   ['məʊmənts]

    [k] : Jack's   [dʒæks]

           strike's   [straɪks]

    [f] : thief's   [θi:fs]

           life's   [laɪfs]

    [θ] : Smith's   [smɪθs]

           earth's   [3:θs]

    [h] : Endah's

           Roh's   (Time, July 1987:7)

Note:

" ... English [h] occurs only in syllable initial, prevocalic positions ... " (Indriani, __:38). That is why I present Indonesian and Korean names as examples (Roh Tae Woo is the former General of South Korea) with the annotation that the names are uttered by Indonesian people.

II.3.1.2. The genitor is an irregular plural noun the ending of which is one of the voiceless sounds [p,t,k,f,θ,h]

    [p] :   sheep's   [ʃi:ps]

II.3.2. The Second Spoken Form: [z]

[z] is the pronunciation of the apostrophe with s of the genitors ending in vowels or voiced consonants [b,d,g,v,ð,m,n, ŋ ,l,r,w,j]. In her book English Pronunciation, M.I. Indriani Arief describes that in English there are twelve cardinal vowels [i:,ɪ,e,æ ,ɜ:, ə ,ɑ:,ʌ , u:,ʊ,ɔ:,ɒ] and nine diphthongs or gliding vowels [aɪ , eɪ,ɔɪ, ɪə ,ʊə,ɛə,ɔə, ɑʊ ,əʊ] (Indriani,-: 9,13,14). Like the previous category, most of the genitors are singular, and only a few are irregular plural.

II.3.2.1. The genitor is singular
Examples:

[b] : club's   [klʌbz]   [i:] : VIP's ['vi:aɪ'pi:z]

[d] : world's   [wɜ:ldz]   [ɪ] : party's ['pa:tɪz]

[g] : dog's   [dɒgz]   [ə] : Laura's ['lɔ:rəz]

[v] : love's   [lʌvz]   [aɪ] : spy's [spaɪz]

[m] : PM's   ['pi:emz]   [eɪ] : day's [deɪz]

[n] : lion's   [laɪənz]   [ɔɪ] : boy's [bɔɪz]

[ŋ] : Bing's   [bɪŋz]   [ɪə] : year's [jɪəz]

[l] : novel's   ['nɒvəlz]   [əʊ] : Leo's ['li:əʊz]

II.3.2.2. The genitor is irregular plural
Examples:

[n] : children's   ['tʃɪldrənz]

men's   [menz]

women's   ['wɪmɪnz]

II.3.3. The Third Spoken Form: [ɪz]

The apostrophe plus s after sibilant - ended irregular plurals and two classes of sibilant - ended singulars is uttered [ɪz].

II.3.3.1. The genitor is a sibilant - ended irregular - plural

Quirk et al do not separate irregular plural nouns ending in sibilants from those not ending in sibilants in their figure concerning the forms of the genitive inflections (1972:196; 1985:320). As a matter of fact, those two types of irregular plurals take different spoken forms. For this reason, it is necessary, I think, to distinguish them from each other in spite of their very limited number.

I get some data from Kenyon and Knott's A Pronouncing Dictionary of American English (1953:126,134,181,254,278), Zandvoort's A Handbook of English Grammar (1980:110), and Curme's English Grammar (1953:124). Here they are.

	American English	British English
dice's	[ˈdaɪsɪz]	[ˈdaɪsɪz]
dormice's	[ˈdɔrˌmaɪsɪz]	[ˈdɔːmaɪsɪz]
geese's	[ˈgisɪz]	[ˈgiːsɪz]
lice's	[ˈlaɪsɪz]	[ˈlaɪsɪz]
mice's	[ˈmaɪsɪz]	[ˈmaɪsɪz]

The data are not contrary to the opinion of Quirk et al. They state that higher animals normally take the -s genitive (1972:198,199). The higher animals are, among others, dog, lion, goose (1972:191).

II.3.3.2. The genitor is a singular noun the ending of which is one of the following five sibilants [s, ʃ ,ʒ, tʃ ,dʒ]; however, the noun is not in the fixed expression <u>for ... sake</u>, not followed by a word beginning with an [s], nor a sibilant - ended ancient name in general. Genitors of this type are discussed in II.2.2.3 as the exceptions of ancient names and in II.2.2.5.

Examples:

[dʒ]	: George's	[ˈdʒɔ:dʒɪz]
[tʃ]	: bitch's	[ˈbɪtʃɪz]
	church's	[ˈtʃɜ:tʃɪz]
[s]	: Zeus's	[ˈzju:sɪz]
	Aeneas's	[i(:)ˈni : æsɪz]
	Catullus's	[kəˈtʌləsɪz]
	Agnes's	[ˈægnɪsɪz]
	Harris's	[ˈhærɪsɪz]
	Lucas's	[ˈlu:kəsɪz]
	Marx's	[ˈma:ksɪz]
	Ross's	[ˈrɒsɪz]
	Thomas's	[ˈtɒməsɪz]

goose's	['guːsɪz]
lioness's	['laɪnɪsɪz]
tigress's	['taɪgrɪsɪz]

II.3.3.3. The genitor is an [z] - ended singular noun, but not an ancient name, not one in the fixed expression for ... sake, nor one followed by a word beginning with an [s]. Some examples are:

Adams's	['ædəmzɪz]
Andrews's	['ændruːzɪz]
Charles's	['tʃaːlzɪz]
Collins's	['kɒlɪnzɪz]
Dickens's	['dɪkɪnzɪz]
James's	['dʒeɪmzɪz]
Jones's	['dʒəʊnzɪz]
Sanders's	['sɑːndəzɪz]

The [ɪz] form here is a more common variant of the zero form in II.3.4.4. Let us review II.2.1.4 and II.2.2.4. The normal written form of the genitive inflection of such genitors is apostrophe plus s. Even so, the normal spoken form appears to be [ɪz] (Quirk, et al., 1972:197)

Written Forms	Spoken Forms
Adams' (Adams's)	[('ædəmz) 'ædəmzɪz]
Dickens' (Dickens's)	[('dɪkɪnz) 'dɪkɪnzɪz]
Jones' (Jones's)	[(dʒəʊnz) 'dʒəʊnzɪz]

Note: The forms in parentheses are minority

II.3.4. The Fourth Spoken Form:[ɸ]

Regular plural nouns and the rest of the singular nouns, which take an apostrophe in writing, have nothing in speech. In other words, the pronunciation of their common case is the same as that of their genitive case. Such nouns use none of the three spoken forms of the genitive inflections [s], [z] and [z]. Quirk et al name the absence of the spoken form <u>the zero genitive</u> (1985:319,320).

II.3.4.1. The zero genitive is added to all regular plural genitors

Adamses'	[ˈædəmzɪz]
boys'	[bɔɪz]
cats'	[kæts]
days'	[deɪz]
dogs'	[dɒgz]
Joneses'	[ˈdʒəʊnzɪz]
minutes'	[ˈmɪnɪts]
parents'	[ˈpeərənts]
Smiths'	[smɪθs]
thieves'	[θiːvs] (see figure II:1)
VIPs'	[ˈviːaɪˈpiːz]

		Written		Spoken	
		Common	Genitive	Common	Genitive
Regular	Singular	spy	spy's	[spaɪ]	
Plural	Plural	spies	spies'	[spaɪz]	
	Singular	thief	thief's	[θi:f]	[θi:fs]
	Plural	thieves	thieves'	[θi:vs]	
Irregular	Singular	child	child's	[tʃaɪld]	[tʃaɪldz]
Plural	Plural	children	children's	['tʃɪldrən]	['tʃɪldrənz]

Figure II:1 The genitive inflections in speech and
writing

As the figure shows, four written case forms of a
noun (singular common case, plural common case, singular
genitive case and plural genitive case) may have either
two, three or four spoken forms (Jespersen, 1976:138).
Even, one spoken form like [spaɪz] may also indicate
three other forms: first: the -s form of the verb (1);
second, the noun with the contracted form of is (2); and
third , the noun with the contracted form o of has (3)
(Quirk, et al., 1985:319).

(1) He spies on behalf of an industrial film.

(2) The spy's here.

(3) The spy's been cycling along the coast.

II.3.4.2. Then, the zero genitive is used with a
sibilant - ended singular   that   is
in the fixed expression of for ... sake or is
followed by a word beginning with an [s].

```
for ┊ acquaintance' ┊ sake   [ ə'kweɪntəns]
    ┊               ┊
    ┊ conscience'   ┊        [ 'kɒnʃəns]
    ┊               ┊
    ┊ goodness'     ┊        [ 'gʊdnɪs]
    ┊               ┊
    ┊ George'       ┊        [dʒɔ:dʒ]
    ┊               ┊
    ┊ peace'        ┊        [pi:s]

    Pears' soap             [pɪəz]

    Louise' sister          [lu:'i:z]
```

II.3.4.3. Next, sibilant - ended ancient names,
           primarily those of more than one syllable,
           nearly always appear with the zero genitive.

```
           Achilles'        [ ə'kɪli:z]

           Archimedes'      [ɑ:kɪ'mi:di:z]

           Democritus'      [dɪ'mokrɪtəs]

           Epicurus'        [epɪkjʊərəs]

           Euripides        [jʊə'rɪpɪdi:z]

           Menelaus'        [ ,menɪ'leɪəs]

           Oedipus'         [ 'i:dɪpəs]

           Socrates'        [ 'sɒkrəti:z]
```

According to Michael Swan, the apostrophe without
s after classical names ending in -s is sometimes
pronounced [ɪz]. He gives two examples as follows.
(1981:261)

```
           Socrates'        ['sɒkrəti:zɪz]

           Oedipus'         [ 'i:dɪpəsɪz]
```

These can be considered as exceptions. We can compare
the [ɪz] here to one in II.3.3.2 where the spoken form

[ɪz] is the realization of the apostrophe with s̲.

Aeneas's	[i(:)ˈni:æsɪz]
Catullus's	[kəˈtʌləsɪz]

II.3.4.4. The zero genitive comes after other singulars
ending in the sibilant [z]. In this respect,
the [ɸ] is a less common variant of the
regular [ɪz]. Let us see II.2.2.4. again.

Adams'	[ˈædəmz]
Andrews'	[ˈændru:z]
Charles'	[tʃa:lz]
Collins'	[ˈkɒlɪnz]
Dickens'	[ˈdɪkɪnz]
James'	[dʒəɪmz]
Sanders'	[ˈsa:ndəz]

The discussion above points out that besides its
common use to show the absence of genitive inflections
of regular plural nouns in speech, in some cases the
zero genitive is also "used to avoid repetitive or
awkward combinations of sounds ... " (Quirk, et al.,
1985:320). In one of the respects, for example, the
sibilant ended genitor adopts the zero genitive, and
nothing but an apostrophe in writing, because this
genitor is followed by a word beginning with an [s]:
sake [seɪk].

To summarize the rules to form and to pronounce the genitive inflections of English nouns, I employ Quirk et al's figure (1972:196; 1985:320) with some modifications. First, the term 'genitor' is used instead of 'genitive word'. Second, irregular plural nouns ending in sibilants are separated from those not ending in sibilants. Third, there are some ancient names ending in sibilants that can take 's in writing (II.2.2.3.) and [IZ] in speech (II.3.3.2.) Fourth, sibilant - ended ancient names that appear with apostrophe in writing sometimes can have [ɪz] in speech (the exceptions of II.3.4.3.). Fifth, the ancient names are not just Greek ones ending in the letter -s, but all ancient ones ending in hissing sounds [s,z,ʃ,ʒ,tʃ,dʒ]. Sixth, the genitor in fixed expressions <u>for ... sake</u> is not only limited to one ending in [s]; however, it is open to any genitor ending in a sibilant. Finally, a sibilant - ended singular that is followed by a word beginning with an [s] besides <u>sake</u> also takes a zero genitive. Here is the figure.

```
                                              ┌─ [s] if ending in a        ┌ cat's, Europe's
                                              │    voiceless sound:        │ sheep's ...
                                 not ending   │    II.3.1.1.,              │ II.2.2.2.
                                 in a sibilant│    II.3.1.2.               └
                      irregular ─┤            │
                      plural     │            │
                      genitor    │            └─ [z] if ending in a        ┌ boy's, children's,
                                 │                 voiced sound:           │ tiger's ...
                                 │                 II.3.2.1,               │ II.2.2.2.
                                 │                 II.3.2.3.               └

                                                                         ┌ geese's, Marx's, VIP's,
                                                     if not ending       │ niece's, Zeus's,
                                                     in [z]:             │ Catullus's ...
                                                     II.3.3.1,           │ II.2.2.1., II.2.2.3.,
 Forms and                                           II.3.3.2.          └ II.2.2.5.
 Pronunciations     singular ─┐              [ɪz]│
 of the Genitive    genitor   │                  │
 Inflections                  │                  ├ if ending in [z]:     ┌
                              │                  │  II.3.3.3.,           │ Adams's, Dickens's ...
                              │                  │  II.3.4.4.            │ II.2.2.4.
                              │                  │                      └
                              │   ending in a ─┤                        ┌ Adams', Dickens'...
                              │   sibilant      │                       │ II.2.1.4.
                              │                 │  if an ancient        ┌
                              │                 │  name of more than    │ Achilles', Oedipus',
                              │                 │  one syllable:        │ Socrates' ...
                              │                 │  II.3.4.3.            └ II.2.1.2.
                              │              [ø]│
                              │                 │                       ┌ for │ goodness' │ sake
                              │                 └  in fixed             │     │ George'   │
                              │                    expressions         │     │ Louise' sister...
                              │                    or followed by      │     II.2.1.3.
                              │                    a word beginning    └
                              │                    with an [s]:
                              │                    II.3.4.2.

                   regular plural genitor ┌ always zero [ø]:   ┌ VIPs', boys', cats',
                                          │   II.3.4.1.        │ Joneses', wives' ...
                                          └                    └ II.2.1.1
```
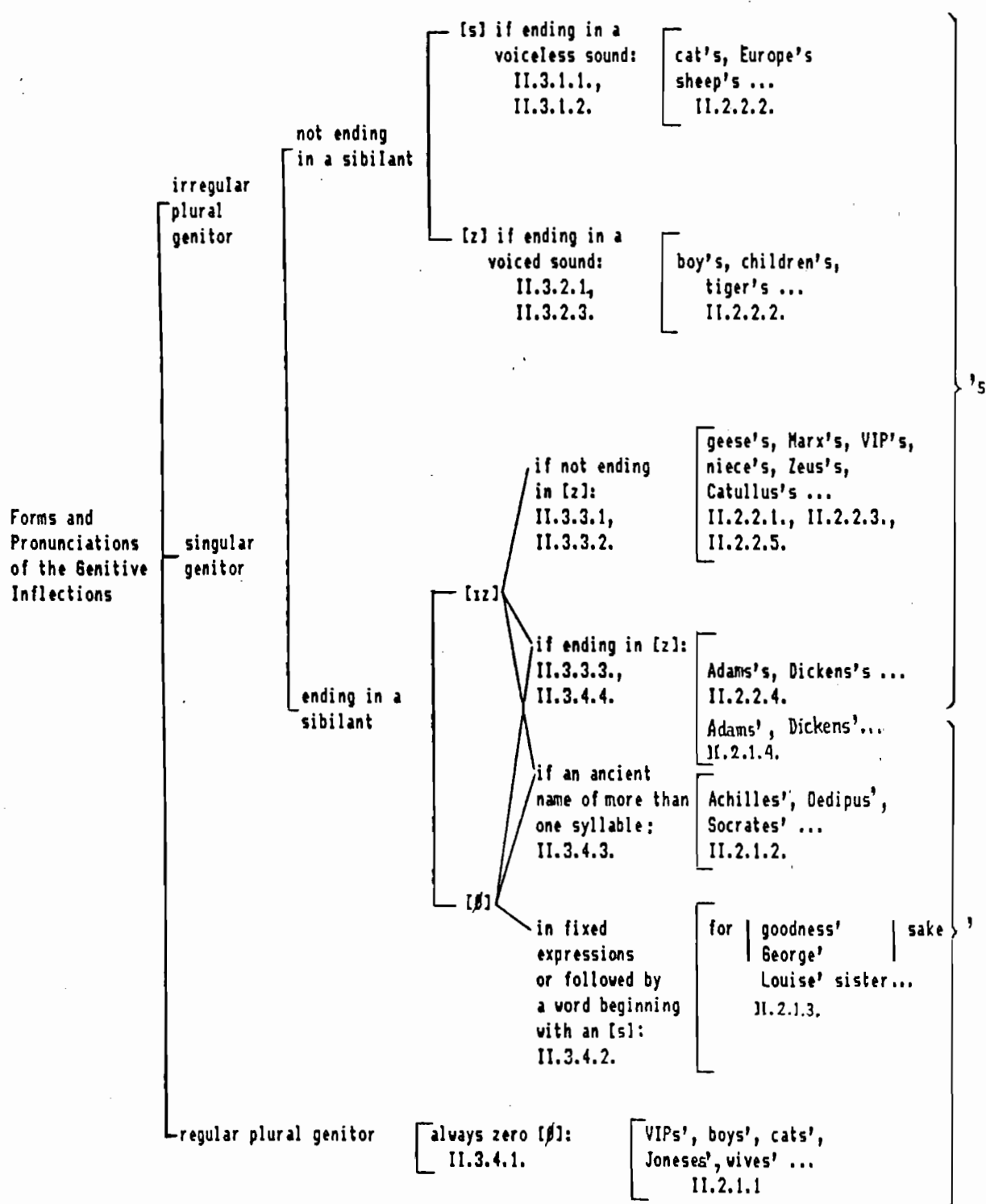
Figure II:2 The forms of the genitive inflections and their pronunciations

In relation to the rules to form and to pronounce the genitive inflections, I take a special interest in the genitive inflections of the words <u>Jesus</u> and <u>Moses</u> that Quirk et al discuss in both <u>A Grammar of Contemporary English</u> and <u>A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language</u>. As far as I understand, their discussions are somewhat different from each other. Prior to discussing the difference, I write down the pronunciations of those words according to: first, <u>English Pronouncing Dictionary</u> by Daniel Jones (1982: 266,319); second, <u>A Pronouncing Dictionary of American English</u> by John S. Kenyon and Thomas A. Knott (1953: 238,287); and third, <u>Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary</u> (1981: 1383,1391).

	<u>Jesus</u>	<u>Moses</u>
(1)	[ˈdʒiːzəs]	[ˈməʊzɪz]
(2)	[ˈdʒizəs]	[ˈmozɪz],[-əz],[-əs], [-ɪs]
(3)	[ˈjē-zəs],[-zəz]	[ˈmō-zəz],[-zəs]

The dictionaries tell us that both words end in either [s] or [z].

In their first book, Quirk et al declare their ideas as follows (1972:197).

> In many other names ending in the voiced sibilant [z] where, in speech, zero is a (less common) variant of the regular [ɪz] genitive.
> ....
> The normal pronunciation appears to be the·

[ɪz] form, but the normal spelling with apostrophe only.
. . . .
        Jones' (Jones's) car [(dʒoʊnz) 'dʒoʊnzɪz]
Jesus and Moses normally have the zero form of the spoken genitive but are written Jesus' and Moses' (as well as Jesus's and Moses's)
        Names ending in other sibilants than -[z] have the regular [ɪz] genitive: Ross's [-sɪz] theories.

Here, Jesus and Moses are discussed in the paragraph about other names ending in [z]. It means that the words also end in [z]. However, unlike other members of this group the normal spoken form of which is [ɪz], those two words usually employ the zero form in sppech. In this way, we can regard them as the exceptions of this group in terms of the spoken form of the genitive inflection. Concerning the written form, those words do not differ from the other members of the group.

        Jesus' (Jesus's)   ['jēzəz ('jēzəzɪz)]

        Moses' (Moses's)   ['maʊziz, 'moziz, 'mozəz

                              ('maʊzɪzɪz)]

    In contrast, their opinion in the second book is like this (1985: 320,321).

        with many other names ending in [z] where, in speech, zero is a variant of the regular [ɪz] genitive. There is vacillation both in the pronunciation and in the spelling of these names, but most commonly the pronunciation is [ɪz], and the spelling is an apostrophe only.
. . . .
        Jones' (Jones's) car ['dʒaʊnzɪz (dʒaʊnz)]
        Names ending in other sibilants than [z] have the regular [ɪz] genitive: Ross's [sɪz] theories. However, Jesus and Moses normally have the zero form of the spoken genitive and are written Jesus' and Moses' (as well as Jesus's and Moses's).

As we can see, the explanation about <u>Jesus</u> and <u>Moses</u> comes after that about names ending in sibilants other than [z]. It seems to me that those two words also have such an ending - in this case [s]. However, they appear as exceptions. Other members of this group take an [ɪz], but they normally take a [∅]. Then in writing, they have both's and ' ; whereas, the others apostrophe plus <u>s</u>.

II.4. <u>The Group Genitive</u>

Not only can the genitor be one word, but it might also consist of more than one word. The group of words can be in the form of a compound noun, in a structure of modification or in a structure of coordination. Such a genitive is called the group possessive (Whitford and Foster,1957:9,62) or the group genitive, as P. Christophersen and A.O. Sandved point out, "The genitive suffix is found not only with nouns and compounds but also with larger groups of words ... . This construction is sometimes known as the 'group genitive'" (1974: 31)

II.4.1. The genitor is a compound noun

A compound noun is a noun which is created by uniting more than one word, or rather, base. These words or bases have their own meanings; however, the unity of them forms a new meaning. Regarding a compound and its

meaning, Ronald Ridout and D. Waldo Clark assert, "... a word created by joining two or more words together .... The meaning of a compound is different from the meaning of its parts" (1970:82).

Examples:

daughter-in-law = wife of one's son

baby-sitter (babysitter)= person paid to look after a baby for a short time

commander-in-chief = commander of all the military forces of a state

gold-fish = bright coloured song-bird with yellow feathers in the wings

man about town = fashionable man who spends much time amusing himself

what's-one's-name = is used as a substitute for a name that one cannot recall

There are three ways in which the bases of a compound come into view: first, open; second, hyphenated; and third, solid. Open means separated by a space. The first way is more common in British English; whereas, American English prefers the other two ways (Quirk, et al., 1985: 1569,1613).

Open	Hyphenated	Solid
-	daughter-in-law	-
-	match-maker	matchmaker
woman doctor	-	-
assistant director	-	-
flower pot	flower-pot	flowerpot

The solid compound is "widely recognized and accepted as a 'permanent' lexical item" (Quirk, et al., 1985:1569).

Compound nouns form the plural in different ways (Quirk, et al., 1985:313). Mostly, they are pluralized in the last element because they are considered, particularly in informal usage, as simple nouns.

   assistant directors

   baby-sitters, babysitters

   daughter-in-laws (informal)

   match-makers, matchmakers

   grown-ups

   cleaning women

Some compound nouns, usually those including postmodifiers or final particles, are pluralized in the first element.

   commanders-in-chief

   daughters-in-law

   men about town

   passers-by

Some others are pluralized in both the first and the last elements. Such compound nouns are appositional ones of which the first element is <u>man</u> or <u>woman</u>.

gentlemen farmers

women doctors

The examples of the genitive case of compound nouns are below.

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
assistant director's	assistant directors'
baby-sitter's	baby-sitters'
cleaning woman's	cleaning women's
commander-in-chief's	commanders-in-chief's
daughter-in-law's	daughters-in-law's
gentleman farmer's	gentlemen farmers'
grown-up's	grown-ups'
man about town's	men about town's
woman doctor's	women doctors'
gold-finch's	gold-finches'

II.4.2. The genitor is a modified noun

In a noun phrase a modifier describes more fully the sense of a noun headword. At the same time, more than one modifier can qualify the headword. There are many kinds of noun modifiers, among others, nouns, verbs (-ing and -ed participles), adjectives, determiners , prepositional phrases, appositions and relative clauses.

The modifier can come before the head, which is known as the premodifier, or after it, which is named the postmodifier. Let us look at the succeeding instances.

the King of Denmark

the Kings of Denmark

the President of France

The three headwords have determiners as their premodifiers and prepositional phrases as their postmodifiers.

James the First

Churchill, the stateman

Appositions are the postmodifiers of the headwords.

the man I saw yesterday

the man who wrote it

Here the premodifiers are determiners, and their postmodifiers are relative clauses.

my brother-in-law's   second cousin

my wife's first husband's   only child

Determiners become the premodifiers of the headwords.

all the other people

all the other boys

The premodifiers of the headwords are determiners.

such beautiful girls

The headword has a determiner and an adjective as its premodifiers.

The genitive forms of modified nouns are like these.

Singular	Plural
the King of Denmark's	the Kings of Denmark's
the man I saw yesterday's	the men I saw yesterday's
my brother-in-law's	my brother-in-law's
second cousin's	second cousins'
Churchill, the stateman's	such beautiful girls
James the First's	all the other people's
the President of France's	all the other boys'
Smith, the bookseller's	
Smith's, the bookseller	
Smith's, the bookseller's	

The examples suggest that a noun which is modified by an apposition sometimes has three possible genitive forms. "Anyhow, the s̲ must always come last if there is a governing word to follow: 'at Smith the bookseller's office'" (Jespersen, 1976:141).

II.4.3. The genitor is in the structure of coordination

Different from the structure of modification, this structure is made up of equivalent grammatical units. And, or and but characterize this structure. Those linking words are named coordinating conjunctions or coordinators. (Quirk, et al., 1985:918). Since we deal with nouns, the equivalent units in our discussion are nouns. The examples of them in their genitive case are as follows.

> Adam and Eve's
>
> a year   or two's
>
> her Lord and Master's
>
> John and Mary's
>
> Larson, Jones, and George's
>
> my grandparents and parents'
>
> Peak and Pike's

II.4.4. The rules to form and to pronounce genitive

inflections of a group of words

We   can see from the various examples above that

the genitive inflection is added to the last element of

the group of words. In the words of R.C. Whitford and

J.R. Foster," The   sign of the possessive, -'s, is

appended to the last word of a short group of words

forming a sense unit ... " (1957: 52). As a result, the

choice of the forms of the genitive inflections in speech

and writing is determined by the last element, too.

In writing, the group of words usually chooses the

genitive inflection apostrophe with s̲ (Allsop, 1984:28),

except if the group has its last element pluralized with an

-s̲ inflection.

's̲	,̲
assistant-director's	assistant directors'
cleaning women's	baby-sitters'
commanders-in-chief's	such beautiful girls'
the Kings of Denmark's	all the other boys'

the man I saw yesterday's my grandparents and parents'

James the First's

Adam and Eve's

Larson, Janes, and George's

a year or two's

Actually, like a single word, the group of words may also take the apostrophe only in three special cases. In the first case, the group has a singular last element ending in a sibilant and appears in the fixed expression of <u>for ... sake</u> or is followed by a word beginning with an [s].

for the President of France's sake

the President of France' sister

Next, the last element of the group is a sibilant - ended ancient name of more than one syllable.

Aphrodite and Hephaestus' child

Finally, the final element is a singular ending in the sibilant [z].

James and Jones' factory

(James and Jones's factory)

In this regard, the apostrophe is more common than the apostrophe with <u>s</u>; however, the zero spoken form [ø] is less common than [ɪz]

In speech, the group genitive with apostrophe only will employ the zero genitive; on the other hand, the group with apostrophe plus <u>s</u> will take one of [s], [z], [ɪz] according to the ending sound of its last element.

If the group genitor ends in voiceless sounds other than [s, ʃ ,tʃ], we pronounce the inflection [s]. Next, when the ending sound is a vowel or a voiced consonant other than [z,ʒ,dʒ], we utter the 's [z]. Finally, the spoken form [ɪz] is for the genitor ending in a sibilant. Examples:

    [∅] : match-makers'

           gold-finches'

           all the other boys'

           my brother-in-law's second cousins'

           my grandparents and parents'

    [s] : commander-in-chief's   ⎫   [tʃi:fs]

           commanders-in-chief's ⎭

           the King of Denmark's ⎫ [-ks]

           Peak and Pike's   ⎭

           James the First's   ⎫ [-ts]

           the man who wrote it's⎭

    [z] : daughter-in-law's   ⎬ [-ɔ:z]

           man about town's   ⎫[-nz]

           Churchill, the stateman's ⎭

           Smith, the bookseller's ⎬ [-əz]

           The man I saw yesterday's ⎬ [-eɪz]

           John and Mary's   ⎬   [-ɪz]

    [z] : gold-finch's   ⎬   [-tʃɪz]

           the President of France's ⎬ [-sɪz]

           Larson, Jones, and George's ⎬ [-dʒɪz]

           James and Jones's ⎬   [-zɪz]

Talking about the same respect, Quirk et al stress that the rules for the genitive and plural inflections of regular nouns are not the same anymore when the nouns have postmodifiers.

> While the affixing to a noun of the genitive inflection and the plural inflection follows similar rules for regular nouns in general, the rules for the two inflections are different if the noun is postmodified. (1985:1345)

Singular: the teacher (s.c.c.1)   the teacher's(s.g.c.1)

the teacher (s.c.c.2)   the teacher (s.g.c.2)
  of music   of music's

Plural: the teachers (p.c.c.1)   the teachers'(p.g.c.1)

the teachers (p.c.c.2)   the teachers (p.g.c.2)
  of music   of music's

Note: s.c.c. = singular common case

p.c.c. = plural common case

s.g.c. = singular genitive case

p.g.c. = plural genitive case

1 -----> the noun is not postmodified

2 -----> the noun is postmodified

In speech: p.c.c.1 = s.g.c.1 = p.g.c.1 (one spoken form)

p.c.c.2 ≠s.g.c.2 ≠p.g.c.2 (three spoken
                                  forms)

Three forms of the noun teacher (s.c.c.1): teachers (p.c.c.1) teacher's (s.g.c.1) and teachers' (p.g.c.1) have the same realization in speech, namely, ['ti:tʃəz]. In contrast, when the noun is postmodified (teacher of music (s.c.c.2)), the realizations of its plural common

case, of its singular, genitive case and of its plural, genitive case are different from one another. We can look at p.c.c.2, s.g.c.2, and p.g.c.2. In p.c.c.2, the plural inflection is added to the head of the noun phrase. Thus, the spoken form of this inflection is determined by the ending sound of the head.

the teachers of music   [ðə ˈtiːtʃəz əv ˈmjuːzɪk]

Then in s.g.c.2, the genitive inflection comes after the last part of the noun phrase. As a result, the ending of the last part decides the form of this inflection in speech.

the teacher of music's   [ðə ˈtiːtʃə. əv ˈmjuːzɪks]

Finally , in p.g.c.2, the genitive inflection is still after the last element of the noun phrase. Nevertheles, this noun phrase takes a spoken form which differs from that of the former (s.g.c.2): it has the plural inflection besides the genitive one.

the teachers of music's   [ðə ˈtiːtʃəz əv ˈmjuːzɪks]

Actually, what Quirk et al stress above can also be valid for regular nouns that have become certain compounds. First, the regular noun becomes the first element of the compound and the compound is not pluralized in the last element. The example of such a noun is the following.

Singular:the commander (s.c.c.1) the commander's (sgc1)

the commander- (s.c.c.3) the commander- (sgc3)
in-chief   in-chief's

Plural: the commanders (p.c.c.1) the commanders' (pgc1)

the commanders (p.c.c.3) the commanders- (pgc3)
-in-chief   in-chief's

In speech: p.c.c.1 = s.g.c.1 = p.g.c.1 (one form)

p.c.c.3 ≠s.g.c.3 ≠p.g.c.3 (three forms)

This is in line with Jespersen's opinion that the group genitive enables us to differentiate the four cases (singular common case, plural common case, singular genitive case and plural genitive case) of the compound noun son-in-law (1976:140).

Second, the regular noun becomes the last element of the compound, but both the first and the last elements of the compound are pluralized.

Singular: doctor   (s.c.c.1) doctor's   (sgc1)
          woman doctor (s.c.c.4) woman doctor's (sgc4)
Plural: doctors   (p.c.c.1) doctors'   (pgc1)
          women doctors (p.c.c.4) women doctors' (pgc4)

In speech: p.c.c.1 = s.g.c.1 = p.g.c.1 (one form)

p.c.c.4 ≠s.g.c.4, but p.c.c.4 = p.g.c.4

(two forms)

Let us compare those examples to the regular noun that becomes the last element of a compound, but the compound is only pluralized in the last element.

(scc)	baby-sitter	
(pcc)	baby-sitters	
(sgc)	baby-sitter's	one spoken form
(pgc)	baby-sitters'	['beɪbɪ ˌsɪtəz]

Chapter III

THE MEANINGS OF THE GENITIVE CASE

After discussing the forms of the genitive case of
English nouns in chapter II, in this chapter I want to
deal with the meanings of the genitive case of English
nouns. I divide the discussion into four sections:
first, the specifying and classifying genitives; next,
the meanings of the specifying genitives; furthermore,
the meanings of the classifying genitives; and finally,
the degree of arbitrariness of the semantic
classification of the genitive.

III.1. The Specifying and Classifying Genitives

A noun (phrase) in the genitive case nearly always
comes before a headword. Sometimes the headword is not
explicit, but can be understood from the context. The
relation between the genitive noun (phrase) and its
headword brings about meaning.

Misunderstanding concerning the meaning of the
genitive case frequently occurs among learners of
English. It is often thought that this case only has one
meaning - possession. In fact, the genitive case
expresses various meanings, namely, possession in a very
wide sense as well as other different meanings. P.

49

Christophersen and A.O. Sandved stress,

> But even if one is prepared to interpret the word 'possession' in a very wide sense, there are a great many cases where the $\{Z_2\}$ morpheme cannot be said to express any kind of possession ... (1974:32)

What he means by $\{Z_2\}$ is the genitive morpheme.

In terms of meaning, the genitive structures can be categorized into two. They are specifying and classifying genitives (Zandvoort, 1980:107). The former conveys a specific meaning. In the structure of the specifying genitive, the genitor refers to a particular person, animal or thing.

    my mother's picture

    the man's voice

    the doctor's cars

    yesterday's mail

In this regard, we get in touch with certain mother, man, doctor or yesterday. My mother's picture is the picture of one particular mother - here my mother, not yours. On the other hand, the latter group of genitives possesses a 'class' meaning. Here, the genitor denotes the class or kind to which the person, animal or thing indicated by the headword belongs.

    a butcher's shop

    a doctor's degree

    a fools' errand

    the lady's maid

In this case, no particular <u>butcher, doctor, fool</u> or <u>lady</u> is in our mind. Thus, a doctor's degree is not the degree of one particular doctor, but a kind of degree.

A genitive noun, for instance, <u>doctor's</u> might become both a specifying genitive and a classifying one. As the specifying, <u>doctor's</u> is freer to take a headword. However, as the classifying, it is more limited in choosing a headword.

Specifying: that doctor's car/ house/ children/ arrival/ admirer ... etc.

Classifying: a doctor's degree

The difference in meaning between the specifying and the classifying genitives is underlined by a difference in pronunciation (Christophersen and Sandved, 1974:34). The former usually has even stress.

<u>'Genitor'(s) 'Head</u>

my 'mother's 'voice

the 'man's 'voice

the 'doctor's 'car

'yesterday's 'mail

As the examples suggest, both the genitor and the headword are strongly stressed. According to those experts, it may be said that such a stress pattern is normal for a genitive construction.

On the contrary, the latter genitive commonly has uneven stress: strong for the genitor, and medium for

the headword.

'Genitor'(s) Head

a 'butcher's shop

a 'doctor's degree

a 'fool's errand

a 'lady's maid

This type of stress pattern serves to point out that the two elements belong closely together. As a consequence, this stress pattern is sometimes named <u>unity</u> <u>stress</u>.

In spite of this, some classifying genitives get equal stress. Among them are genitives with <u>ship's</u> and those of nouns denoting times.

a 'ship's 'carpenter

the 'ship's 'doctor

the 'ship's 'cook

'ship's 'papers

a 'day's 'work

a 'good night's 'rest

Compared to the previous classifying genitive, the headword of this classifying genitive is more prominent phonetically as well as semantically (Zandvoort, 1980:108).

a day's <u>work</u> is distinguished from a day's <u>wages</u>

the ship's <u>doctor</u> ---------------> the ship's <u>cook</u>, the ship's <u>carpenter</u>

However, in the previous genitive, the headword is less prominent.

```
                      is distinguished from
     a butcher's shop ----------------> a grocer's shop

     a master's degree ------------> a      bachelor's

                                              degree
```

Besides their general meanings, both the specifying and the classifying genitives can split again into various meanings. Grammarians find it hard to define such a variety of different meanings of genitive. To overcome this difficulty, Quirk et al suggest to show the meanings through sentential or phrasal analogues (1985:321). I will follow their suggestion in the following sections.

III.2. The Meanings of the Specifying Genitives

Based on their distinct meanings, the structures with the specifying genitive nouns can be classified into ten groups: first, the possessive genitive; second, the subjective genitive; third, the objective genitive; fourth, the genitive of attributive; fifth, the genitive of association; sixth, the partitive genitive; seventh, the genitive of origin; eighth, the genitive of measurement; ninth, the appositive genitive; and tenth, some miscellaneous genitives.

III.2.1. The Possessive Genitive

"The 's genitive structure very often corresponds to a sentence with <u>have</u> " (Swan, 1981:423). Besides, other verbs of possession such as <u>belong to</u>, <u>possess</u> and <u>own</u> can also indicate this meaning. In this structure, the genitor (G) is the possessor, and the headword (H) denotes the possession. The possession can be a thing, usually concrete, an animal or a person. When the possession is a human being, it means that the genitor has a close familial relationship or a very close connection with the headword. (We can compare such a connection to that indicated by the genitive of association III.2.5.)

The 'have' relation: G'(s) H _means_> G ┆ has ┆ H
┆ owns ┆
┆ possesses┆

H belongs to G

Examples:

John's house = John has a house

this lady's bicycle (Cf. III.3.1)

= This lady has a bicycle. (Swan, 1981:423)

the youngest child's toys

= The toys belong to the youngest child.

Mrs. Johnson's passport

= Mrs. Johnson owns a passport.

our neighbour's dog

= Our neighbour possesses a dog.

the earth's gravitation (See III.4.3.)

  = The earth has gravitation (gravity).

John's books (See III.4.4.)

  = John possesses books,

John and Mary's books

  = John and Mary own all of those books jointly.

Cohen, Levy and Curson's Dancing Academy

  = Cohen, Levy and Curson together own one joint

  academy.

Mary's mother

  = Mary has a mother.

Tom's uncle = Tom has an uncle.

Peter's Jane (Quirk, 1985:289)

  = Peter has a girlfriend named Jane.

John and Mary's Tom

  = John and Mary have a son whose name is Tom.

(My car is faster than) John's

  = <u>John's</u> here means <u>John's</u> <u>car</u>. Thus, John has a

  car.

III.2.2. The Subjective Genitive

This kind of genitive illustrates a subject - verb relation. In this structure, the headword is a deverbal noun, a verbal one or a nominal <u>-ing</u> clause. The genitive noun represents the actor or the semantic subject of the action stated in the headword.

A deverbal noun is one which is produced by the combination of a verb base and a suffix, or which has the same form as the verb. The deverbal nouns are chiefly concrete countable. (Quirk, et al., 1985:1290, 1550, 1551). Here are some of the nouns.

participate + ant = participant (countable)

employ + ee = employee (C)

employ + er = employer (C)

supervise + or = supervisor (C)

earn + ing = earning (C)

arrange + ment = arrangement (C,U)

decide + sion = decision (C,U)

paint + ing = painting (C: painted picture)

escape --------------> escape (C,U)

quarrel -------------> quarrel (C)

Next, a verbal noun is an abstract noncountable that is formed from a verb by adding -ing. Quirk et al explain that the term verbal noun is only used for the 'gerund' class of nouns in -ing (1985:1521). Some examples are as follows.

paint + ing = painting (using paint, action of painting)

smile + ing = smiling

sing + ing = singing

Whereas, a nominal -ing clause is an -ing clause that acts as a noun. We can look at the examples below.

receiving <u>an invitation to our meeting</u>

DO

<u>deftly</u> painting <u>his daughter</u>
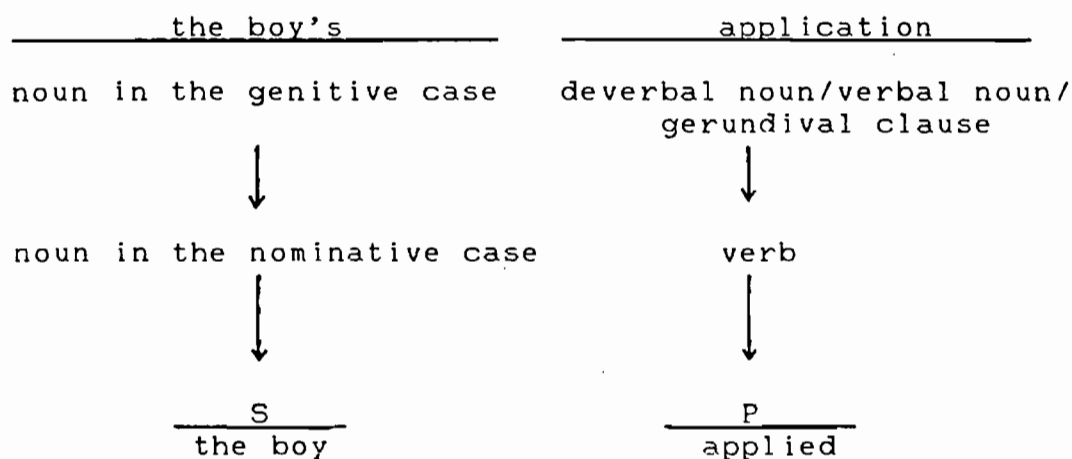
adverb   DO

The presence of the adverb and the direct objects demonstrates that the -ing forms have the force of verbs (Quirk, et al., 1985: 1064,1291). Here is the difference between a verbal noun and a nominal -ing clause. Such clauses are sometimes named <u>gerundive</u> or <u>gerundival</u> <u>clauses</u>, and their verbs are commonly called <u>gerunds</u>.

In their book <u>Descriptive English Grammar</u>, House and Harman do not differentiate deverbal nouns, verbal nouns and nominal -ing clauses from one another. They label all of them verbal nouns (1950:31,93,309).

The meaning of the subjective genitive can be made obvious by an equivalent sentence in which the genitive form is substituted by a nominative one, and the headword is substituted by the corresponding verb (House and Harman, 1950:31). The tense of the verb, whether it is present or past, is determined by the context in which the genitive structure appears.

The subject - verb relation: G'(s) H ------> G does H

Examples:

the boy's	application
noun in the genitive case	deverbal noun/verbal noun/ gerundival clause
↓	↓
noun in the nominative case	verb
↓	↓
S the boy	**P** applied

the government's decision

= The government decided.

the prisoner's escape = The prisoner escaped.

Mme. Curie's discoveries = Mme Curie discovered.

the volcano's eruption = The volcano erupted.

the plane's arrival with food

= The plane arrived with food.

Mary's love for her mother

= Mary loves/ed her mother.

Jim's hope = Jim hopes.

my son's help = My son helps/helped.

Tom and Jim's quarrel = Tom and Jim quarreled.

the earth's gravitation

= The earth gravitates. (See III.4.3.)

the family's support

= The family support. (See III.4.2.)

the United States' aid

= The United States aided. (See III.4.1.)

Mary's singing = Mary sings/sang.

    the paragraph's meaning = The paragraph means.

    Harold's getting a job as a salesman

        = Harold got a job as a salesman.

    the hunters' shooting birds

        = The hunters shot birds.

III.2.3. The Objective Genitive

This genitive denotes a verb-object relation. The analysis of this genitive is parallel to that of the subjective (House and Harman, 1950:31). The headword is a deverbal noun, a verbal noun, or a nominal -ing clause; and the genitive noun contains the semantic object of the action implied by the headword. In the similar way, we can compose an equivalent sentence by substituting the headword with the corresponding verb, and then replacing the noun in the genitive case with its objective case.

the boy's	release
noun in the genitive case	deverbal noun/verbal noun gerundival clause
↓	↓
noun in the objective case	verb
P	O
(someone) released	the boy
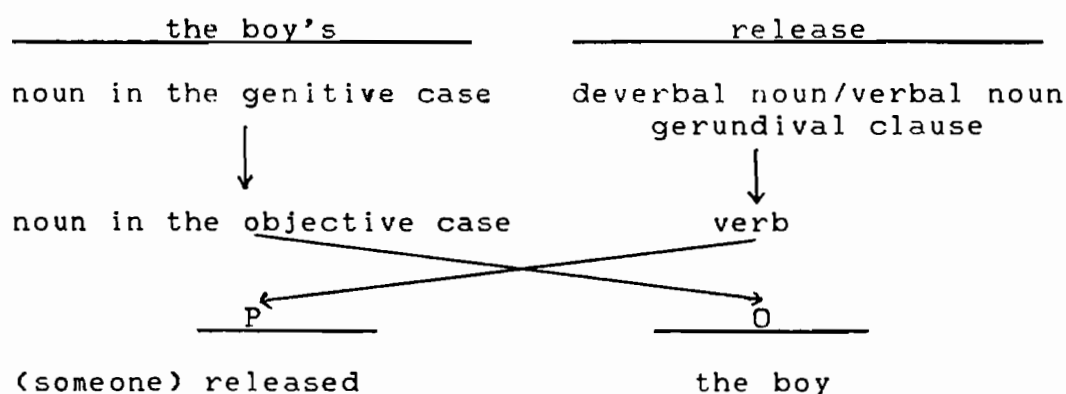
        the soldier's discharge   = ... discharged the
                                        soldier.
        Caesar's murder   = ... murdered Caesar.

the thief's arrest = ... arrested the thief

Othello's punishment = ... punished Othello

the family's support = ... supports the family (See III.4.2.)

Mary's promotion = ... promoted Mary

the prisoner's execution = ... executed the prisoner

the President's assassination = ... assassinated the President

Jane's disappointment = ... disappointed Jane

John's surprise = ... surprised John

the door's being opened = ... opened the door

Reagan's being elected president = elected Reagan president

III.2.4. The Genitive of Attributive

It is somewhat difficult to analyze the meaning of this genitive. Prior to discussing the meaning, let us observe some examples of this genitive.

her children's happiness

the country's beauty

(These example are from Leech and Svartvik, (1981:60) with a modi- fication: everyone's happiness becomes her children's happiness because I study the genitive case of nouns only).

$$\left.\begin{array}{ll} \text{the victim 's courage} \\ \text{the party 's policy} \\ \text{Kathy \quad 's idea} \end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{(Quirk, et al., 1985:} \\ \text{322,743)} \end{array}$$

In those examples, all nouns that function as the headwords are abstract, that is to say, "typically nonobservable and nonmeasurable" (Quirk, et al., 1985:247). The first three abstract nouns possess corresponding adjectives, but the other two do not.

happiness	- ness	=	happy
beauty	+ ful	=	beautiful
courage	+ ous	=	courageous

III.2.4.1. The Subject - Complement Relation

The structure of the genitive of attributive of which the headword has a corresponding adjective implies a subject-complement relation (Leech and Svartvik, 1981:60). Hence, we can make an equivalent sentence in which we use the nominative case of the first noun, and put the adjective as a substitute of the headword.

her children's		happiness
noun in the genitive case ↓ noun in the nominative case ↓ S		noun ↓ adjective ↓ S complement
her children	+ be are	happy

the country's beauty = the country is beautiful

the victim's courage = the victim is courageous.

Quirk et al express, "The typical semantic role
of a subject complement and an object complement is that
of attributive. We can distinguish two subtypes of role
for the attributive: identification and
characterization" (1985: 741, 742).

Identification: Kevin is my brother.

Characterization: Dwight is an honest man.

The soup is too hot.

Then they add that there are three syntactic
features of those subtypes. First, when the copula is
be, the subject and the complement of an identification
attributive can normally be reversed without changing
the semantic relation.

Kevin is my brother - My brother is Kevin

Second, only a characterization attributive can be in
the form of an adjective phrase.

The soup is too hot.

Finally, a noun phrase that is used as an identification
attribute is usually definite; whereas, one used as a
characterization attributive is commonly indefinite.

The equivalent sentences of the genitive above
contain complements which have the second semantic role,
namely, that of characterization attributive. It is
possible that Quirk et al name such a genitive the

genitive of attributive for this reason. With this understanding of the genitive of attributive, we can make other examples.

Mary's sadness	= Mary is/was sad.
Jane's motherliness	= Jane is motherly.
that girl's jealousy	= That girl is/was jealous.
those boys' enthusiasm	= Those boys were enthusiastic.
Ross's hopefulness	= Ross is hopeful.
his daughter's dependence on him	= His daughter is dependent on him.

Note: Dependence is derived from dependent + ence.

Dependent is derived from depend + ent.

III. 2.4.2. The 'Certain Have' Relation.

The meaning of the genitive of attributive in which the headword has no adjective corresponding can be shown through a sentential analogue with the verb have of a certain meaning. As we know, the meanings of that verb vary . In this respect , we deal with the following meanings:

to own as a quality
to keep or feel in the mind } (Procter, 1981:519)
to hold or keep in the mind
exercise some· quality of the mind;
} (Hornby,
experience (some emotion)
1981:282,

(Emotion = excited state of <u>the</u> <u>mind</u>
  or <u>feelings</u>;   394)
strong <u>feeling</u> of any kind)

With such meanings, <u>have</u> usually appears with <u>got</u> in colloquial style.

I try to synthesize those similar meanings into one, namely, to own something abstract which is related to feelings or is kept in the mind as a quality. (In the examples that Quirk et al give, <u>policy</u> and <u>idea</u> are abstract things which are related to the mind.) This meaning is in line with the meaning of <u>attributive</u>. This noun means a quality that belongs to or forms part of the nature of a person or thing (Procter, 1981:56).

So the genitive of attributive indicates the 'certain have' relation: the genitor has the headword as an attributive. In order to make a parallel sentence, we change the genitive form of the genitor into the nominative one. Then we add <u>have</u> after the noun. Finally, we put the headword which has been added with some information.

G'(s) H ------> G has H as an attributive

```
        G has  : certain   :  H
               :           :
               : particular :
               :           :
               : special   :
               :           :
               : typical   :
```

the party's policy

= The party has a certain policy.

Kathy's idea

= Kathy has a particular idea.

Having known the meaning, we may give other instances.

Jim's hope (See III.4.5) = Jim has a special hope

Dickens' advice = Dickens has typical advice

III.2.5. The Genitive of Association

Some grammarians include this genitive into the possessive; conversely, some others such as Charles Carpenter Fries distinguish those two types of genitives (1940:83). The similarity of those two genitives is that they indicate a connection. (Concerning the possessive genitive, what is meant here is when the possession is a human being. We can see III.2.1). The difference between them is that the connection in the possessive genitive is particular: close familial or very close. The possessor and the possession are connected by birth or marriage. Sometimes their connection is not familial, but very close or intimate. The possessor and the possession are lovers. Here, it is supposed that they will be connected by marriage. In short, there is a sense of belonging here. In contrast, the genitive of association refers to other kinds of connections; among other things, the connections between friends, a person

and his distant relative, an employee and his employer, and a doctor and his patient.

The various connections of the genitive of association can be indicated with the verb <u>have</u> (Hornby, 1981:394). The examples are as follows.

George's friend = George has a friend.

our next neighbour's family physician

= Our next neighbour has a family physician.

Jane's relatives = Jane has relatives.

doctor Smith's patients

= Doctor Smith has patients.

Dr. Arnold's pupils = Dr. Arnold has pupils.

John and Mary's classmates.

= John and Mary have classmates.

Mr. Sanders' officers = Mr. Sanders has officers.

the Jonesses' servant = the Joneses have servant.

III.2.6. The Partitive Genitive

This genitive conveys the meaning that the headword constitutes a part of the genitor. There are two possible ways to express the meaning. First, we use the sentential analogue "H is a part of G". Second, we make the corresponding sentence "G has H" as Quirk et al do (1985: 322). Again, we may use the verb <u>have</u> for one of the meanings of that verb is to possess a physical characteristic (Hornby, 1981:394). Thus, we

deal with something concrete. Study these examples.

H'(s) G --------> H has G

G is a part of H

that ship's funnel

= The (broken) funnel is a part of that ship.

this bull's horns

= The (strange) horns are parts of this bull.

the lion's tail

= The lion has a (very long) tail.

the baby's eyes

= The baby has (blue) eyes.

the earth's surface

= The earth has a (rough) surface

that lady's hands

= That lady has (smooth) hands

Mary's complexion

= Mary has a (good) complexion

III.2.7. The Genitive of Origin

The origin relation is the meaning of this kind of
genitive. In other words, this genitive shows from
which/whom the noun stated by the headword comes from,
or by which/whom that noun is produced.

In one possible way, this relation can be declared
in a sentence with another transitive verb than have,
for example, compose, create, give, make, manufacture,

produce, send, tell and write. The genitor becomes the subject of the sentence, so the noun in the genitive has to change into its nominative form. Meanwhile, the headword will come after the verb as an object.

In another way, the sentential analogue with be from or come from is used. In such a sentence, the subject is from the headword of the genitive structure. The genitor follows the preposition from. The sentence can also be condensed into a noun modified by from-phrase.

```
G's) H ------->  G  : composes :  H
                    :          :
                    : creates  :
                    :          :
                    : gives    :
                    :          :
                    : etc.     :


                 H  : is  : from
                    :     :
                    .: comes:

                 H from G
```

the girl's story = The girl told a story.

the general's letter = The general sent a letter.

villagers' information

  = The villagers gave information.

my parents' package = My parents sent a package.

my brother's money order

  = My brother sent a money order.

USA 's nuclear missiles

  = USA produced nuclear missiles.

the United States' aid (see III.4.1.)

= the aid from the United States

that author's novels = That author wrote novels.

Harry's poems = Harry composed poems.

John's books (see III.4.4.) = John wrote books.

Mrs. Williams' cake = Mrs. Williams made a cake;

The cake is from Mrs.

Williams.

this designer's new dresses

= This designer creates new dresses.

G. and C. Merriam Company's new dictionary

= G. and C. Merriam Company produced a new

dictionary.

III.2.8. The Genitive of Measurement

In the construction with the genitive of measurement, the genitive refers to a particular moment, time, day, etc. (Swan, 1981:425). In other words, there is a time relation here. This relation can be expressed in various ways, for instance, "H for G", "H that is held G", "H lasts G". In these analogues, the genitor functions as an adverb of time. We can study the succeeding examples.

today's menu = the menu for today

yesterday's newspaper

= The newspaper came yesterday

tomorrow's television programme

= the television programme for tomorrow

the two weeks's holiday

= The holiday lasted two weeks.

the   nine days's absence

= The absence lasted nine days.

Last Sunday's match.

= the match that was held last Sunday.

tomorrow's meeting of the General Assembly of   the

United Nations

= the   meeting   of the General Assembly   of   the

United nations will be held tomorrow.

III.2.9. The Appositive Genitive

In   the appositive genitive, the genitor   and   the

headword   are   equated   denotatively   (Quirk,   et al.,

1972:193).

G'(s) H ---------> G is H

H is G

Compared   to   the similar sentence of   the   genitive   of

attributive   where the headword becomes   the   complement

with a characterization attributive, the headword of the

appositive   genitive constitutes the complement with   an

identification attributive in the parallel sentence.

Dublin's fair city

= Dublin is the fair city.

= The fair city is Dublin.

York's city

= York is the city.

= The city is York.

Note: The examples are a few since this genitive is seldom used now.

III.2.10. Some Miscellaneous Genitives

There are some miscellaneous genitives that are not included in the nine categories of genitive above. Their meanings are so various that we cannot arrange them in classes. We can only try to describe or mention their features instead. Some of these genitives are the following.

III.2.10.1. The genitive nouns come into view with certain nouns such as behalf, edge, end, expense, sake and surface as their headwords.

This type of genitive structure, which can have a phrasal analogue with of, is usually preceded by a preposition.

at the river's edge

= at the edge of the river

= at the outer boundary of the surface of the river

for George' sake

= for the sake of George

= for the welfare or benefit of George

= because of an interest in or desire for George

at his journey's end

= at the end of his journey

= at the farthest or last past of his journey

on the water's surface

= on the surface of the water

= on the top of the water

on Jim's behalf

= on behalf of Jim

= for Jim

at Susan's expense

= at the expense of Susan

= with Susan

= bringing discredit, ridicule or contempt on Susan

III.2.10.2. The genitives need verbs that are different from those used by the previous nine types of genitive in their sentential analogues.

Mary's school = Mary always goes to the school.

that dog's meat = That dog will eat the meat.

my father's business

= My father does the business.

my brother-in-law's office

= My brother-in-law works in the office.

the boys' bedroom

    = The boys sleep in the bedroom.

In   some of those analogues, the   headwords   function
as   objects.   In some others, the   headwords   point   out
adverbs of place.

III.2.10.3. Abstract nouns become the headwords   of   the
            genitive   structures,   but   they   are   not
            attributives   of   the   genitors   (Cf.   the
            genitive of attributive).

    her son's birthday

        = (anniversary of the) day of her son's birth
    Sarah and Angelo's wedding

        = the marriage ceremony of Sarah and Angelo
    my mother's way to relieve me

        = the way in which my mother relieves me
    our family's Christmas

        = the Christmas that our family celebrated

III.2.10.4. Besides, there are other different   examples
            of miscellaneous genitives such as:

    John's last days

    his grandmother's funeral expenses

III.3. <u>The Meanings of the Classifying Genitives</u>

The classifying genitives can fall into two classes in terms of meaning. In the first class, the meaning can be expressed through the headword which is modified by a noun clause or a prepositional phrase. Quirk et al label such a genitive the descriptive genitive (1972:193). In the second group, the meaning is totally new or idiomatic. We often must consult the dictionary or native speakers of English in order to know those two categories of meanings, especially the latter. It is difficult to guess their meanings from the context in which they occur.

III.3.1. The Descriptive Genitive

A structure with the descriptive genitive in it comes alone without additional words. The genitive indicates various descriptive relations.

```
                means
G'(s) H  ---------->  a kind of : H : that/which ...
                                 :   :
                      such a     :   : for/from/in  G
```

The examples of this type of genitive and their meanings follow.

    a busman's holiday

       = a holiday that is spent in one's regular work

    butcher's meat

       = meat that excludes poultry, game and bacon

a bird's nest

= a kind of nest that a bird made

cow's milk

= a kind of milk that is obtained from a cow

a doctor's degree

= a degree that is given by a university to one

who has passed a doctoral exam

a child's face

= a face that is childlike

a fool's errand

= an errand that is seen in the end to be

useless

a girl's blouse

= a kind of blouse which is worn by girls

a grocer's shop

= a kind of shop in which someone sells food in

packets, tins, or bottles, and a general small

household requirement

a lady's bicycle

= a kind of bicycle that is used by ladies

a lady's man = a ladies' man

= a man that is fond of the society of women

a ship's doctor

= a doctor that works in a ship

a summer's day

= such a day as one expects in summer

a women's college = a college for women

women's magazines

= magazines which are read by women

writer's cramp

= cramp of the fingers or hand muscles caused

by too much writing

III.3.2. The Meaning of G'(s) H is Idiomatic

Usually these genitive structures have certain

additional words. In other words, they appear with some

fixed words as idiomatic expressions (Strang, 1971:110;

Hornby, 1981: xvi) or compounds (Quirk, et al.,

1985:326) We can look at the succeeding examples.

a hair's breadth = very small distance

(in) the mind's eye = (in) imagination, memory

a bull's - eye

= a centre of target (for archers, etc.)

child's play = something very easily done

widow's weeds

= black clothes as formerly worn by a widow for

mourning

a stone's throw = not far

(from) the horse's mouth

= (from) the first - hand source

(be/live in) a fool's paradise

= (be/live in) a state of carefree happiness

that cannot last

out of harm's way

  = in a place of safety

to one' s heart's content

  = as much as, for as long as, etc. one wishes

keep somebody at arm's length

  = avoid being friendly with somebody

all in a/the day's work

  = unpleasant or bad, but not unusual

a wolf in sheep's clothing

  = a wicked man who pretends to be good

make sheep's eyes at

  = look at in an amorous, but foolish way

III.4. <u>The Degree of Arbitrariness of the Semantic Classification of the Genitive</u>

Quirk et al assert that the semantic classification of the genitive case is in part arbitrary (1985:322). One genitive structure might convey more than one meaning. This primarily happens if the structure is apart from content. Some examples below will illustrate the arbitrariness.

III.4.1. The Subjective Genitive vs. the Genitive of Origin

Example:

the United States' aid ⌐── The United States aided.

└── The aid was from the United States.

III.4.2. The Subjective Genitive vs. the Objective Genitive

the family's support ⌐──── The family support.

└──── ... supports the family.

III.4.3. The Subjective Genitive vs. the Possessive Genitive

the earth's gravitation ⌐──── The earth gravitates.

└──── The earth has gravitation.

III.4.4. The Possessive Genitive vs. the Genitive of Origin

John's books ⌐──── John has books.

└──── John wrote books.

III.4.5. The Subjective Genitive vs. the Genitive of Attributive

Jim's hope ⌐── Jim hopes.

└── Jim has a certain hope.

All in all, we must keep in mind one important thing, that is, the fact that the meanings of the genitive vary. The opinion that the genitive only conveys the meaning of possession is not valid anymore. Actually, this case expresses 'possession' in a very wide sense as well as other types of relations. Realizing this, we will not be confused with the genitive structures which have more than one meaning.

Chapter IV

THE USAGE OF THE GENITIVE CASE

After dealing with the forms in chapter II and the meanings in chapter III, in this chapter I intend to focus on the usage of the genitive case of English nouns. I classify this chapter into four sections; first, the type of noun acting as a genitor; second, the type of noun acting as a headword; third, how a noun in the genitive case is used; and fourth, the use of the genitive case in daily use.

IV.1. The Type of Noun Acting as a Genitor

The usage of the genitive case can be identified with the type of noun acting as a genitor. Generally speaking, the genitive inflection is used with nouns of the high classes on the gender scale, namely, animate nouns, especially persons and animals with personal gender characteristics (Quirk, et al., 1972:198).

In contrast, nouns belonging to the bottom part of the gender scale usually do not take the genitive inflection. They are nouns denoting lower animals and inanimate nouns (Quirk, et al., 1972:201). To express meanings that are similar to those discussed in the

80

previous chapter, such nouns emerge in a prepositional phrase, chiefly with preposition <u>of</u>.

That separation, however, is not very strict for two reasons. First, a great deal of nouns which are lowest on the gender scale can appear with the genitive inflection. Second, in many cases, the nouns that commonly take the genitive inflection might turn up in the prepositional phrases. (This will be discussed in IV.3.).

In detail, here are eight noun categories that use the genitive inflection as Quirk et al point out (1985:324). The first four groups are animate; whereas, the other four are inanimate.

IV.1.1. Personal Names

Examples: <u>George Washington's</u> statue

<u>Segovia's</u> pupils

<u>Mary's</u> book

M.J. <u>Smith's</u> friend

Articles are not normally used in genitive structures when the genitor is a personal name like the examples above (Swan, 1981:262). Thus, expressions like:

*<u>the George Washington's</u> statue

*<u>the Segovia's</u> pupils

*<u>a</u> <u>Mary's</u> book

*<u>an</u> <u>M.J.</u> <u>Smith's</u> friend

are grammatically incorrect.

There are some exceptions, I think, in which the genitive structures begin with the definite article <u>the</u>.

 <u>the</u> <u>Joneses'</u> house

 <u>the</u> <u>Smiths'</u> garden

In such cases, the genitors themselves have had the definite article. They are plural proper names .

IV.1.2. Personal Nouns

 Examples: <u>the</u> <u>boy's</u> new bicycle

     <u>my</u> <u>sister-in-law's</u> problems

     <u>those</u> <u>students'</u> decision

     <u>his</u> <u>parents'</u> arrival

     <u>her</u> <u>baby's</u> weight

IV.1.3. Animal Nouns

Animal nouns which can take the genitive are particularly those denoting 'higher animals', for example:

  <u>the</u> <u>horse's</u> tail

  <u>the</u> <u>dog's</u> collar

  <u>cow's</u> milk

the tigress' stripes

that geese's neck

IV.1.4. Collective Nouns

Quirk et al state, "The genitive is also used with collective nouns which emphasize the aspect of 'organized individuals', in particular those denoting authoritative and other organizational bodies." (1985:324).

the Administration's policy

the government's conviction

the committee's decision

the Company's directions

the majority's platform

the party's elder statesmen

IV.1.5. Geographical Names

Examples:

continents	: Europe's future, Australia's natural resources
countries	: China's development, the United States' attitude
states	: Maryland's Democratic Senator Rhode Island's colonial period
cities and towns:	Hollywood's studios, London's water supply

> universities   :   <u>Harvard's</u> Department of
>
> Linguistics

Normally, articles cannot be used in genitive structures in which the genitor is a geographical name (Swan, 1981:70) unless the name itself has had an article. There are only a few geographical names that appear with the definite article <u>the</u>.

> * <u>the</u> <u>America's</u> economic problems
>
> * <u>the</u> <u>China's</u> development

Some exceptions are:

> <u>the</u> <u>United</u> <u>States'</u> attitude
>
> <u>the</u> <u>Netherlands'</u> future
>
> <u>the</u> <u>Sahara's</u> oasis

IV.1.6. Locative Nouns

These nouns refer to regions, institutions, heavenly bodies, etc. They can be very similar to geographical nouns, and are often written with initial capital letter.

<u>the</u> <u>earth's</u> interior	<u>the</u> <u>Club's</u> pianist
<u>the</u> <u>world's</u> economy	<u>the</u> <u>Gallery's</u> rotunda
<u>the</u> <u>city's</u> atmosphere	<u>the</u> <u>hotel's</u> entrance
<u>the</u> <u>Church's</u> mission	<u>the</u> <u>school's</u> history
<u>a</u> <u>country's</u> population	<u>the</u> <u>hall's</u> windows
<u>the</u> <u>moon's</u> rays	<u>the</u> <u>sun's</u> energy

IV.1.7. Temporal Nouns

a <u>day's</u> work	this <u>year's</u> sales
the <u>decade's</u> events	<u>yesterday's</u> mail
a <u>moment's</u> <u>thought</u>	ten <u>days'</u> absence
<u>today's</u> business	a <u>week's</u> holiday

IV.1.8. Other Nouns of 'Special Relevance to Human Activity'

Examples:

the <u>body's</u> needs	the <u>novel's</u> structure
the <u>brain's</u> total weight	the <u>play's</u> philosophy
the <u>book's</u> true importance	the <u>poll's</u> results
the <u>car's</u> colour	the <u>concerto's</u> movement
<u>duty's</u> call	the <u>poem's</u> meaning
<u>freedom's</u> name	<u>science's</u> influence
the <u>game's</u> history	the <u>ship's</u> surgeon
my <u>life's</u> aim	<u>television's</u> future
<u>love's</u> spirit	the <u>treaty's</u> ratification
the <u>mind's</u> development	the <u>wine's</u> character
the <u>machine's</u> construction	a <u>word's</u> function

I have stated before that nouns denoting lower animals and inanimate nouns commonly use a prepositional phrase instead of the genitive inflection. Here are some examples of them.

the various colours <u>of</u> <u>that</u> <u>butterfly</u>

the length <u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>snake</u>

the flight _of those beetles_

the windows _of the house_

the depth _of the ditch_

the legs _of the tables_

a man _from Greece_ (Swan, 1981:422)

the contents _of this box_

IV.2. _The Type of Noun Acting as a Headword_

Mostly, the usage of the genitive case can be identified with the type of noun acting as a genitor. However, in two special cases, the usage can best be described in terms of specific lexical noun heads (Quirk, et al., 1985:325,672). In the first case, the nouns _behalf, edge, end, expense, sake and surface_ become the headwords of the genitive structures.

(on) Jim's _behalf_   (in) her mother's _behalf_

(at) the river's _edge_   (at) the water's _edge_

(at) his journey's end   (at) his resources' _end_

(at) Susan's _expense_   (at) his son's _expense_

(for) George' _sake_   (for) art's _sake_

(on) the water's _surface_   (on) the earth's _surface_

These genitive expressions allow the alternative _of_-structures.

on behalf of Jim

at the edge of the river

at the end of his journey

at the expense of Susan

for the sake of George

on the surface of the water.

The underlined words in those structures constitute complex prepositions. In addition, the genitive inflection in the expression for ... sake is sometimes omitted. Some examples are below.

(for) brevity sake ⎱(Jespersen, 1976:139)
(for) fashion sake ⎰

(for) goodness sake)(Echols and Shadily, 1981:498)

In the second case, nouns such as end, length, reach, throw, worth, eye, content, way and breadth act as headwords.

(at one's) wit's end   the mind's eye

(at) arm's length   a hair's breadth

(within) arm's reach   (to one's) heart's content

a stone's throw   (out of) harm's way

our money's worth

These genitive expressions are internally invariable. They neither permit the structure of prepositional phrase postmodification nor the structure of noun premodification.

*the throw of a stone

*the worth of our money

*the mind eye

*a hair breadth

IV.3. <u>How</u> <u>a</u> <u>Noun</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>Genitive</u> <u>Case</u> <u>is</u> <u>Used</u>

IV.3.1 Preceding a Headword

Customarily, a noun in the genitive case is used before a headword. The headword is a noun (phrase). Various nouns/noun phrases can become the headword. Among others are specific nouns discussed in IV.2. We can look at the examples below.

```
-------------------------------
:  Genitor'(s)      Headword    :
-------------------------------
```

Genitor'(s)	Headword
John's	house
those students'	bicycles
Mary's	brother-in-law
the Company's	assistant directors
the plane's	arrival with food
the Joneses'	very expensive car
the world's	best universities
this country's	only university
Jill's	very own recipe
Tom's	life and death
My friend's	brothers and sisters
the hunter's	shooting the birds
Reagan's	being elected president
Mary's	singing on the radio

The examples show that the headwords might be nouns of one word, compound noun, modified nouns, coordinated nouns, gerunds or gerundival clauses.

IV.3.1.1. The Genitive Structure vs. The Structure of Prepositional Phrase Postmodification.

In many cases, the genitive structure (G'(s)H) can be replaced by a structure of prepositional phrase postmodification, especially with preposition of (H of G). Concerning the replacement, Otto Jespersen declares, "The of-combination has so far prevailed that there are very few cases where a genitive cannot be replaced by it" (1976:143).

Furthermore, Michael Swan presents two exceptions of the replacement. First, the replacement cannot occur if the genitor is animate and the genitive expression corresponds to G has H (1981:423).

Jack's landlady (but not: *the landlady of Jack)
my father's house (but not: *the house of my father).

Second, the replacement is not so common when the genitor constitutes the name of a person or animal (1981:422).

the cat's milk (but not: *The milk of the cat)
Mary's ear   (but not: *The ear of Mary)

IV.3.1.1.1. The Replacement in Relation to Meanings.

Meanwhile, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvick explain the replacement based on meaning (1980:60). They express that the genitive structures can often be

used with the same meaning as <u>of</u> constructions. The genitive structures include the possessive genitive, the subjective genitive, the objective genitive, the genitive of attributive, the genitive of association, the appositive genitive and the partitive genitive. (Here I adapt their terms of meanings to I use in chapter III.)

Dr. Brown's son   -----> the son of Dr. Brown
the   train's departure ---> the departure   of   the
                              train
the prisoner's release ---> the release of the
                              prisoner
the   earth's   surface   ---> the surface   of   the
                              earth
the   country's   beauty ---> the   beauty   of   the
                              country
the   party's   policy   ---> the   policy   of   the
                              party

Leech   and Svartvik's opinion that the   possessive genitive can be replaced by an <u>of</u>-construction is contrary to the first exception given by Swan. I tried to ask a native speaker, Michael Widman, which opinion is right. He agrees to Leech and Svartvik. The possessive genitive can be replaced by the of-structure even when the genitor is animate. In such a case, the genitive structure is preferred.

According to Leech and Svartvik , the _of_ constructions are not used when the genitive structures indicate the origin relation and various descriptive relations. In these cases, other prepositions are employed instead of _of_.

The examples are below:

John's telegram ----> a telegram from John

the general's letter ----> a letter from the general

a summer's day ----> a day in the summer

a women's college ----> a college for women

Actually, we sometimes can also employ other prepostions than _of_ in replacing the genitive structure of the previous types. The most important thing is that there is no likelihood of misunderstanding. We can see the following examples.

Tom and Jim's quarrel ---> the quarrel of Tom and Jim

the quarrel between Tom and Jim.

Bradley and Gaa's study

-----> the study of Bradley and Gaa

the study by Bradley and Gaa (Brophy and Good, 1974:67)

Hughes' similar experiment

-----> the similar experiment of Hughes

the similar experiment by Hughes (Brophy and Good , 1974:70)

IV.3.1.1.1.1. The Replacement of the Possessive Genitive

We must be careful with the replacement of the possessive genitive. Sometimes, the meaning of the _of_ construction will differ from that of the genitive structure.

> my father's portrait = My father has a portrait.
> The portrait can either represent him or not.
> a portrait of my father (Christopherson & Sandred, 1974:33)
> = a portrait that represents him.
> Job's book   = one belonging to Job
> the Book of Job = a Book about Job
> the Book of Tobias = a Book about Tobias

Books of the Bible normally appear in the _of-_ construction. (Quirk, et al., 1985:1318).

IV. 3.1.1.1.2. The Replacement of the Objective Genitive.

Some genitive structures possess both subjective and objective meanings at the same time. Here are the examples.

> the family's support ⌐— The family support.
> �└—...supports the family.
> that man's murder ⌐— That man murdered.
> └— ... murdered that man.

It is not easy to decide which meaning is meant, let alone if the genitive structures emerge without adequate context.

However, there is a principle that can help us solve such a problem. Generally speaking, the objective genitive is not very common in ordinary English (Swan, 1981:423). Based on this principle, we can say that the two genitive structures tend to convey the subjective meaning. Meanwhile, if we want to express the objective meaning, we had better use an _of_-construction. In this regard, Quirk et al put so eloquently, "There is a tendency for genitives to be taken as subjective, and for _of_-constructions to be taken as objective" (1985:322).

```
Subjective    =   the family's support
                  that man's murder
Objective     =   the support of the family
                  the murder of that man
```

IV.3.1.1.1.3. The Replacement of the Appositive Genitive

The appositive genitive structure is seldom used now. As a substitution, an _of_-structure is normally adopted (Quirk, et al., 1972:193). Some examples are the following.

```
Dublin's fair city   --->   the fair city of Dublin
York's city          --->   the city of York
```

IV.3.1.1.1.4.   The Replacement of the Genitive Structure
Having a Locative Noun as the Genitor.

The   locative   noun (IV.1.6.) commonly   becomes a
genitive   when   the   headword   of   the   structure   is
premodified by a superlative adjective, an ordinal
numeral (first, second ...), a general ordinal, only,
same, or sole (Quirk, et al., 1985:325). The   general
ordinals in English are next, last, past,   other,
additional and further (=additional).
Examples:

> the world's best universities
>
> Africa's first arts festival
>
> Indonesia's last film festival
>
> this country's only university.

In   these   cases,   the   genitive   structures   are
generally replaced by in-constructions rather than by
of-ones.   As a result, the corresponding structures of
the genitive above are like these:

> the best universities in the world
>
> the first arts festival in Africa
>
> the last film festival in Indonesia
>
> the only university in this country.

IV.3.1.1.1.5. The   Replacement   of   the   Genitive
of Measurement

The genitive structures of which the genitors are temporal nouns are not normally replaced by of-constructions. Although sometimes for- constructions can substitute such genitive structures, the genitive ones are the more common. Concerning this respect, Frank states so clearly that in many cases the genitive forms may be employed for inanimate nouns, but that only with temporal nouns are the genitive forms the more usual ones (1972:14,15).

> last Sunday's match
> next Tuesday's meeting
> the two weeks' holiday
> today's menu ---> the menu for today
> yesterday's newspaper ---> the
> newspaper for yesterday

IV.3.1.1.2. The Reasons for one Structure being more Common than the other.

In many cases, the of-construction can be used instead of the genitive structure. In such a situation the genitive structure might be more common than the of-construction for certain reasons, and vice-versa. These reasons also enable some replacements that commonly cannot be done to happen.

IV.3.1.1.2.1. The Genitor: Animate or Inanimate

Between those two possible structures, the

genitive one is preferred if the genitor is an animate noun. On the other hand, the <u>of</u>-structure is liked better when the genitor refers to an inanimate noun. Examples: his parents' consent (more common)

                the consent of his parents

                the train's arrival

                the arrival of the train (more common)

IV.3.1.1.2.2. The Principle of End-Focus and End-Weight

This principle encourages "the placing of more complex and communicatively more important constituents towards the end of the superordinate noun phrase" (Quirk, et al., 1985:1282). When the headword has a higher communicative value than the genitor does, the genitive structure is more usual. Conversely, when the communicative value of the genitor is higher, the <u>of</u>-construction is favoured. As an illustration, Quirk et al present the following examples:

> The speaker said that, among the global
> problems that face us now, the chief one is
> <u>the world's</u> economy. (<u>Economy</u> is in focus.)
> He went on to say, however, that in order to
> succeed we must first tackle <u>the economy of the</u>
> <u>industrialized nations</u>, which is the basis for
> <u>the sound economy of the world</u> (<u>World</u> is in
> focus.)

This principle also explains why the of-construction is preferred to express the appositive meaning and, often, the partitive as well. According to Quirk et al the use of the genitive structure for these meanings will bring about undesirable or absurd final prominence (1985:323).

the part of the problem

*the problem's part

the shock of his resignation

*his resignation's shock.

IV.3.1.1.2.3. To Avoid Awkwardness

When the genitor or the headword is long, the of-construction is used to avoid awkwardness (Hodges, 1956:61). Here are some examples.

The wagon of the boy who lives next door was stolen

The hat of the man I saw yesterday was good.

It is the fault of the man who wrote it.

The departure of the 4.30 train for Edinburgh is always punctual. (Leech and Svartvik, 1981: 61)

The daughter of a man I met in the army is kind.

The very long and graceful tail of the old black cat is interesting. (Frank, 1972:14)

Margaret had gone to a birthday party at the house of a friend of hers. (Eckersly, 1958:3)

The children of John and Mary (Quirk, 1985:964)

The reason for avoiding awkwardness even enables the replacement of the possessive genitive which has an animate genitor. Look at the first, the second, the fifth, the seventh and the eight examples above. If the genitor or the headword is short, such a replacement does not commonly happen. (Cf.IV.3.1.1.)

The genitive structure of which the genitor or the headword is long may only be used in colloquial speech (Christophersen and Sandved, 1974:31).
Examples:

> The boy who lives next door's wagon ...
>
> The man I saw yesterday 's hat ...
>
> ... the man who wrote it 's fault.
>
> The 4.30 train for Edinburgh's departure ...
>
> A man I met in the army's daughter ...

IV.3.1.1.2.4. To Avoid the Repeated s's

The of-construction should be used to avoid a sequence of s's. In English the repeated of's is less resented than the repeated s's. Therefore, it will be better to state:

> the wife of a clergyman of the church of England
> (Jespersen, 1976:143)
>
> the godfather of the only child of the first
> husband of my wife (Jespersen, 1976:143)

the son of the daughter of Pharaoh (Hornby, 1975:152)

the daughter of the second cousin of my brother-in-law (Whitford and Foster, 1957:62)

the clothing of the employer of these chic women (Quirk, et al., 1985:1344)

instead of saying:

the wife of England's church's clergyman

the godfather of my wife's first husband's only child

the son of Pharaoh's daughter

the daughter of Pharaoh's son

the daughter of my brother-in-law's second cousin

the clothing of these chic women's employer

or:

England's church's clergyman's wife

my wife's first husband's only child's godfather

Pharaoh's daughter's son

my brother-in-law's second cousin's daughter

these chic women's employer's clothing.

Talking about the repeated s's, Quirk et al express, "Although there is no theoretical limit to such sequences of genitives, there seems to be a practical limit of two - anything more being stylistically objectionable, comic, and difficult to comprehend." (1985:1344)

IV.3.1.1.2.5. The Genitive Plural

The genitive plural of regular nouns is very seldom used since it is the same as the genitive singular in speech. The of-construction is used to avoid the possibility of misunderstanding (Hornby, 1975:152).

What's the doctor's opinion? (singular)

What's the opinion of the doctors ? (plural)

As a consequence, we say:

the husbands of my aunts

the jewels of our friends

the opinions of these doctors

the faces of the servants,

but not:

my aunts' husbands

our friends' jewels

these doctors' opinions

the servants' faces

However, the genitive plural can be used when there is no probability of misunderstanding, for example:

Your parents' wishes

the singular parent rarely occurs. Mother or father is preferred. Other instances are in the genitive of measurement and in the classifying genitives (Jesperson, 1976:139).

the two weeks' holiday

a two hours' walk

girls' friendship

a lovers' quarrel

schoolboys' clothes

IV.3.1.2. The Genitive Structure vs. The Structure of
Noun Premodification

The structure of nominal premodification can very
seldom alternate freely with the genitive structure.
Here are some examples (Brophy and Good, 1974: 10, 45,
53,55).

Leacock's study   - the Leacock study

Datta, Schaefer, and Davis' study - the Datta,
Schaefer, and Davis's study

Rosenthal and Jacobson's study = the Rosenthal and
Jacobson study

Rosenthal and Jacobson's data = the Rosenthal and
Jacobson data

Beez' study = the Beez study

The alternation can be clarified like this. The genitive
structures are replaced by structure of prepositional
phrase postmodification.

the study by Leacock

the study by Datta, Schaefer and Davis

the study by Rosenthal and Jacobson

the data from Rosenthal and Jacobson

the study by Beez

Then such structures are replaced by the structures of noun premodification to reduce the explicitness. The change may happen as long as the relationships between the nouns remain clear and predictable (Quirk, et al., 1985:1330).

Besides, the same nouns sometimes can be put both in the genitive structure and in the structure of noun premodification. However, the meanings that are expressed by the two structures are somewhat different. Here are the examples.

> Please don't put the dog's food under the kitchen
>
> table, Lucy.

> Dog food costs nearly as much as steak.

In presenting the examples, Swan says that the genitive structure can be used when the genitor is a particular individual. The dog's food means the food that a particular dog is going to eat. However, when the structure of noun premodification is employed, the genitor denotes a whole class. Dog food is food for dogs in general (1981:422).

Furthermore, Swan exposes four cases in which it is difficult to choose between the genitive structure and the structure of noun premodification (1981:425).

IV.3.1.2.1. Produced by/from Animals

Products from living animals are usually expressed in the genitive structure. However, in the situation where the animal is killed to provide the product, the structure of noun premodification is commonly used.

Examples:

cow's milk	chicken-soup
a bird's egg	fox fur
lamb's wool	chamois leather
a hen's egg	calf-skin
sheep's wool	a lamb chop

IV.3.1.2.2. Used by

Both the genitive structure and the structure of noun premodification often show the connection between a 'user' and a 'thing that is used.' The difference is that the latter structure is especially common in cases where the 'user' does not control what is taking place.

Examples:

a girl's blouse blouse	baby clothes
boy's socks	a dog kennel
the directors' lift	a baby carriage
women's magazine	a birdcage
a doll's house (BE)	a doll-house (AE)

IV.3.1.2.3. Parts

We usually employ the structure of noun premodification (or the structure of prepositional phrase postmodification) to state parts of inanimate things. On the other hand, we adopt the genitive structure to talk about parts of people's and animal's bodies.

Examples:

a table leg	a man's leg
the car door	a baby's arm
the door-knob	a cow's horn
a motorbike engine	a frog's leg

Swan says further that we sometimes can express parts of things in the genitive structure, namely, when we discuss about a particular example.

Compare:

A <u>car engine</u> usually lasts for about 80,000 miles.

That <u>car's engine</u> is making a funny noise.

IV.3.1.2.4. Expressions of Time

The expression of time that has a 'general' meaning appears in the structure of noun premodification. Conversely, the expressions that denote particular moments, times, days, etc. occur in the genitive structure.

Examples:

> the nine o'clock news (a news broadcast that is on
>
> > at nine o'clock every night)
>
> the Sunday joint (a meat dish that is eaten every
>
> > Sunday)
>
> a Sunday paper (a paper that comes out on Sundays)
>
> What do you think of last Sunday's match?
>
> Have you read yesterday's paper?
>
> tomorrow's weather
>
> today's post

Meanwhile, expressions of time beginning with a number can come in both structures.

three days' journey	a three-day journey
five minutes' rest	a five-minute rest
ten minutes' walk	a ten-minute walk

Two conclusions can be drawn from the discussion above. First, the relation between the premodifier and the headword in the structure of noun premodification is frequently close. Therefore, the noun premodifier is often regarded as compounded with the headword (Quirk, et al., 1985:1330). Second, usually two nouns appear in such a structure to describe "a common, well known kind of thing that needs a special name" (Swan, 1981:424).

IV.3.1.3. The Headword of the Genitive Structure is an

-ing Form

In the structures where the headwords are gerunds or gerundival clauses, the genitive nouns become the "subjects" of the -ing forms (Frank, 1972:314-318). To understand Frank's statement, we have to make corresponding sentences of such genitive structures.

the hunter's shooting the birds ---> The hunter shot the birds.
Reagan's being elected president ---> Reagan was elected president.
Mary's singing on the radio ---> Mary sang/sings on the radio.

It is clear now that the genitive nouns correspond to the grammatical subjects of those sentences.

There are three significant matters relating to this usage of genitive. First, in some cases, the "subject" of the -ing form can be either in a genitive form or in an unchanged form (IV.3.1.3.1). Second, in some other cases, the "subject" must be in genitive form (IV.3.1.3.2.). Third, the "subject" might be in an of phrase or in a genitive form (IV.3.1.3.3.).

Note: I do not discuss about an -ing form without its "subject" here.

IV.3.1.3.1. The "Subject" of the ing Form: in the Genitive or Unchanged Form.

The "subject" of the -ing form can be in the genitive or unchanged form when the -ing form comes after certain verbs and after prepositions. The examples are the following.

After a preposition:

She went there without | her brother's | knowing about it.
| her brother |

There is a real danger of | a war's | destroying the
| a war | world.

George looks forward to | Mary's | becoming his
| Mary | neighbour.

He objects to | the door's | not being open.
| the door |

What is meant by the preposition here include that after a certain verb such as <u>approve of, disapprove of, insist on</u> and <u>object to</u> (Thomson and Martinet, 1983:231).

After a certain verb:

I disliked | John's | driving my car.
| John |

They cannot prevent | their son's | leaving
| their son (<u>from</u>) | the country.

Forgive | my brother's | ringing you up so early.
| my brother <u>for</u> |

I can't understand | the door's | not being open.
| the door |

The succeeding verbs can be followed by either the genitive form plus an -<u>ing</u> form or the unchanged form plus an <u>ing</u> form (Quirk,et al.,1985:1190; Thomson and Martinet, 1983:231). They are: <u>bear, begrudge, detest, discourage, dislike, dread, envisage, fancy, forget, hate, (can't help), imagine, involve, justify, like,</u>

loathe, love, mean, mind, miss, need, permit, propose
(=suggest), recall, recollect, recommend, regret,
relish, remember, resent, risk, save, (can't) stand,
start, stop, suggest, understand, want. Next, prevent
precedes the genitive form plus an -ing form or the
unchanged form (+ from) + an -ing form. The use of from
is optional. Finally, excuse, forgive and pardon take
either the genitive form plus an -ing form or the
unchanged form + for + an -ing form (Thomson and
Martinet, 1983:230).

In the situation where the "subject' of the -ing
form can be in either the genitive or the unchanged
form, the choice between them is determined by three
items (Frank, 1972: 316,317). First, the genitive form
is required in formal usage. In other words, we use the
unchanged form in informal usage. Second, the genitive
form is more common when the "subject" is an animate
noun. Third, "subjects" with modifiers, especially
postmodifiers, usually do not appears in the genitive
form even in formal usage. The examples of the third
item are below.

> There is no need of the president of the company
> attending the meeting.
> I cannot bear the thought of my best friend, once
> so rich and powerful, being almost destitute
> now.

IV.2.3.1.3.2. The "Subject" of the -ing Form: always in the Genitive Form

The "subject" of the -ing form can only appear in the genitive form in the following two cases. In the first case, the verb appreciate precedes the -ing form (Thomson and Martinet, 1983:230).

I appreciate Jane's giving me so much of her time. In the second case, the -ing form becomes the subject of a sentence. The genitive form is obligatory in both formal and informal usage in such a situation (Frank, 1972:316; Quirk, et al., 1985:1064).

That man's undertaking such a difficult task is to be commended.

IV.3.1.3.3. The "Subject" of the -ing Form: in an of Phrase or a Genitive Form

An of-phrase "subject" is used mostly with an -ing form which is derived from an intransitive verb (Frank, 1972:318). In this respect, the "subject" might be an animate or inanimate noun. The, or sometimes another determiner, precedes this kind of "subject".
Examples:

The shouting of the children disturbed his sleep.
The plotting and intriguing of the ambassador for his own ends finally caused his dismissal.

The "subject" of such an _-ing_ form can sometimes occur either in an _of_-phrase or in the genitive form if the "subject" constitutes an animate noun.

the shouting of the children

the children's shouting

the crying of that girl

that girl's crying

IV.3.2. Coming Alone without a Headword

The genitive nouns that occur without their headwords can be divided into two groups, namely, the elliptic genitive and the local genitive.

IV.3.2.1. The Elliptic Genitive

The headword in a genitive structure can be deleted to avoid repetition (Crowell, 1964:235). In such a case, the headword is clear in the context. A noun that is identical to this headword appears before or after the genitive noun. For this reason, the term semi-independent genitive is suggested to this genitive by Christophersen and Sandved (1974:33). Whereas, Quirk and his friends name it the elliptic genitive or the independent genitive because "this genitive is frequently an elliptical variant of a noun phrase in which the genitive has its usual determinative function " (Quirk, et al., 1976:202; 1985:329).

Examples:

    I parked my car next to <u>John's</u>. (=John's ear)

    <u>Mary's</u> was the prettiest dress. (=Mary's dress)

    His own fortune was lost; <u>his dead wife's</u> remained. (=his dead wife's fortune)

    This year's mixed doubles final was much better than <u>last year's</u>. (=last year's mixed doubles final)

    A study very similar to <u>Carter's</u> was performed by Panda and Guskin. (=Carter's study)

    John's is a nice house. (=John's house)

IV.3.2.2. The Local Genitive

Genitive nouns can emerge with no following headwords to express three cases, namely, normal residences, institutions and places for business.

IV.3.2.2.1. Normal Residences

    Roger was down at <u>the Watsons'</u> last night.

    She is staying at <u>my aunt's</u>.

    I have stayed at <u>the Johnsons'</u> for two weeks.

Swan stresses that people's residences can come without headwords if we are talking about the host-guest relationship (1981:263).

IV.3.2.2.2. Institutions such as public buildings

St Paul's (Cathedral)

Saint Joseph's (Church)

St James's (Palace)

Queen's (College)

Saint John's (College)

As the examples show, the genitor is usually a saint's name.

IV.3.2.2.3. Places where business is conducted, for examples, shops, restaurants and offices

the barber's	the butcher's
the hairdresser's	the grocer's
the chemist's (BE)	the florist's
the druggist's (AE)	the jeweller's
Harrod's	the dentist's
Mary's	the doctor's
Marks and Spencer's	the optician's
Selfridge's	wheeler's
Woolworth's	Tiddy Dol's

In the third usage of the local genitive, the apostrophe plus s (Swan, 1981: 263) or the apostrophe (Gorrell and Laird, 1956: 518) is often omitted, especially with a proper name which has become established.

She is at the hairdresser.

I will go to the chemist.

Harrod's   -------> Harrod

Harrod's   -------> Harrods

Selfridge's -------> Selfridges

Columbia University Teachers College

However, the s ending such as in Harrods,
Selfridges, Barclays and Woolworths is sometimes
regarded as a plural inflection. Besides, Harrod,
Selfridge etc. are also considered as collective unities.
As a result, there is uncertainty in concord (Quirk,
et al., 1985:330).
Examples:

Harrod's			
Harrods	is		very good for clothes.
Harrod	are		

IV.3.3. Being Combined with an of-Construction

The combination of a genitive and an of-
construction brings about the so-called post-genitive or
double genitive. In this structure, an independent
genitive comes after of. The examples are as follows.

a friend of my mother's

a work of Milton's

some friends of Jim's

any daughter of Mrs. Brown's

a portrait of my father's

The post-genitive is peculiar (Quirk, et al., 1985:1283). First, its postmodifier must be definite and human. In the examples above, the postmodifiers are: <u>of my mother's, of Milton's, of Jim's, of Mrs. Brown's</u> and <u>of my father's</u>. Second, the headword must be basically indefinite. Accordingly, a proper noun cannot be the headword, neither can noun with a definite article

*<u>Mary</u> of Mrs. Brown's

*<u>the daughter</u> of Mrs. Brown's

Nonetheless, there is an exception in which a demonstrative (<u>this, that, these</u> or <u>those</u>) can precede the headword. Here, familiarity is assumed beforehand (Hornby, 1975:154). The examples are below.

That bad temper of Jim's is annoying.

That remark of Susan's was impertinent.

This <u>War Requiem</u> of Britten's is very sad.

That wife of Dickens' is friendly.

'That bad temper of Jim's' suggest 'Jim's well-known bad temper', and 'this <u>War Requiem</u> of Britten's' means 'this instance of Britten's works, namely, <u>War Requiem</u>.'

Compared to the common genitive G'sH, the post-genitive expresses indefiniteness.

Milton's work

a work of Milton's

The former genitive indicates 'one particular work of Milton' . Conversely, the latter refers to either 'one indefinite work of Milton' or 'one of Milton's works.'

According to Christophersen and Sandved, the post-genitive enables us to distinguish the two structures below (1974:33).

a portrait of my father (=one representing him)

a portrait of my father's (=one belonging to him, or possibly one painted by him).

IV.3.4. Being Used in a Coordination

Genitives are sometimes coordinated when they have determinative functions (Cf. chapter V.). An example of a coordination of genitive is as follows.

John's and Mary's children

Quirk et al explain that the coordination might be interpreted in either a combinatory or a segregatory fashion (1985:963).

Combinatory: 'the children who are joint offspring of John and Mary'

Segregatory: 'John's child and Mary's child'

    or   'John's children and Mary's child'

    or   'John's child and Mary's children'

    or   'John's children and Mary's children'

A further ellipsis can be made if the combinatory meaning is meant.

[John and Mary]'s children = the children of John and Mary.

Among the three possible structures:

John and Mary's children

the children of John and Mary

John's and Mary's children

the first is used in informal speech. The other two are
favoured in formal English. Between these two formal
structures, the former is preferred.

IV.4. The Use of the Genitive Case in Daily Use

The use of the genitive case is becoming
increasingly common in colloquial speech, magazines,
newspapers, and radio and television reports (Hornby,
1975:153). In magazines and newspapers, for examples,
the genitive case is very often used in headlines for
two reasons (Quirk, et al., 1972:201). First, the
genitive case offers brevity - an important point in
headlines. Second, the case provides prominence to the
noun acting as the genitor. The examples of headlines
containing nouns in the genitive case are as follows.

'Co Thach's speech solves no problem'

Indonesia's garlic imports

Matshita's new chip

Norway's Statoit profits

PNG's gold prospects

Protectionism blamed as major treat to ASEAN's
    progress

Japan's economy may not record vigorous recovery
    in near future

Queen's husband talks about adultery

North's suit against prosecutor dropped

Indonesia's urbanization rate outpaces world average

Democracy's Fragile Flower Spreads Its Robots

We're Still Jefferson's Children

Ollie's Turn

The Marine's Private Army

Broadway's Gypsy Genius

Russia's Real Target: Middle East Oil

Inside American's First Test-Tube-Baby Clinic

The first ten headlines are from The Jakarta Post, March 14, 1987: pages 1, 4, 5, 6. The next five are from Time, July 13, 1987: 16,21,22,27,42. Finally, the last two are from Reader's Digest, July, 1980: 61,125 .

Besides, the genitive case is very frequently employed in the field of literature, especially by poets. Whereas, the of-structure is usual in prose (Jespersen, 1976: 144). Some examples follow.

And the sorrow's crown of sorrow is rememb'ing happier things (Tennyson)

Let me store deep in memory's chest the treasures (Lura Bailey Jones)

For Hope is the music of the soul played on the heart's unbroken string. (Patience Strong)

> Of   the plunge in a pool's living water, the   hunt
>
>   of the bear (Robert Browning)
>
> O who will walk a mile with me
>
> Along life's merry way?   (Henry van Dyke)
>
> It takes a breath of scented air,
>
> A   mother's kiss, a baby's prayer (William L.
>
>   Stidger)

I think the poets are fond of the genitive case   because
they   like to personify inanimate things. Moreover,   the
realization of the genitive inflection in speech can
produce beautiful sounds which are significant   in
poetry.

Chapter V

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE GENITIVE

Having talked about the forms in chapter II, the meanings in chapter III and the usage in chapter IV, I want to complete my discussion about the genitive case of English noun with a chapter about the functions of the genitive nouns. This chapter is divided into six sections: first, as a determinative; second, as a modifier; third, as a prepositional complement; fourth, as a subject; fifth, as a subject complement; and sixth, as an object.

V.1. As Determinative

The most common function of the genitive is as a determinative. As a determinative, the genitive fills a slot in the noun phrase, and it is equivalent to a central determiner such as the (Quirk, et al., 1985:326).

Examples:

Determinative	Headword
the	children
Fanny's	children
that woman's	children
that kind woman's	children
the King of Denmark's	children

119

Determiners and premodifiers precede a headword (Quirk,et al.,1985:1340,253,437). The determiners can be classified based on their positions in the noun phrase. They are predeterminers (<u>for</u> <u>example:</u> <u>all,</u> <u>both,</u> <u>half,</u> <u>such</u>), central determiners (<u>the,</u> <u>this,</u> <u>that,</u> <u>these,</u> <u>those,</u> <u>some,</u> <u>a,</u> <u>an,</u> <u>etc.</u>) and postdeterminers (<u>one,second,many,a</u> <u>lot</u> <u>of,</u>etc.). Whereas, the premodifiers can be divided into four zones: precentral, central , postcentral and prehead. The first zone is for peripheral, nongradable adjectives, for example, <u>certain,</u> <u>complete</u> <u>and</u> <u>definite</u>. The second is for the most adjectival items such as <u>hungry,</u> <u>ugly</u> <u>and</u> <u>rich</u>. The third includes participles and colour adjectives, e.g., <u>retired</u> <u>and</u> <u>sleeping</u>. The last includes the 'least adjectival and most nominal' items, for instance, <u>American,</u> <u>social,</u> <u>and</u> <u>tourist</u>. As a whole, the sequence of them will be predeterminer, central determiner, postdeterminer, precentral premodifier, central premodifier, postcentral premodifier, prehead premodifier and finally the headword.

Taking the sequence as a point of departure, we can put a postdeterminer and/or premodifiers between the genitive noun and the headword. Even, the headword might also be postmodified. Meanwhile, the genitive can also consist of more than one word (We can see the group genitive). As a result, we may regard the genitive as a

noun phrase that fills a definite determinative function
within another noun phrase (Quirk, et al., 1985:326).

Superordinate Noun Phrase	
Genitive Noun Phrase	
that kind women's	polite children
every teacher's	guide to child psychology
the Italian government's	recent decision
the King of Denmark's	happy family

Figure V:1 The structure of the superordinate noun phrase
with a genitive noun phrase as a determina-
tive.

The determinative function implies that the
genitive phrase normally takes the initial position of
the superordinate noun phrase. Consequently, words
before the genitive belong to the genitive, and not to
the headword of the superordinate noun phrase (let us
see the figure above).

The result will be different if a predeterminer
begins the superordinate noun phrase. In such a case,
the predeterminer may belong to either the genitive noun
phrase or the superordinate one. The examples are
below.

both [the girl 's] parents = both parents of the
girl

[both the girls'] parents = the parents of both
the girls

All in all, I can gain some conclusions. The
genitive that functions as a determinative is a
specifying genitive occurring before a headword. Some
facts prove that the genitive is specifying. First,
words can be inserted between the genitive and the
headword. Second, words before the genitive normally
belong to the genitive itself.

V.2. As a Modifier

A genitive noun that appears before a headword
sometimes functions as a modifier. According to Quirk,
et al,such a genitive has "a classifying role similar to
that of noun modifiers and some adjective modifiers."
(1985, 327). In other words, this genitive is placed in
the prehead zone in the sequence of premodifiers.

Four implications of this function are the
following. First, no words can usually be put between
the genitive and the headword. It is only occasionally
that the headword itself has a premodifier. Second,
words before the genitive normally belong to the
headword, rather than to the genitive. There are only a
few cases where the genitive itself contains a
premodifier. Third, the connection between the genitive

and the headword is very close. Even, the connection
might be so close that the genitive and the headword
produce a compound. Fourth, the genitive that functions
as a modifier, therefore, is a classifying one.

Superordinate Noun Phrase		
	Genitive	
his old	fisherman's	cottage
a new	women's	university
a good	ship's	doctor
ten	farmers'	wives
a	child's	play
	mind's	eyes
a	bull's	- eye
my	cat's	paw
those	farm workers'	cottages
a	first-year-undergraduate's	essay
	poor man's	Worcester porcelain

Figure V:2 The structure of the superordinate noun
phrase with a genitive noun as a modifier.

In the first four examples the relation between the
genitive and the headword is very close. The examples
are descriptive genitive. In the next four, the
connection is so close that the genitive and the
headword become a compound. The rest of the examples
show cases where the genitive or the headword possesses
a modifier.

We can draw a tree diagram to show the difference between the structure with a determinative genitive in it and the structure containing a genitive as a modifier.

Genitive as a determinative:

that kind woman's   polite children

the Italian government's   recent decision
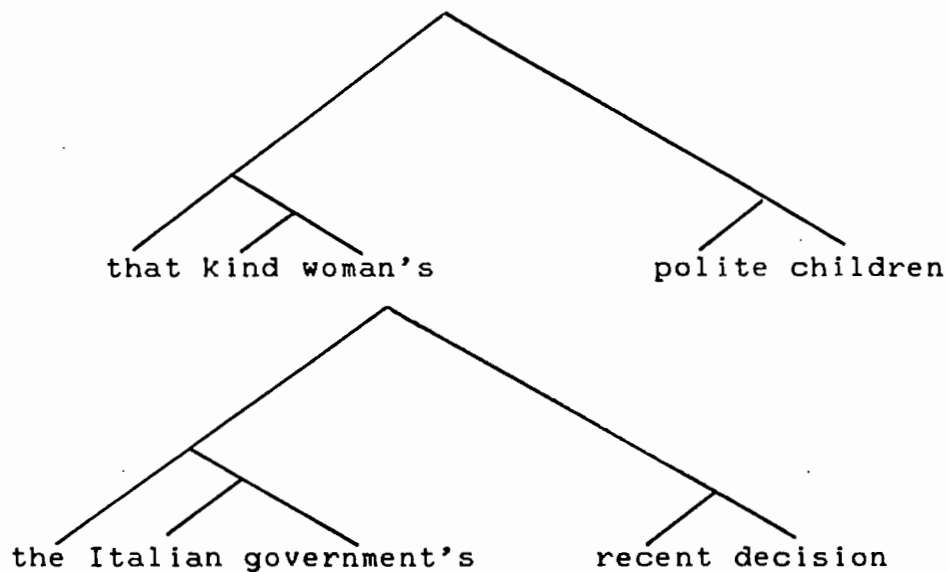
Figure V:3 A tree diagram of the structure with a genitive functioning as a determinative

his old fisherman's   cottage

a new blue   lady's umbrella
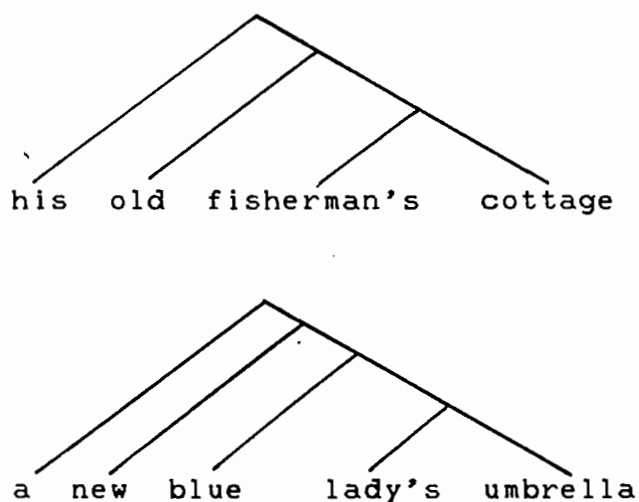
Figure V.4 A tree diagram of the structure with a genitive functioning as a modifier.

V.3. As a Prepositional Complement

A genitive noun without a headword often functions as a prepositional complement. The examples are the following.

Some friends of Jim's

A pupil of Joseph Haydn's

My mother will go to the dentist's.

I met my neighbour at the chemist's.

He is staying at his aunt's now.

My sister has just come home from the hairdresser's.

Wendy has just been shopping in Harrod's.

Her father was the vicar of St. Andrew's.

V.4. As a Subject

A genitive noun without a headword can also function as a subject in a sentence.

Examples:

Old St. Paul's was burnt down in 1666.

Mary's was the prettiest dress.

The tobacconist's is at the corner.

Liberty's is probably best known for its beautiful printed silk.

Harrod's is very good for clothes.

V.5. As a Subject Complement

Some genitives, namely, elliptic and local ones
may have a function as a subject complement.
Examples:

> The idea was Kathy's
>
> Those cards are my parents'. Don't touch them.
>
> That house is John's.
>
> That car becomes my brother's.
>
> That is Tiffany's.
>
> The big building over there seems a grocer's.
>
> Look! That was St. James's.

V.6. As an Object

An independent genitive can also take a function
as an object in a sentence.
Example:

> If you can't afford a sleeping bag, why not borrow
> your cousin's.
>
> You may touch my cards, but you may not touch my
> parents' at all.
>
> Would you like to see Madame Tussaud's?
>
> I really admire St. Paul's.
>
> My sister chose Queen's as her place for studying
> mathematics.

Chapter VI

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR THE TEACHING
OF THE GENITIVE CASE OF ENGLISH NOUNS

After studying the forms, the meanings, the usages and the functions of the genitive case of English nouns, in this chapter I intend to conclude the study and suggest the teaching of the case. This chapter, therefore, has two sections, namely, the conclusions and the suggestions for the teaching of the genitive case of English nouns.

VI.1. Conclusions

I can draw some conclusions after analysing the genitive case of English nouns: first, the rules of the formation and pronunciation of the genitive inflections; second, the various meanings of genitive; third, the gender class of the genitive nouns; fourth, the repracements of the genitive structures; and fifth, the distribution of the genitive nouns.

VI.1.1. The Rules for the Formatioh and Pronunciation of the Genitive Inflections

The formation of the genitive follows certain rules. Some types of genitors have to take an apostrophe

plus s̲. They are irregular plural nouns , singular nouns not ending in a sibilant, singular ancient names ending in a sibilant, but not in [i:z], and singular nouns ending in [s, ʃ , ʒ , tʃ, dʒ]. Some other kinds of genitors are added by an apostrophe only. These genitors include regular plural nouns, sibilant-ended ancient names of more than one syllable and sibilant-ended singular nouns in the expression for ... sake and sibilant-ended singular nouns followed by a word beginning with an [s].Meanwhile, [z]-ended singular nouns may have both two inflections.

Similarly, there are rules to pronounce the genitive inflections. Mostly, the apostrophe without s̲ is not realized in speech. On the other hand, the apostrophe with s̲ is pronounced according to the rules of the pronunciation of the -s inflection of verbs and plural nouns. Thus, there are three realizations of the apostrophe plus s̲ in speech: [s], [z], and [ɪz]. The first is for genitors ending in sounds [p,t,k,f,θ,h]. The second is for the ones ending in voiced sounds which are not sibilants. The last is for sibilant - ended genitors. In brief, the choice among [s], [z] and [ɪz] is determined by the ending sound of the genitor.

The genitor may consist of more than one word. Such a genitor usually takes an apostrophe plus s̲, except for some cases. First, the group of words has its

last element pluralized with an -s inflection. Next, the last element of the genitor ends in a sibilant and the genitor appears in the expression _for ... sake_ or is followed by a word beginning with an [s]. Moreover, the last element of the genitor is a sibilant- ended ancient name of more than one syllable. Finally, the final element is singular ending in [z]. In the first three cases, an apostrophe without s is employed. In the last situation, an apostrophe without s becomes a more common variant of 's.

IV.1.2. The Various Meanings of Genitive

In fact, the meanings of the genitive vary. The genitive case expresses 'possession' in a very wide sense as well as other types of relations. Based on meaning, the genitive structures can be classified into the possessive genitive, the subjective genitive, the objective genitive, the genitive of atributive, the genitive of association, the partitive genitive, the genitive of origin, the genitive of measurement, the appositive genitive, the descriptive genitive, the idiomatic genitive and some miscellaneous genitives. Thus, the thought that the genitive case only conveys the meaning of possession is incorrect.

The semantic classification of the genitive is in part arbitrary. It means that sometimes one genitive structure may express more than one meaning, especially

when the structure has no context. However, if the genitive structure occurs in a context, the context will usually indicate which meaning is intended.

VI.1.3. The Gender Class of the Genitive Nouns

The genitive case is used with nouns which are highest on the gender scale, namely, animate nouns, in particular persons and animals with personal gender characteristics. Conversely, nouns of the bottom part of the gender scale occur in prepositional phrases in order to express similar meanings.

A number of nouns which are lowest on the gender scale, however, can emerge with the genitive inflections. They are geographical names, locative nouns, temporal nouns and other nouns of special relevance to human activity.

VI.1.4. The Replacements of the Genitive Structures

In many cases, the genitive structure can be replaced by the structure of prepositional phrase postmodification, especially the of-structure. However, one of the structures is usually preferred by native speakers for certain reasons such as giving emphasis, avoiding awkwardness, preventing the possibility of misunderstanding, refraining from repeating s's, and exhibiting brevity.

The genitive structure seldom alternates freely with the structure of noun premodification. Sometimes the two structures are similar in expressing some cases, but still the meanings they convey are slightly different. One important thing to know is that the relation between the premodifier and the headword in the structure of noun premodification is generally close.

VI.1.5. The Distribution of the Genitive Nouns

The genitive noun which turns up before the headword in a noun phrase often functions as a determinative, and sometimes functions as a modifier. As a determinative, the genitive is equivalent to a central determiner. The genitive functioning as a determinative conveys a specific meaning. On the other hand, the genitive is placed in the prehead zone of premodifiers when it functions as a modifier. Such a genitive noun has a 'class' meaning.

There are four possible functions taken by the genitive noun without a headword . First, the genitive noun functions as a prepositional complement. Second, the genitive becomes the subject of the sentence. Third, the genitive is a subject complement. Finally, the genitive takes the function of the object of the sentence.

VI.2. <u>Suggestions for the Teaching of the Genitive Case</u>
<u>of English Nouns</u>

After concluding the study of the genitive case of
English nouns, I want to suggest some significant points
about its teaching. Hopefully, the points will be
useful for teachers of English to improve their teaching,
expecially to Indonesian students, or at least to offer
an alternative to teach the case.

First, the teacher should realize that there is no
genitive case in the Indonesian language .
Therefore, he needs to explain the genitive case of
English nouns in detail - from the easiest part to the
most difficult one. Besides, he should be full of
understanding if his students face difficulties in
studying this case. As we know, the genitive case is one
of the most difficult grammatical elements in English,
and the students have no genitive case in the
Indonesian language as a comparison. Consequently, the
teacher has to guide them patiently to come to
understanding.

Second, the teaching should begin with the form
since it is the easiest part. Each written or spoken
form of the genitive inflection should be thoroughly
clarified. Special cases and exceptions dealing with
the form must be stressed. The teacher can give a
diagram of the spoken and written forms of the genitive

like figure II:2 to summarize his explanation. Then, he should make the students familiar with the forms by giving some exercises.

There are many possible drills, for example, by using names of students and objects that can represent every form of the genitive. First, the teacher asks, for example, Tutik, Tono and Arnis to come in front of the class. Then, he can use their names to familiarize the students with the genitive forms.
For examples:

Teacher   : Tutik has long hair. Tutik's hair is long.
              How about Tono's hair?

Students   : Tono's hair is short.

Teacher   : Now compare Tutik's hair to that of Arnis.
              Are they different or not?

Students   : Yes, they are.
              Arnis's hair is longer than Tutik's hair.
              Arnis's hair is black, but Tutik's hair is brown.
              Tutik's hair is not so straight as Arnis's hair.

Here, he has practised them to use 's, [s], [z], and [ɪz]. Moreover, he can practise the use of the apostrophe by asking about the students' parents, articles and so on. The example follows.

```
Teacher  : Arnis, what does your father do ?

Arnis    : My father is a teacher.

Teacher  : Tutik, is your father a teacher, too?

Tutik    : Yes, he is.

Teacher  : Students, what do you know about these
           girls' fathers?

Students : Those girls' fathers are teachers.
           Those girls' fathers have the same job.
           Their fathers' jobs are the same.
```

In order to check the spelling of the genitive inflections ('s or '), the teacher may tell the students to write the answers on the blackboard.

Third, the teacher must stress that the meanings of the genitive vary - not only possession. To make his explanation clear, he can use phrasal or sentential analogues. It will be much better to put the genitive nouns in context. The context helps the students understand the meanings of the genitive, especially if the meanings are ambiguous or idiomatic.

A lot of exercises concerning the meanings must be provided. As an example, the teacher asks the students to read a given short story or article or the like that contains genitive nouns at home. The students have to underline the genitive nouns. Then, in class, the teacher and the students discuss their meanings one by one. Suppose there are some idiomatic genitives, the

students have to try to guess the meanings from the context first. If the context does not help much, they may consult their dictionaries.

In underlining the genitive nouns, the students might make errors. When they are asked to read, for example, Keith Tryck's "Rafting Down the Yukon" (Editor, December 1975), they possibly underline the following words, too.

> Nowadays there's commercial dog food, but
> our dogs like this better, so we keep some
> around. (p.852).
> "Hey, it's stopped - the river's frozen
> solid!" (p. 853).

Such mistakes happen probably because the students only pay attention to the apostrophe plus s. They forget that 's does not always indicate the genitive case.

In such a situation, the teacher should guide the students to realize their errors, for instance, by asking the meanings according to the students. He should not tell them directly that they are erroneous.

Fourth, after the students have understood the forms and the meanings of the genitive case, the teacher can discuss the usages. He may begin the dicussion with how the type of noun acting as a genitor and sometimes the type of noun acting as a headword can identify the

usages. Then, he tells them how a genitive noun is used: whether it comes before a headword, appears without a headword, is combined with an _of_-structure, or is used in a coordination. Whenever it is necessary, he must explain the possibility of using the structure of prepositional phrase postmodification or that of noun premodification besides the genitive one. In this case, whether or not the replacement changes the meaning should be stressed.

Considering that not all nouns can use the genitive case and that the genitive structure does not always alternate freely with the other two structures, the teacher should not apply simply the technique of transformation in his exercises. Some teachers often implement such a technique in their lessons. In his book _Mastery on English Grammar_, Imam D. Djauhari writes like this. (1986:42).

> Change into possessive using apostrophe +s for the words in italics!
>
> e.g.:   - This is _the book of Joko_.
>
>   - This is _Joko's book_.
>
> 1. That is _the father of Idris_.
>
> 2. I am invited to _the club of the women_.

Note: I underline the words that should be in italics.

It seems to me that he neglects the meaning and the usage of the genitive. The meaning of <u>the</u> <u>book</u> <u>of</u> <u>Joko</u> (= the book about Joko) is different from that of <u>Joko's</u> <u>book</u> (=the book belonging to Joko). Next, the genitive structure for <u>the</u> <u>club</u> <u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>women</u> is expected to be <u>the</u> <u>women's</u> <u>club</u>. This genitive means 'a kind of club of which the members are women'. This descriptive genitive does not alternate with an <u>of</u>-construction, but with a <u>for</u>-construction (<u>the</u> <u>club</u> <u>for</u> <u>women</u>). Thus, in doing such an exercise, the students do not need to think. This drill does not involve thinking.

It will be better, I think, to give the students one or two sentences containing a genitive idea, and then ask them to build up new sentences as many as possible. The new sentences should contain a genitive structure, a structure of prepositional phase postmodification or a structure of noun premodification. However, the meaning expressed by the new sentences must be the same as that conveyed by the previous ones. Examples:

(1) Chaikin, Sigler, and Derlega made a study.

The study revealed a variety of process differences.

Possible answers:

(1.a) Chaikin, Sigler and Derlega's study revealed a variety of process differences.

(1.b)   The study by Chaikin, Sigler and Derlega

revealed   a   variety   of   procedss

differences.

(1.c)   The study of Chaikin, Sigler, and Derlega

revealed ....

(1.d)   The Chaikin, Sigler, and Derlega study

revealed ....

(2.) The train always departs punctually.

(2.a.) The train's departure is always punctual.

(2.b.) The departure of the train is always

punctual.

(3.) That house has windows.

The windows are often open.

(3.a.) The windows of that house are often open.

In my opinion, a drill like that will be able to

to check the students' understanding of the usages.   To

do the exercise, they must distinguish the nouns which

can take the genitive inflection from the ones which

cannot. Besides, they have to determine if the genitive

structure can be replaced by the other two structures

without a change in meaning. Finally, they need to

decide which preposition is suitable.

Note: The type of exercise I suggest is only one of many

other possible ones.

Fifth, it is not less necessary for the teacher to make the students know the possible functions of a genitive noun. He presents sentences in which the genitive nouns are distributed. Then, he asks his students to analyze each sentence in terms of function. As exercises, the students can analyze the sentences from magaines, letters, newspapers, novels or any other sources.

Sixth, the teacher's duty is not only to make the students understand the whole system of the genitive case of English nouns, but also to make them able to use the case in daily use. To come to this ultimate objective, he should provide them with opportunity to create new sentences containing the genitive case. Then, he should give them chance to use the case as one of possible ways to express 'possession' in a very wide sense as well as other meanings. As examples, he may ask them to write a letter, an article for newspaper, or a short story, and also ask them to use the case in their speech acts. It is inevitable that variations are very important in writing and speaking.

Finally, it is difficult, and in fact unnecessary, to determine the best or the most effective method to teach the genitive case. Many factors influence the teaching. The students' understanding of the case depends in part on their mastery of some other

grammatical items. Besides, the teaching of the case involves other elements of language (pronunciation and vocabulary) and four language skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing. Moreover, the students and the teacher take an important role in defining the success of the teaching. Therefore, it is better to ask which approach should be used with which students by which teachers and for which aspects of language instead of insisting on one particular method (Chastain, 1972:58).

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