

CHAPTER II

RELATED THEORIES

2.1 Linguistics

Understanding about nature of language or make the language as the object of study called linguistic. Linguistic is a branch of science that studies the language. Linguistic does not learn how to use a language, but learns why a language is used and what elements are contained in a language. Linguistic can be said as a study that introduces the ins and outs of language, start from type or category, pattern and form. Beside that, there are some experts who say the various definitions of linguistic such as Brinton, Meyer, Crystal, and Hornby, et al.

Based on Brinton (2000: 10) "Linguistics is defined as the study of language systems." Language systems here refer to four elements those are phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Brinton says that four elements (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics) have different system of language. The system is learned according to each element.

Instead, according to Meyer (2009: 2) "The study of language is conducted within the field of linguistics." In the same way, Crystal (2010: 239) says that "Linguistics is the science of language. And the people who study language in this way are called linguists." Meyer and and Crystal have the same opinion that language is the main point in linguistic which will break apart each other and will produce science studies. Because the language is so vast, all languages of the world

have many things as Brinton's opinion who says about system. The system in this sense is closely related to a group of elements that will unite into a whole language.

In contrast, according to Hornby, Gatenby, and Wakefield (1961: 733) as cited in Pateda (2011: 1) say that "*Linguistics* as an adjective '*of the study of language and languages*' whereas *linguistic* word as a noun '*the science of language*'; '*methods of learning; and 'studying languages*'. *Linguist* (N) word means 'a person who is clever in foreign languages'." They meant that two word classes; adjective and noun as the definition of linguistic which are the one for learning about languages and the other one is knowledge of language itself.

In other words, linguistic is study that focuses on language itself, how the structure of language can be formed in written or oral such as sounds, words and sentences. Linguistic science is divided into five branches those are phonology, morphology, syntax, semantic, and pragmatic. Learning linguistic means that have to know about theory of language. Linguistic gives some understanding of how language works, and how it is used, developed and preserved over time. To put it more simply, linguistic is the basic part that concerns on learning the structure of language.

2.2 Morphology

Morphology is the study of word formation in language. Many words in a changeable language. The shape can be partially changed, even whole. One word has many or only one meaning based on the form of change. As long as those changes create many powerful new words or new forms in the language. Beside that, morphology reviews the combined variation of the word/ morpheme in a language.

Based on Nida (1952: 1) “Morphology is the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words.” It is very clear that morphology is learning the form of words. Words that are formed will have many results.

On the other hand, Haspelmath and D. Sims (2010: 2-3) state that there are two definitions of morphology, the first is Morphology is the study of systematic covariation in the form and meaning of words and the second is the study of the combination of morphemes to yield words. First definition refers to how the word can be formed and how the meaning of words itself. But, the second definition refers to how for producing the words from morphemes.

Similarly, Aronoff and Fudeman (2011: 1) who say that “The term morphology is generally attributed to the German poet, novelist, playwright, and philosopher Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749–1832), who coined it early in the nineteenth century in a biological context. Its etymology is Greek: morph- means ‘shape, form’, and morphology is the study of form or forms.” Aronoff and Fudeman have the same opinion with Haspelmath and D. Sims’s opinion in first definition, because they agree that morphology is all about forms of word.

Morphology is one branch of linguistics that examines the morphemes and words. It seems, from all of the information above, it could be stated that morphology as the branch of linguistics that concerned with the study of morphemes for create new words, to add the new words, or to form the words in order to complete the language. The result of the formation of new word can affect the meaning or not. English morphology, in making new meaning and part of speech have different processes. Furthermore, will be explain about words that support this study which are sometime if added a word, it will have different meaning and different part of speech or different form but the meaning still same. All of that is morphology.

2.3 Words

Words can convey ideas or component parts of speech or human language; the sentence compiler section, and the smallest unit in the language or sentence. According to Bloomfield (1926), “A minimum free form is a word” (As cited in Katamba, 1994: 6). Word is free form. It can be used alone and has meaning. Words poured in oral or written form. In contrast, Plag (2003: 8) says that “Words are usually considered to be syntactic atoms, i.e. The smallest elements in a sentence. Words belong to certain syntactic classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions, etc.), which are called parts of speech, word classes, or syntactic categories.” It means that, the word contains a syntactic element which is the embodiment of the word class.

On the other hand, Harley (2006: 3) states that “Word is a combination of vocal sounds, or one such sound, used in a language to express an idea (e.g. to denote a thing, attribute, or relation), and constituting an ultimate minimal element of speech having a meaning as such; a vocable.” Well, Harley meant words are to communicate, so that the form in that way shows sounds, sounds start from human’s mouth to deliver an idea to for showing a language.

Thus, it can be concluded that word is the smallest unit or element in language that can be defined as an arrangement of ideas in the form of a sentence. The function of words are forming sentences, explanation, communicator, and so on. One word has meaning, because this is the characteristic of word. Beside oral form, in written form or written language is the easy form to identify a word. so that, words are important in language. There is no idea without words.

2.4 Affixation

Affixation is the morphemes added to the word to change the function or meaning. The attachment is attached to the word to form a new word, either at the beginning or at the end of the word. According to Crystal (2008: 16):

“The morphological process whereby grammatical or lexical information is added to a stem is known as affixation (‘prefixation’, ‘suffixation’, ‘infixation’). From an alternative point of view, affixes may be divided into inflectional and derivational types. The number of affixes in a word has been suggested as one of the criteria for classifying languages into types (the affix (ing) index). Languages which express grammatical relationships primarily through the use of affixes are known as affixing languages, e.g. a ‘prefixing’ language (as in Bantu), or a ‘suffixing’ language (as in Latin or Greek).”

According to Block and Trager (1972: 56) as cited in Yasin and Hameed (2015: 5) Affixes stand the regular determinative morphemes of vocabularies except stems. Affixes contain three types:

- 1) Prefixes: word beginnings, for example: inactive, impossible, misfortune and so forth.
- 2) Suffixes: word endings, for example: maps, selfish, goodness and so on.
- 3) Infixes: placed inside the stem and located regularly in several languages but not in English.

“Affixation means a process of putting affixes to the single or complex forms. From their distribution, affixes can be divided into prefixes, infixes, suffixes, confixes and combinations” (Pateda, 2002:54; Verhaar, 2000:61; Matthews, 1997:77; Kridalaksana, 1996:28-31; Mahsun, 2002:32) as cited in Tambusai, et al. (2016: 44).

In other words, affixation means for forming words. The form of affix treats the base word, because affix not a word or not the main word, it just an element for forming words or new words. Actually, affixation same as bound morpheme, that is can not stand alone. Affixation is used to change the meaning even function of words. The most popular affixes are prefix and suffix.

2.4.1 Prefix and Suffix

In general, affixation is divided into two types: prefix and suffix. Prefix is a word or group of word which is placed at the front of word. Suffix is a word or group of word which is placed at th end of word as said by Gatherer (1986: 1) that

Affixes which occur at the beginning of words are called prefixes, and affixes which occur at the end of words are called suffixes.

While, according to Lieber (2009: 35) “Prefixes and suffixes usually have special requirements for the sorts of bases they can attach to. Some of these requirements concern the phonology (sounds) of their bases, and others concern the semantics (meaning) of their bases – we will return to these shortly – but the most basic requirements are often the syntactic part of speech or category of their bases.” So that, prefix can be called as an affix that found in the beginning of words, and suffix in the end of words. Sometimes, both of them concern the sounds and the meaning. But, most to the syntactic part of speech.

2.5 Morpheme

Morphology is the field of science that discusses the word basic and affixes. And the object of morphology is called morpheme. Not only talk about morphology, because morphology is a branch that should be known the object in this study. It is known, the object of morphology is morpheme. This object relates to the word, how morpheme is combined the word.

According to Gatherer (1986: 1) “English words are made from morphemes, which are the smallest units of speech with any meaning or grammatical function.” Similarly with Yule (2010: 67) states that the definition of a morpheme is “a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function.” Grammatical function is to know what kind of the morphemes that combined the word.

Josiah & Udoudom (2012: 2) state that “Basically, morphology is concerned with the study of morphemes and how they are combined to form words.” It means that, morphemes is the object of morphology to form words. Can be said that morphemes used to complete the new word.

In contrast, according to Embick (2015: 6) “Morphemes must ultimately relate sound and meaning’ more precisely, they connect a particular type of phonological representation with a particular type of semantic representation.” The type of semantic and phonological representation connected by morphemes which are consist to sound and meaning.

Beside that, Katamba (1993: 24-44) as cited in Tambusai, et al (2016: 44) states that “Morpheme is the smallest difference regarding the form of words that are related to the smallest difference in word or sentential meaning, or in grammatical structure and to the addition of a morpheme which is considered a physical form that represents some of the morphemes in a language.” It means that, Katamba says in a language, morpheme has smallest different in word or meaning even grammatical structure.

Based on the definitions of morphemes above, morphemes concerned with the meaning or grammatical function of words. Morphemes is a meaningful of linguistics unit divided into different form of words such as “book” and “books”. The structure of morpheme has meaning. A word can be calculated how many morphemes contained in the word. Further, there are two types of morphemes which are the first is free and the second is bound. It is very clear that morpheme

also has types that can be viewed in its review. In a sense, morpheme is not just a word form, but what matters is its structure and meaning.

2.5.1 Free Morpheme and Bound Morpheme

In general, Morphemes have two types; free and bound. Free morpheme as the name “free” is can stand or used alone, there is no word that treat this morpheme. But, bound morpheme is different than free, this morpheme can not stand alone, because this morpheme likes a parasite that must attach to the other word with the purpose to complete the word.

Carstairs-McCarthy (2002: 18) state that “In self-explanatory fashion, morphemes that can stand on their own are called free, and ones that cannot are bound.” Similarly with Yule (2010: 68), there are two types of morphemes: Free morphemes, that is, morphemes that can stand by themselves as single words. For example, open and tour. There are also bound morphemes, which are those forms that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form, exemplified as re-, -ist, -ed, -s. From the examples above, free morpheme has intact word, the perfect word to read. But, bound morpheme has a little morpheme that amount to two until three or four morphemes, the location of this morphemes can be in the front of word, middle or at the end of the word.

Based on the definitions of two types of morphemes above, it can be concluded that free morpheme is a morpheme that does not need another morphemes/ words/ or other forms, because it can stand alone without them. But, bound morpheme is vice versa, because bound morpheme can not stand alone

without a word or another morphemes that can make a meaning to complete it. Free morpheme gets free to used in every sentences, but bound morpheme has to do a process to forming the suitable word. Free morpheme has two categories; lexical and functional morphemes. While, bound morpheme also has two categories; derivational and inflectional morphemes.

2.6 Lexical and Functional Morphemes

Lexical and functional morphemes are categories of free morphemes which these free morphemes are called lexical morphemes and some examples are: girl, man, house, tiger, sad, long, yellow, sincere, open, look, follow, break. Adding new lexical morphemes to the language rather easily, so they are treated as an “open” class of words (Yule, 2010: 68). Based on the examples by Yule, it means that lexical morphemes can accept suffix or prefix. The meaning of this type in a word is clear and easily to understand it.

Other types of free morphemes are called functional morphemes. Examples are: and, but, when, because, on, near, above, in, the, that, it, them. This set consists largely of the functional words in the language such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns. Further, because the set never added new functional morphemes to the language, they are described as a “closed” class of words (Yule, 2010: 69). The other type is functional morphemes which can not accept affixation. The meaning of this type in a word is unclear if does not followed the other word.

It can be concluded that, lexical and functional morphemes are the categories of free morpheme, which are lexical morphemes include verbs, nouns

and adjectives. On the other hand, functional morphemes include conjunctions, articles, and pronouns. For example: The (functional), teach (lexical). So that, lexical morphemes are morpheme that can stand alone and has a meaning. While, functional morphemes are morpheme that can stand alone but do not clear yet what the contents to be delivered.

2.7 Derivational and Inflectional Morphemes

In morphology, bound morphemes divided into two categories; derivational and inflectional morphemes. According to Plag (2003: 14) Inflection leads to traditional grammar and derivation to lexeme formation. Similarly with Haspelmath and D. Sims (2010: 87), “Derivational patterns commonly change the word-class of the base lexeme – i.e. nouns can be derived from verbs, adjectives from nouns, and so on. While the different inflectional formations are referred to as expressing inflectional values (or inflectional feature values).” It means that, the word-class is changed by derivational patterns. Whereas, inflectional is process of word formation in which items are added to the base form of a word to express grammatical meaning or can be called inflectional values. Comparable, according to Yule (2010: 69):

“The set of affixes that make up the category of bound morphemes can also be divided into two types. These are the derivational morphemes. We use these bound morphemes to make new words or to make words of a different grammatical category from the stem. The second set of bound morphemes contains what are called inflectional morphemes. These are not used to produce new words in the language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word.”

Derivational and inflectional morphemes are categories of bound morpheme, which are derivational morphemes can make a new words/ meaning or form. But, inflectional morphemes focused on grammatical information in every aspect. To be sure, the function of inflectional morpheme is to ensures that the word is in the appropriate form so the sentence is grammatically correct. Derivational morpheme is more productive in create new word either meaning or function. There are some categories of derivational and inflectional morphemes which are very wide especially in English.

2.7.1 Categories of Derivational Morphemes

The categories of derivational morphemes are from the kinds of prefix and suffix. The morpheme is produced in various forms and can occurs in a word. According to Carstairs & McCarthy (2002: 48-56) the categories of derivational morphemes that can be seen as follows:

1. Adverbs derived from adjectives

In this category, adverbs derived from adjectives start from suffix *-ly*. For example adjective become adverb if added with suffix *-ly*, e.g. *carefully*. A word 'careful' is an adjective. It is becoming adverb because added by suffix *-ly*. Beside that, there are some adverb that formed by conversion. For examples: *fast* (as in *The car was driven fast*) and *hard* (as in *They worked hard*), derived from the adjective *fast* (as in *a fast car*) and *hard* (as in *hard work*). (Carstairs & McCarthy, 2002: 48).

2. Nouns derived from nouns

This category divided into derivational processes that produce nouns with meaning those are ‘small X’, ‘female X’, ‘inhabitant of X’, ‘state of being an X’ and ‘devotee of or expert on X’. For examples (Carstairs & McCarthy, 2002: 49):

- a. ‘small X’: -let, -ette, -ie e.g. droplet, booklet, cigarette, doggie.
- b. ‘female X’: -ess, -ine e.g. waitress, princess, heroine.
- c. ‘inhabitant of X’: -er, -(i)an e.g. Londoner, New Yorker, Texan, Glaswegian.
- d. ‘state of being an X’: -ship, -hood kingship, ladyship, motherhood, priesthood.
- e. ‘devotee of or expert on X’: -ist, -ian e.g. contortionist, Marxist, logician, historian.

3. Nouns derived from members of other word classes

According to Carstairs & McCarthy (2002: 50), there are three types of suffix which is used to derive nouns from adjectives. For examples:

- a. -ity, e.g. equality, sensitivity.
- b. -ness, e.g. goodness, sensitiveness.
- c. -ism, e.g. radicalism, conservatism.

More information: suffixes for deriving nouns from verbs as follows:

- a. -ance, -ence, e.g. performance, reference.
- b. -ment, e.g. announcement, development.
- c. -ing, e.g. painting, singing.
- d. -((a)t)ion, e.g. commission, confusion.
- e. -al, e.g. refusal, arrival.

f. -er, e.g. painter, singer.

4. Adjectives derived from adjectives

The forms of adjectives derived from adjectives are (Carstairs & McCarthy, 2002: 52):

- a. -ish (meaning 'somewhat X')
e.g. greenish, smallish, remotish.
- b. Un- (meaning 'not')
e.g. unhappy, unsure.

This does not mean, however, that un- can be prefixed to all adjectives quite freely; we do not find, for example, 'Ungood' with the meaning 'bad'. Furthermore, another negative prefix are (il-, ir-, im-, and in-) e.g. illegal, irregular, impossible, intangible.

5. Adjectives derived from members of other word classes

Adjective can derive from members of other word classes such as Suffix -ed, -en and -ing, and vowel change, in passive and progressive participle forms of verbs. Beside that, the common suffix such as form adjectives from verbs has the example as follows (Carstairs & McCarthy, 2002: 53):

- a. -able (e.g. readable, reliable)
- b. -ent (e.g. repellent, expectant, conversant)
- c. -ive (e.g. repulsive, explosive)

The last is Suffixes that form adjectives from nouns such as:

- a. -ful (e.g. joyful, meaningful)
- b. -less, (e.g. joyless, meaningless)
- c. -al, e.g. (original, national)
- d. -ish, e.g. (boyish, selfish)

6. Verbs derived from verbs

There are four kinds of prefix are verb derived from verbs by Carstairs & McCarthy (2002: 54). For examples:

- a. Re- (e.g. Repaint)
- b. Un- (e.g. Untie, Untangle)
- c. De- (e.g. Desensitise)
- d. Dis- (e.g. Disbelieve)

7. Verbs derived from members of other word classes

Verbs derived from nouns and from adjectives are numerous. Some affixes are (Carstairs & McCarthy, 2002: 55):

- a. de-, e.g. debug, deforest, delouse.
- b. -ise, e.g. organise, patronise, terrorise.
- c. -(i)fy, e.g. beautify, gentrify, petrify.

Based on Carstairs & McCarthy in the categories of derivational morphemes, it means that how many of prefix and suffix can be derived to form words and also the types that can not be arbitrarily placed. The category is actually not far from the word that will followed because it is a derivative of the word. The main point in the first category (Adverbs derived from adjectives) is a suffix *-ly*, because this suffix can changes word classes from adjective become adverb if added with suffix *-ly*. The main point in the second category (Nouns derived from nouns) is divided into five suffixes those are *-let*, *-ess*, *-er*, *-ship*, and *-ist*.

Furthermore, The main point in the third category (Nouns derived from members of other word classes) is divided into two categories; the first category is suffix which is used to derives nouns from adjectives among others are *-ity*, *-ness*, and *-ism*. The second category is suffix which is used to derives nouns from verbs among others are *-ance*, *-ment*, and *-ing*, *-((a)t)ion*, *-al*, and *-er*. The main point in the fourth category (Adjectives derived from adjectives) is suffix *-ish* and prefix *Un-*. The main point in the fifth category (Adjectives derived from members of

other word classes) is suffix -ed, -en, and -ing, even vowel change, in passive and progressive participle forms of verbs.

In addition, the fifth category (Adjectives derived from members of other word classes) has suffix such as forms adjective from verbs those are -able, -ent and -ive. But, there are four suffixes such as -ful, -less, -al, and -ish include suffixes that form adjectives from nouns. The main point in the sixth category (Verbs derived from verbs) is divided into four prefixes such as Re-, Un-, De-, and Dis-. The last category (Verbs derived from members of other word classes) is divided into three affixes such as de-, -ise, and -(i)fy.

Alternatively, Plag (2003: 86-101) identifies the categories of affixes that include derivational prefix and derivational suffix, those are:

1. Suffixes

1.1 Nominal Suffixes

Nominal suffixes are often employed to derive abstract nouns from verbs, adjectives, and nouns. The kinds of nominal suffixes are:

a. -age

This suffix refers to action or result and showing entity or quantity. For examples: marriage, baggage, package, etc.

b. -al

This suffix indicates the result of action or suffix -al used to form abstract nouns that shows an action. For examples: approval, refusal, denial, etc.

c. -ance (with its variants -ence/ -ancy/ -ency)

This suffix indicates action, state, condition or quality such as: riddance, appearance, etc.

d. -ant

This suffix refers to persons “a person who”. For examples: resistant, assistant, participant, etc.

e. -ce/ -cy

This suffix attaches to adjectives in –ant/ -ent such as: convergence, efficiency, emergence). Furthermore, delicacy, legacy, absence, etc.

f. -dom

Suffix –dom attaches to nouns to forms nominals and refers to collective entities, domains, realms or territories. For examples: boredom, freedom, etc.

g. -ee

This suffix refers to entities. For examples: guarantee, employee, etc.

h. -eer

This suffix relates to the “person who deals in/ engaged in”. For examples: volunteer, career, etc.

i. -er (and its orthographic variant -or)

Commonly, this suffix occurs in “a person who does an action”, action, entities, residence or numerals. Furthermore, this suffix is used to creates person nouns indicating place of origin. For examples: soldier, employer, lecturer, etc.

j. -(e)ry

This suffix indicates to collectives, activities, and often used to denotes locations. For examples: bakery, bravery, etc.

k. -ess

This suffix is mostly attaches to nouns, especially for female humans and animals. For examples: princess, lioness, waitrees, etc.

l. -ful

Sometimes this suffix is used to express “a lot of, a bunch of, etc” from nominal base words that can be construed such as cupful, handful, etc.

m. -hood

This suffix refers to the “state and collectivity”. For examples: brotherhood, sisterhood, Christianhood, etc.

n. -(i)an (and its variant -ean)

Suffix -(i)an is used to person and places. For examples: librarian, Mongolian etc.

o. -ing

This suffix indicates to results or process such as landing, feeding, writing, etc.

p. -ion

This suffix indicates to events or result of processes. For examples: irruption, diffusion, etc.

q. -ism

This suffix relates to the state, condition, attitude, system of beliefs or theory, and quality. For examples: militarism, socialism, etc.

r. –ist

This suffix derives nouns showing persons from nominal and adjectival bases.

For examples: sociologist, guitarist, etc.

s. –ity

This suffix refers to the nouns denoting qualities, states or properties. For examples: activity, creativity, etc.

t. –ment

This suffix refers to state, action nouns/ result and process from verbs. For examples: assessment, statement, etc.

u. –ness

This suffix refers to state or quality. For examples: business, greatness, etc.

v. –ship

The suffix relates to the nouns showing state or condition. For example: friendship, etc.

1.2 Verbal Suffixes

Four suffixes which derive verbs from other categories (mostly adjectives and nouns) are -ate, -en, -ify, and -ize.

a. –ate

This suffix forms a verb. For examples: activate, animate, etc.

b. –en

Examples for suffix –en: awaken, brighten, etc.

c. -ify

Examples for suffix -ify: classify, simplify, etc.

d. -ize

Suffix -ize is “cause or become.” For examples: characterize, dramatize, apologize, etc.

1.3 Adjectival Suffixes

Some of adjectival suffixes are:

a. -able/ -ible

This suffix relates to the transitive and intransitive verbal bases. For examples: miserable, reliable, etc.

b. -al

This suffix indicates “relating to”. For examples: magical, spiritual, etc.

c. -ary

This suffix attaches to nouns or verbs, as in complementary, evolutionary, fragmentary, legendary, precautionary.

d. -ed

This suffix derives adjectives. For examples: bored, tired, disgusted, etc.

e. -esque

The suffix -esque attaches to general nouns and exact nouns. For examples: madonna-esque, etc.

f. -ful

This suffix attaches to abstract nouns, as in beautiful, insightful, purposeful, etc.

g. -ic/ -ical

This suffix relates (nouns and bound roots). For examples: magic and magical.

h. -ing

This suffix forms present participles. This suffix can be called “action or process.” For examples: boring, frightening, etc.

i. -ish

This suffix can attaches to adjectives, numerals, adverbs and syntactic phrases. This suffix relates to the “characteristics”. For examples: childish, soonish, etc.

j. -ive

Mostly, this suffix is from latinate verbs and bound roots to forms adjectives. For examples: exclusive, active, alternative, etc.

k. -less

This suffix relates to the “without”. For examples: endless, useless, etc.

l. -ly

This suffix is added to nouns and adjectives. For examples: daily, scholarly, etc.

m. -ous

This suffix comes from adjectives from nouns and bound roots. For examples: hilarious, curious, religious, etc.

1.4 Adverbial Suffixes

All of adverbial suffixes are forming adverb. Such as:

a. -ly

Examples for suffix -ly: neatly, cleanly, mainly, etc.

b. -wise

Examples for suffix -wise: marketwise, timewise, etc.

2. Prefixes

a. a(n)-

This prefix only happens in Latinized adjectives. For examples: across, aside, etc.

b. anti-

Examples of prefix anti- : antispetic, antisocial, etc.

c. de-

This prefix is to form reversative or privative verbs which is from verbs and nouns. For examples: deploy, devoid, decrease, etc.

d. dis-

This prefix relates to the semantically, and sometimes used to negative meaning.

For examples: dismiss, disconnect, etc.

e. in-

This prefix called negative prefix. For examples: incapable, indecent, etc.

f. mis-

This prefix modifies verbs and nouns. For examples: mispronounce, misunderstanding, etc.

g. non-

This prefix sticks to adjectives. For examples: non-biological, non-academic, etc.

h. un-

This prefix attaches to verbs, but can be attaches nouns and the function of this prefix to negate simple and derived adjectives. For examples: unable, unhappy, unaccept, etc.

2.7.2 Categories of Inflectional Morphemes

In English Morphology, there are eight inflectional morphemes based on function. The categories of inflectional morphemes are uniform according to Haspelmath and D. Sims (2002: 82), the categories of inflectional values can be seen in table 2 at the bottom:

Table 2 Common Inflectional Features and Values

On nouns, pronouns	On verbs	On adjectives, demonstratives, relative pronouns, adpositions
number (singular, plural,...)	number (singular, plural,...)	number (singular, plural,...)
case (nominative, accusative,...)	person (1st, 2nd, 3rd)	person (1st, 2nd, 3rd)
gender (masculine, feminine,...)	tense (present, future, past, ...)	tense (present, future, past, ...)
person (1st, 2nd, 3rd)	aspect (perfective, imperfective, habitual, ...)	aspect (perfective, imperfective, habitual, ...)
-	mood (indicative, subjunctive, imperative,...)	-

(Source: Haspelmath and D. Sims (2002: 82))

Based on table 2 in the previous page, Haspelmath and D. Sims said that the categories of inflectional morphemes can be called inflectional values. Inflectional values have categories that can be called inflectional features. There are seven features of inflectional morphemes those are number, person, gender, case, tense, aspect and mood. The explanations of seven features of inflectional morphemes as follows: 1) There are two kinds of number; singular and plural. For examples: bag (singular), bags (plural). 2) Person consists of (1st person), (2nd person) and (3rd person). For examples: I (1st person), you (2nd person), and they (3rd person). 3) There are two genders; masculine and feminine which are masculine refers to man and feminine refers to woman.

Furthermore, 4) Nominative and accusative are parts of case which are nominative occurs when the case of subject is the one doing the action; accusative occurs when the case is the one that indicates a direct object that the action is being performed on. 5) Tense, aspect and mood; Tense indicates verb's action (past, present and future); aspect includes whether the action is viewed as completed (perfective), non-completed (imperfective), habitual, etc; mood includes the imperative (commands), subjunctive (non-realized events) and indicative (events viewed as objective facts).

Similarly with Lieber (2009: 88-98) the categories of inflection that can be found in the languages of the world are:

1. Number

Lieber says in English, nouns can be marked as singular and plural. For examples:

1. Singular : book, mouse, child
2. Plural : books, mice, children

2. Person

The subject of the sentence as the speaker (first person), the hearer (second person), or someone else (third person). For examples:

- 1) 1.1 Singular

1st person	‘my book’
2nd person	‘your book’
3rd person	‘her book’ / ‘his book’
- 1.2 Plural

1st person	‘our food’
2nd person	‘your food’
3rd person	‘their food’ / ‘their food’
- 2) 2.1 1st person *inclusive* ‘we all (you pl. and I) are singing’
- 2.2 1st person *exclusive* ‘we all (they and I) are singing’

Based on second example, Lieber said it is also possible to mark verbs if the subject consists of exactly two people. In addition, to the inclusive and exclusive forms in, Mohawk also has first person dual inclusive and exclusive forms (Mithun 1999: 70) as cited in Lieber (2009: 88):

- 3) 3.1. Dual *inclusive* ‘we two (you and I) are singing’
- 3.2. Dual *exclusive* ‘we two (s/he and I) are singing’

3. Gender and Noun Class

Gender is divided into two kinds: masculine and feminine. For examples:

English	<u>Masculine</u>	<u>Feminine</u>
	'man'	'woman'
	'boy'	'girl'
	'prince'	'princess'

Furthermore, based on the examples, Noun Class still consists with gender

such as:

<u>Masculine nouns</u>	<u>Feminine nouns</u>
'Actor'	'Actrees'
'Brother'	'sister'
'Nephew'	'niece'

4. Case

Case divided into five kinds those are: nominative, genitive, dative and accusative and ablative. For examples:

1. Nominative : I eat an apple (the function as the subject of a sentence)
2. Genitive : The daughter of the man is beautiful (the function as the possessive manner)
3. Dative : That girl is giving a cake to her little sister (the function as the indirect object or the recipient of a direct object)
4. Accusative : That girl is giving a cake to her little sister (the function as the direct object of a verb)

5. Ablative : Jokowi came from America (indicates to from, by or with, to be sure, ablative used for specific time, place means, manner and accompaniment).

5. Tense and Aspect

Tense relates to the present, past and future in English. For examples:

1. Present 'I see'
2. Past 'I saw'
3. Future 'I will see'

Aspect is divided into four types as follows:

1. Inceptive : She began to work. (in English, inceptive expressed by lexical verbs)
2. Habitual : She always/ usually works. (as a routine and expressed by simple present tense)
3. Continuative : She keeps on working. (expressed by continuous tenses)
4. Iterative : She reads over and over. (the action takes place several times)

6. Voice

Voice is divided into two types; passive and active voices. For examples:

1. He believes you (active)
You are believed by him (passive)

7. Mood and Modality

There are three moods in English: indicative, imperative and subjunctive.

For examples:

- | | | |
|----------------|---------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Indicative | (statement/ ask question) | I am happy |
| 2. Imperative | (imperative sentence) | Don't touch me |
| 3. Subjunctive | (expressed hope) | I wish you were here |

In contrast, according to Yule (2010: 69) especially in English, inflectional morphemes are divided into eight categories those are: plural and possessive, 3rd person singular, present participle, past tense, past participle, comparative and superlative. Plural and possessive are categories of inflection that stick to nouns called noun suffixes; 3rd person singular, present participle, past tense, past participle are categories of inflection that stick to verbs called verb suffixes; while comparative and superlative are categories of inflection that stick to adjectives called adjective suffixes.

For examples:

1. Noun Suffixes

- 1.1. Plural : This is my penss.
- 1.2. Possessive : Ella's bag is broken.

2. Verb Suffixes

- 2.1. 3rd person singular : She gets angry so easily.
- 2.2. Present participle : She is reading a book.

2.3. Past tense : He *worked* yesterday.

2.4. Past participle : I have already *eaten* the cake or I had *wanted* a cake.

3. Adjective Suffixes

3.1. Comparative : Brighter .

3.2. Superlative : Greatest .

Based on the examples above, it can be concluded that noun suffixes are divided into two categories; plural and possessive, plural is marked if the word is more than one; possessive is marked for ownership. There are four categories of inflectional morphemes especially to verb suffixes such as: 3rd person singular is marked if person is the 3rd person singular (he, she, it) that affects a verb in the present tense; Present participle is marked if the sentence is present participle (follows to be); Past tense is marked if the sentence is past action especially in verb; Past participle is marked if the sentence is past participle (following have, has or had). The last is adjective suffixes which has two categories: Comparative is marked for comparison and usually accompanied by *than*; Superlative is marked as superlative and sometimes accompanied by *of*.

2.8 2013 Curriculum

Education means as a process or way to do something that relates to the educational act. In the past until now educations' environment be guarded by family, communities and governments through counseling, teaching and training

activities in school and out of school. The purpose is to prepares learners in order to play a role in various living environments permanently for the future. Based on Scheffler (1958: 15) “Education is the cultural process by which successive generations of men take their places in history.” He meant that education brings a change from the past, present and future. Change starts from the womb to death. Educational benefits are not narrow. Therefore, the government always make every effort to create a generation that can bring changes in education. One of the effort is the government made curriculum from elementary to senior high school. The curriculum is created and changed because it sees the development and technology that will continue to grow, so humans or learners are not less in the face of the future.

The definition of curriculum is more important before making changes in the curriculum itself. Vision and mision in a state to keep the education more valuable and create the best resources is a goal that should not be forgotten. It is known that, the impact of curriculum is enormous. Because, the implementation to be implemented ends in the ability of the target. The arrangement in the curriculum should also be neatly arranged as well as good, because it must be serious and focused in terms of the education.

According to Act Number 20 of 2003 Article 19, verse 1, “The curriculum means a set of plans and settings about the objectives, contents, and teaching materials and methods used as guidelines for organizing learning activities to achieve certain educational goals” as cited in Prihantoro C (2015: 78). In other

words, the curriculum as a guide for organizing learning activities formed from a series of plans to achieve goals, especially education.

Now, Indonesia always do, revise and make the best curriculum in their state to achieve a goal in education. The curriculum is always being refined to become the 2013 curriculum. 2013 curriculum is a new curriculum issued by the Ministry of Education and culture of the Republic of Indonesia. It is often referred to as character-based curriculum. It is used in educational system of Indonesia. It is enforced from the academic year 2013/ 2014. 2013 curriculum at schools invites students to be active in the classroom, use the media or tool to learn, and stick to values religion. According to Minister of Education and Culture, Prof. Ir. Muhammad Nuh, DEA says that “2013 curriculum is more emphasized on competence with competency-based thinking attitude, skills and knowledge” as cited in Kurinasih and Sani (2014: 21-22). It means that, 2013 curriculum prioritizes quality, expertise and creativity.

In addition, 2013 curriculum has four skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking) which must be mastered by the learner. The most concern is the reading skill. In English, reading skill is understand the content, ideas or ideas either expressed or implied in the reading material. Many of judgements in reading skills such as know the grammatical word classes, nouns, adjective, form of word, know the vocabulary, and so on. All of learners or students should be able to do it. Reading skill guides them to understand the content of the text as a whole. Because, the text describes all the elements mentioned above. Well, One of media or tool

prepared by the government to help and develop reading skill or to develop education in the world is textbook.

2.9 Textbook

In this era, textbooks have various forms and contents. The kind of textbooks are very diverse. In schools, the textbook must standard before arrive to the student's hand. The structure of textbook from cover until references also supports the integrity of the book content. Not only the curriculum that must be considered but textbook also needs to be considered. Because, curriculum change means the textbook should also be upgraded.

Graves (2000: 175) Defines textbook as a “Stimulus or instrument for teaching and learning.” This is like textbook for producing an idea, tool for achieve education's goal. Instead, another experts Tarigan and Tarigan (2009: 13-14):

“Buku teks adalah sama dengan buku pelajaran. Secara lebih lengkap, dapat didefinisikan sebagai berikut “buku teks adalah buku pelajaran dalam bidang studi tertentu yang merupakan buku standar, yang disusun oleh para pakar dalam bidang itu buat maksud-maksud dan tujuan instruksional, yang diperlengkapi dengan sarana-sarana pengajaran yang serasi dan mudah dipahami oleh para pemakainya di sekolah-sekolah dan perguruan tinggi sehingga dapat menunjang sesuatu program pengajaran”.”

Moreover, Chambliss & Calfee (1998: 7) cited by Mahmood (2011: 171) state that textbooks are considered at the heart of educational activities, as they provide students “A rich array of new and potentially interesting facts, and open the door to a world of fantastic experience.” Textbook is important role in the classroom

system, it has various components and also certain information that add more knowledge to the students.

In other words, textbook is a media or tool for study or learn at schools even universities. Textbook focuses in one field of science. It discusses a wide range of topics that become the main study. Standard textbook, especially in the field of English has the contents that suitable with the consumers or readers. As already said that in English there are four skills that must be mastered, one of the more concern is reading skill. This skill can be achieved by reading the texts provided in the textbook. In English textbook, many types of text such as descriptive, recount, narrative and so forth. More specifically, in this research discussed the X Grade High Schools' Textbook which has three types of text. The textbook is the latest output of the 2013 curriculum of 2017.

2.10 Reading

Reading makes understanding good. Reading is not complicated. It is only takes concentration and free time even it needs skill. Reading activity will makes our brain work. It helps capture the intent of the whole story/ text. It means understanding the thoughts contained in the written word. According to Anderson et al (1985: 7) "Reading is the process of constructing meaning from written texts." It means that, reading text can develops meaning or capture the meaning of the text that has been read.

In conclusion, reading is the one of language skill that very important. The problem is not all people can understanding what they read, including the students

that have to be able or be master in this skill. Because when learn English especially, many types of text that have different difficulty for understanding it. Not only how to interpret, but in every single word, sentence until paragraph which are the unity that must be known by students. So, the language is very close to linguistic. All readers or learners should know what is morpheme, syntax, semantic, context clause to identify the meaning of unknown words or form of words, especially in reading text. Because, reading text plays linguistic category.

2.11 Text

Text is written words that is produced to convey an idea. There are many text that the readers can find out such as in the newspaper, textbook, etc. Dominantly, students around the world use textbook to study at school. The purpose of text at school to gives a big opportunity to the students for getting knowledge such as know about form, content, and all of the things that relate to the text.

Based on (cf. Halliday & Hasan, 1976: Ch. 1; Halliday, 2010) cited by Halliday (2014: 3) when someone write, she/ he produces text. After that, the text will encourages the readers to analyze, identify and so on. This opinion is turned to language which is text is a useful language in a context.

Others definition of text is for showing meaningful values in a particular discussion. Text starts from a though, poured in written form, finally it will reproduced in the other texts. Different people is different idea/ text. Different understanding means different results. All of that are series of sentences that give clarity what text is.

2.11.1 Types of Text (Genre)

There are various types of text such as descriptive, procedure, recount, narrative, report, discussion, and explanation, etc. Based on those types of text, students have to be mastered in four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). But, the main point here is reading skill in reading text that become one of language skill which is very affect to the students especially in English lesson. There are so many types of text that is provided in a textbook. The explanations as follows:

1. Descriptive Text

Descriptive text is a type of text that has social function to describes something (thing), someone (person), or place. Generic structures of this text are identification and description. Language features of this text are using noun, adjectives, noun phrases, and verb (V1).

2. Recount Text

Recount text is a type of text that has social function to retells events or experiences in the past. Generic structures of this text are orientation, events, and reorientation. Language features of this text are introducing personal participant, using chronological connection, using linking verb, using action verb and the last is using simple past tense.

3. Procedure Text

Procedure text is a type of text that has social function to tell someone how to do or to make something. Generic structures of this text are title/ goal, list of materials, and steps/ methods/ procedures. Language features of this text are using imperative sentences, using action verbs, using precise vocabulary, using temporal conjunction, and using adverb.

4. Narrative Text

Narrative text is a type of text that has social function to entertain the readers/ listeners by the stories. Generic structures of this text are orientation, complication, resolution, and reorientation. Language features of this text are using specific participants or characters, using past tense and past continuous, using action verbs, using some relational verbs, using conjunctions.

5. Report Text

Report text is a type of text that has social function to describe the way things are. Generic structures of this text are general classification and description. Language features of this text are using present tense, behavioural verbs, technical terms, relating verbs.

6. Analytical Exposition Text

Analytical exposition text is a type of text that has social function to persuade the readers or the listeners that something in the case, to analyze or to

explains. Generic structures of this text are thesis and reiteration. Language features of this text are using emotive words, using words that qualify statements, using words that link arguments and using present tense, compound and complex sentences.

7. Hortatory Exposition Text

Hortatory exposition text is a type of text that has social function to persuades the readers or the listeners that something should or should not be the case. Generic structures of this text are thesis, arguments, and recommendation. Language features of this text are using emotive words, using words that qualify statement, using words that link arguments, using present tense, compound and complex sentences, using modal auxiliary.

8. News Item Text

News item text is a type of text that has social function to informs readers or listeners about events of the day which are considered newsworthy or important. Generic structures of this text are newsworthy event, background events, and sources. Language features of this text are information on the use of head lines, using action verbs, use of saying verbs, using passive sentences, using adverbs in passive sentences.

9. Spoof Text

Spoof text is a type of text that has social function to tells an event with a humorous twist. Generic structures of this text are orientation, events, and twist. Language features of this text are using connectives, using adverbial phrases of time and place and using simple past tense.

10. Discussion Text

Discussion text is a type of text that has social function to presents information and opinions about issues in more one side of an issue. Generic structures of this text are issue, arguments for and againts, and conclusion. Language features of this text are using general nouns, using relating verbs, using thinking verbs, using additive connectives, using contrastive connectives, using causal connectives, using modal auxiliary, and using adverbial manner.

11. Review Text

Review text is a type of text that has social function to critiques an art work or event for a public audience. Generic structures of this text are orientation, evaluation, interpretative recount, and evaluative summation. Language features of this text are focusing on specific participants, using adjectives, using long and complex clauses, metaphor. Reviews are used to summarize, analyze and respond to art works. They may include: movie, TV shows, etc.

12. Explanation Text

Explanation text is a type of text that has social function to explain the process involved in the formation or working of natural or socio cultural phenomena. Generic structures of this text are a general statement, a sequenced explanation, and closing. Language features of this text are focusing on generic, non-human participants, using general and abstract nouns, action verbs, simple present tense, passive voice, conjunction of time and cause, noun phrases, complex sentences, and technical language, also using material processes and relational processes, temporal and causal circumstances even conjunctions.

Based on the types of text above, this research is only focused on what type of text that is provided in the 2013 Curriculum English Textbook for the X Grade of Senior High Schools Published by Ministry of Education and Culture that can be seen in the table 3 below:

Table 3 The Sum of Reading Text in 2013 Curriculum English Textbook for the X Grade of Senior High Schools

Reading Text	Genre	Total of Reading Text
2013 Curriculum English Textbook for the X Grade of Senior High Schools	Descriptive	3 (Three)
	Recount	4 (Four)
	Narrative	3 (Three)

In conclusion, as noted in the table 3 above, there are ten English Reading Texts in 2013 Curriculum English Textbook for the X Grade of Senior High Schools Published by Ministry of Education and Culture that is divided into Three genres of text those are three descriptive texts, four recount texts, and three narrative

texts. The researcher focused on seven of English Reading Texts those are three descriptive texts, three recount texts and one narrative text to limit the data.

2.12 Relevant Studies

In supporting the idea of this analysis, some relevant books, journals and thesis have collected to support the topic. All these books and journals have given the large contribution in writing this proposal. As a guidance for writing this proposal some thesis and journals as follows:

Mantra, Budasi, and Suarnajaya (2013) in these journal “An Analysis Of Derivational And Inflectional Morphemes In Nusa Penida Dialect”, concluded that the result of the research showed that there are two types of derivation prefixes in DNP; prefix {mΛ-} and {m-} and there are five types of inflection prefixes in DNP; prefix {n-}, {η-}, {ñ-}, {m-} and {Λ-}. There are two types of derivation endings in DNP; suffix {-Λη} and {-In} and there are three types of inflection suffixes in DNP; suffix {-ē}, {-Λη}, and {-In}. Prefix and suffix in Nusa Penida Dialect which include derivation is prefix {mΛ-} and {m-} and suffix {-Λη}, and {-in}. The prefixes and endings in the Nusa Penida Dialect which include inflection are the prefixes {n-}, {η-}, {ñ-}, {m-}, and {Λ-} and suffixes {-ē}, {-Λη}, and {-In}.

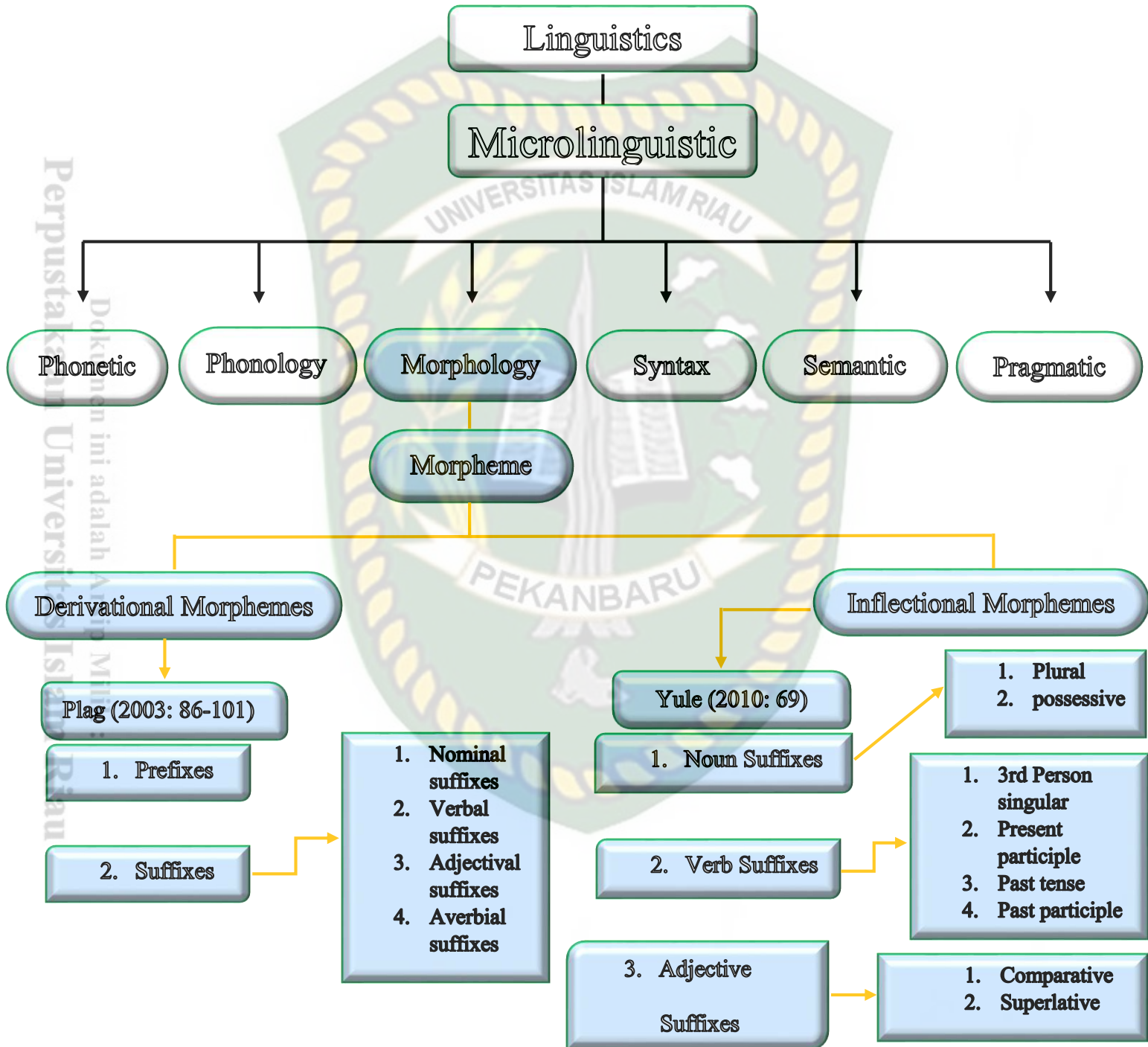
Endang S (2014) in these thesis “The Analysis Of Derivational And Inflectional Morphemes In Lyric Of Songs Adele Albums”, concluded that the result of analyzing data were the derivational affixes found in Songs Adele Albums are -er, -en, -ing, -ly, -ment, -ness as suffixes, while the inflectional affixes are -d, -s, -ed, -ing, -es, -er, -est. From the conclusion of this research, the writer suggested

that to improved their mastery of vocabulary, the readers should apply the derivational and inflectional affixes by breaking the word into its elements root and affixes because from one word they can get the structure of words and they also find how the words built. By knowing the roots, the readers can build the word by themselves.

N.K (2017) in these journal “Derivational And Inflectional Prefixes And Suffixes In Batusesa Dialect Of Balinese: A Descriptive Study”, concluded that the results of this study showed that there are four kinds of prefixes found in Batusesa Dialect, namely {n-}, {me-}, {pe-}, and {a-} and five kinds of suffixes namely {-ang}, {-nə}, {-in}, {-an} and {-ə}. There are three kinds of prefixes and one kind of suffixes which belong to derivational morpheme, namely {n-}, {me-}, {pe-}, and {-ang}. Moreover there are three kinds of inflectional prefixes namely {n-}, {me-}, and {a-} and four kinds of suffixes which belong to inflectional morpheme, namely {-nə}, {-in}, {-an} and {-ə}. There were some grammatical functions of prefixes and suffixes in Batusesa dialect of Balinese, namely affix forming verbal, affix forming nominal, affix forming numeral, affix forming adjective, and affix forming adverb, activizer and passivizer.

2.13 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework was designed as in following:



: The position of research