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MORPHOLOGY

VOLUME 1



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PREFACE

Until recently, the number of books on morphology is quite limited. This might be due to the following considerations. First, morphology is commonly considered as one field of linguistic study which is subsidiary to linguistics itself as a whole. Secondly, it might be considered unwise to put it in separation from its parent ship that its stature in its own right will cause a misleading interpretation of having got an autonomous status. This second consideration is of course exaggerating as “the studying of the word formation” – morphology is sometimes so defined has no clear-cut boundary with the fields of study concerning speech sound and sentences, respectively from which words are constituted and toward which larger operation of words is made.

Perhaps, the third consideration may appear. Its appearance is mostly based on the less informative reason. It says that morphology is just a field of study of narrow and shallow plain that its complete presentation needs hard work seems unlikely.

Apart from the mentioned reasons, such a separate book of morphology, particularly for direct interaction or any kind of activities in classrooms or for personal guide, is felt strongly urgent. This book is intended for graduate students as well as language improvisers.

It is intentionally prepared as easy-to-grasp as possible, more comprehensive but concise, illustrated with theoretical frameworks and tabular schemes. As universities apply a two-

semester program, this book is presented in one volume just to associate with the semesters.

This book is concerned with English Morphology and mixed with Karo language so that the language learners can compare how to use morphological rules in both languages.

May this book be a contribution to those who are interested in Morphology.

November, 13, 2024

Efendi Barus

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTORY PART

A. What is Morphology?

The study of human language can take place anywhere, at any time, and by anyone, commencing from the very remote time of human history. Language is learnt and is going on modified and adjusted to satisfy human needs in communicating ideas and promoting understanding not only among a small number of speakers of a language community, but further than this, it is to mean deliberately to reach the wider range of purpose (conveying knowledge, expounding cultural values, introducing religious teaching, etc.)

The term morphology (Mark Aronoff (2023) 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. In biology morphology refers to the study of the form and structure of organisms, and in geology it refers to the study of the configuration and evolution of land forms.

Pioneered by its forerunners (Ferdinand de Saussure, Leonard Bloomfield, and many more to account), nowadays the study of language has been released from its bondage in the older disciplines such as *Philosophy* (the study of human knowledge and wisdom), *rhetoric* (the art of speaking) and *psychology* (the study of human mind). Very slowly in fact, but with some certainty, the study of language moves on toward the working condition of being *autonomous* in that language is studied by and for itself. This status gives rise to an opportunity for a more serious and scientific manner. The scientific study of language is called *linguistics*. One of its branches is the so-called *morphology*.

Morphology is the study of word formation, it means that the way how to form words. Words are usually formed by combining between lexeme and the affixes. On the other hand, morphology can be said as the study of morphemes. Morpheme is the study of the minimal meaningful unit of word. Minimal unit means those linguistic units or elements which cannot be segmented any more. Morphology deals with the study of linguistic units which are characterized in three obvious points:

1. The elements that a word may constitute with lexeme and affixations.
2. The shape or form of the linguistic units should be minimal, analyzable.
3. Each has an independent or dependent meaning.

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words, particularly how morphemes combine or stand alone to change the meaning of a word (<https://lelanguages.com>)

The linguistic units which fulfil these three requirements are called morphemes or bound morphemes. We can say, therefore, as *Eugene A Nida (1946: 1) has said, (1) Morphology is the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words (2) Morphemes can constitute words or parts of words.*

For example, the word introspection is studied:

- *Through dictionary entry=examination or observation of one's own mental and emotional condition or processes.*
- *Through morphological observation, this linguistic unit (=word) has three composing elements or the building blocks as follows:*

intro-	meaning	into
spect	“	look
- ion	“	noun formative

B. Levels of Linguistics

As the worded out in (A), two things are obviously rendered:

1. Linguistics is a scientific study of language
2. Morphology is one of the branches of linguistics.

As a science, the study of language may not be carried out in its conventional way in which the knowledge of language is picked up from an interaction among passengers while in a railway wagon, or as it is displayed while a person is watching movies, or in the playground while children are playing or by accident a person meeting someone else. The study is much more based on intended and formal education such as in

classroom activities, formal lectures, or prepared recordings. This 'education' is treated to avoid speculation, the conception of 'something ought to be spoken or written', or any subjective consideration. Rather, this scientific study will result from an objective treatments such as collecting facts from living condition, formulating rules and regulations through careful experimentation and observation.

The phrase '***Morphology is one the branches or levels of linguistics***' which may indicate that linguistics has several branches. These branches are also called levels or subsystems of linguistics. As for how many branches of the linguistics does really have is still argued. Scholars propose differently. However, let us think simple and follow what is mostly accepted. The followings are some points of the levels or branches of Linguistics:

<u>Levels</u>	<u>Contents</u>
1. <i>Phonetics</i>	: The study of human speech sounds.
2. <i>Phonology</i>	: The study of the sound systems and patterns.
3. <i>Morphology</i>	: The study of internal structures of words.
4. <i>Syntax</i>	: The study of sentences building.
5. <i>Semantics</i>	: The study of meaning as a distinct field.
6. <i>Lexicography</i>	: The study of lexis or vocabulary.

H.H. Stern in his book *'Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching'* (second impression 1987:130). Perceives the aspects of language study as consisting of,

<u>Levels</u>	<u>Contents</u>
1. <i>Speech sounds</i>	: In phonetics and phonology.
2. <i>Words</i>	: In lexicology, and morphology.
3. <i>Sentences</i>	: In syntax.
4. <i>Meaning</i>	: In semantics.
5. Text (dialogue, narrative, poem): in discourse analysis or elsewhere	
a. The study of speech sounds	: <u>phonetics, phonology</u>
b. The study of grammar	: <u>morphology, syntax</u>
c. The study of meaning	: <u>semantics</u>
d. The study of applied linguistics:	<u>socio-/psycho- /anthropo-linguistics, translation, computerization, etc</u>

C. Linguistic Unit

Language is a fascinating capacity of the human beings possess. This is an instrument to express their thoughts, emotions, desires or whatever they have in mind. The expression of thoughts and the like is a need to any normal human kind both to be understood or to get mutual understanding. In this way, the expressions should be well-chosen, precise, or proposed as well as possible, depending on the speech situation, to whom and what, how and when.

A speech is a stretch of utterance, be it in the form of a sentences of otherwise. A sentence, no matter how short and simple, how long and complicated, when carefully observed, is composed of divisible units or separable elements. These are the so-called linguistic units. The units are of several grouping: some are fully meaning, some are partially or functionally meaningful, while some others are meaningless. Words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and discourses are linguistic units which belong to the first grouping; morphemes belong to the second; the contrast between *but* and *cut*, *street* and *stream* (meaning appears in the difference between the phonemes /b-/ and /k-/ in the former, and between /-t/ and /-m/ in the latter) belongs to the third; units such as syllables belong to the fourth grouping.

Looking at these so wide groupings, linguistic units, as now we are concerned, do not deposit only in the study of morphology.

D. Interconnection Between Branches of Linguistics

As it has been clearly indicated in section A, morphology deals with the study of morphemes and how morphemes are able to form words. It is also pointed out that some morphemes are only parts of words (in that morphemes are just the composing element of words). In other words, we can say that the morphemes and words are studied in morphology. Combinations bigger than words, such as phrases and sentences belong to the *wider* and *higher* study that is called *syntax*. Morphemes are constituted in a system by one or more phonemes. This study which systematizes the phonemes in language is called *phonology*. Due to some

phonological arrangement (or arrangement of phonemes), pronunciation of an utterance is made possible. In turn, in the lowest level, pronunciation itself is founded by some individual speech sounds. All of these are specifically studied in the field of study which is called *phonetics*.

To give a clearer view the interconnection between and among the branches of linguistics, the following can be as the summary:

No	LINGUISTIC UNITS (RAW MATERIALS)	PROCESS/ ORGANISATION	LINGUISTIC BRANCH
1.	Speech Sound	→ Individually studied	= phonetics
2.	Phonemes	→ The speech sounds which are organized into patterns	= phonology
3.	Morphemes and	→ Grammatical structures of allows phonemes	= morphology
4.	Phrases and word	→ Grammatical structures/combination of words allowed	= syntax
5.	Discourse and Pharagraph	→ A series of talk or conversation	= text

Examples:

1. *There are three more new learners. All of them have been in their uniforms. It is your instruction they are awaiting* = One pharagraph of a text

2. *Three more new learners|are there* = A sentence
There-more-new-learners-are-there consisting of two
phrases and six
words
3. *Learners* → learn + er + s : A word consisting
{learn), {-er}, {-s) of three
morphemes
4. *learn* /lɜ:n/ → lɜ::n= : A morpheme
composed of
three phonemes
5. [l]= consonantal, palatal, voiced, : A speech sound
lateral specifically studied

E. Scope of Morphology

Morphology covers the following studies:

- Morphemes as the smallest grammatical units.
- Words as the largest grammatical units.
- Permissible combination of morphemes into words.
- Analysis of words into morphemes.
- Representations of morphemes.
- Morphology processes: sound change, conditioning, and types of morphemes.
- Identification of morphemes.

The linguistic forms which are dealt with in the study of morphology should be permissible and grammatical in the

sense that the forms or the units are the units of the language in question, apart from their minimality and having a meaning. *Chair* is both a word and morpheme in English, but not *cair*; *kitab* is both a word and morpheme in Arabic, but not in English. Likewise, *she* is grammatical in English, and also is *she* in Chinese. It is *import* which is permissible, but not *inport*, *ilport*, or *irport*. Analysis of the word *industry* into/in+ dAs + tri/is not permissible in morphology even though the analysis has in each of their minimality and meaning; this is because the original meaning of the word *industry* is not at all portrayed or represented by them three. In the same way, neither can the words *take*, *make* and *peace* be combined with the suffix-able to get respectively *takeable*, *makeable*, *peaceable*, even though there are forms like *agreeable*, *suitable*, and *definable*.

Below is a diagram to show operational area of morphology

<u>Morpheme</u>	<u>Word</u>
Composing element of a word, unanalyzable into smaller meaningful parts, seeking for suitable pair in forming words	The largest whole/unity, analyzable into and constituted by morphemes, a permissible construction.

Morphology operates within this boundary; beyond this upward or downward, it does not work.

F. Grammar of Words

The word grammar is derived from Latin word ‘*grammatica*’. This in turn emerges from Greek, ‘*grammatike*’

or '*technè grammatike*' which means *the art of writing*. Nowadays grammar is commonly and widely *understood as 'a set of rules governing the use of language in any formal features of the speech of language users'*.

As it is previously mentioned in (1.2), grammar words in two linguistic fields, i.e. *morphology* and *syntax*. Morphology operates as far as the formation of words is allowed, and syntax as far as the formation of sentences is allowed. To some scholars, grammar is considered even has to work in the field of phonology, i.e. in its selection of phonemes when and which to appear in certain combination and to suit the message one wishes.

In the construction of a word there is a taxeme¹ of the arrangement. This is one part of the grammatical duties. Which morpheme is to appear in one particular combination (in the formation of a word), and which one which is not to appear, how a morpheme should 'associate' in a new environment (coming together with the neighbouring morpheme or morphemes), which from is allowed and which is not allowed, all these morphological processes are controlled by the grammar. For examples:

¹ The term 'taxeme' is actually more syntactic than morphological; it is a feature of the arrangement of elements in one piece of expression, such as selection, order and phonetic modification (see Bloomfield, 1933: 166 ff).

1. Which negative morpheme is to appear in these environments

Pleasant = (dis-, im-, or un-, in-, or ir-?)

[dis_] as in:

- Disability.
- Disagreeable.
- Disallow.
- Disappear.

[im_] as in:

- Immaculate.
- Immature.
- Immediate.
- Immemorial.
- immortalize.
- Immune.

[un_] as in:

- Uncomfortable.
- Unaware.
- Uncanny.
- Unavoidable.
- Unbalanced.

[in_] as in:

- Inability.

- Inabsentia.
- Inactive.
- Inaccuracy.
- Inadmissible.

[in_] as in:

- Irrational.
- Irrisponsible.
- Irrigate.
- Irritate.
- Irruption.

2. Is it him or his, or them or their or theirs?,

And then what are those –m, -r, and –s?

Are they allowed to occur here? When so-allowed, are they morphemes or not?

Since all the occurrences of morphemes and words exemplified above, and these are merely some of the complexities, are founding the territory of morphology and grammar goes along with, morphology is thereby called “the grammar of words.”

CHAPTER 2

BASIC KNOWLEDGE OF MORPHEME

A. Observing Morpheme

In previous chapter, subchapters (C) and (D), it has been dealt with that linguistic forms are ranging in size: *phonemes are the smallest unit of sound and discourse is the largest unit in language.*

Before we go further to the deeper parts of this chapter, I think you should remember the following points having been indicated in those earlier sub-chapters:

1. Morphology is a branch of linguistics.
2. Morphology is the study of morphemes.
3. Morphemes are the composing elements of a word or words.
4. These morphemes must be the minimal in shape.
5. These minimal units must be meaningful in themselves.

In point (1) It is acknowledged that linguistics has several branches, and Morphology is the one of them. Point (2)

Assures that the material things, or also called, the raw materials we learn in Morphology are morphemes. Point (3) Signifies the principal function of the morphemes, i.e. to form a word or words. Point (4) Characterizes the fact that in shape a morpheme should be minimal. And point (5) Signals the necessity for the minimal units to have their own meanings.

1. Minimal Shape or Form

A linguistic unit which is called 'morpheme' should be the smallest in form. Technically speaking, it should have a minimal form. By minimality of a form we want to say that the form is not analyzable into smaller meaningful parts: the parts which have a meaning in oneself. Is the word *disease*, for example, a morpheme? To justify this, we try to analyze it: if it is analyzable, and each part of the resultants has a meaning, then it is not a morpheme; if it is not (such as that word 'industry' in (1.5), then *disease* is a single morpheme.

Having looked into the word, what we see in fact, there are two component parts to derive: (1) *dis-*, meaning 'negative prefix', as it is recurring in the words *dislike*, *disagree*, and *disobey*, and (2) *ease*, a free form, as it is able to stand alone like in *an ease*, *at ease*, to mean 'relaxation' or 'peace'. It is clear then, the word *disease* is composed of *dis + ease*, and both have a meaning. Therefore '*disease*' is not a morpheme. This word is said to someone who loses the feeling of being fit and peaceful.

By observing the minimality of a form, it will give us assurance whether this form is a morpheme or bigger than a morpheme (such as in fact a combination of several morphemes, a word), or perhaps smaller (a form without

any meaning), i.e. the upper or the lower of morpheme (see again (1.4)). An analyzable form should fulfil the condition of possessing meaning on the derived parts (or resultants).

Examples:

<u>Analyzable</u> <u>Forms</u>	<u>Derived parts</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
(not a morpheme)		
<i>Unforgettable</i>	<i>un-</i>	<i>'negative prefix'</i>
	<i>-forget</i>	<i>fail to recollect</i>
	<i>-able</i>	<i>adj, suffix, 'have power to'</i>
<i>Immediately</i>	<i>im-</i>	<i>'in, into'</i>
	<i>-mediate</i>	<i>'go between'</i>
	<i>-ly</i>	<i>Adv. Suffix, 'in the manner of'</i>

<u>Unanalyzable</u> <u>Forms</u>	<u>Derived parts</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
(= morpheme)		
<i>Union</i>	<i>un-</i>	<i>X</i>
	<i>-ion</i>	<i>X</i>
<i>Misery</i>	<i>mis-</i>	<i>X</i>
	<i>-ery</i>	<i>X</i>

<i>Industry</i>	<i>in-</i>	?
	<i>does</i>	?
	<i>tri</i>	? ²

When the latter example is thus done, this must be a misconception about the minimality of a morpheme.

2. Independency of Meaning

There is one requirement for a morpheme about meaning: the meaning must be a single meaning: it is individually possessed.

It may happen that a false- morpheme, a morpheme-like, comes into a beginner's knowledge: /er/ is a meaning; /-s/ is a morpheme, because this minimal form also has a single meaning. But which morpheme do you actually mean? There is not only a single morpheme /er/or /-s/ that the English language has. Is it /-er/ in the word hunter or bigger? Or is it the /-s/ in the word speaks or lips?

Leonard Bloomfield (1993:161) defines a morpheme as a linguistic form bears no phonetic-semantic resemblance to any other linguistic form. If this definition is to follow, it is clear that the (-er)s in hunter and bigger may not belong to the same morpheme because even though they have a common phonetic form, coincidentally bear a semantic resemblance (=the meaning is shared in another

² Even though un- of 'union', and mis- of 'misery', look like negative prefixes, and of 'union' looks like a noun suffix and all the in, does / d s/, tri are meaningful, but these analyses fail to prove, that the morphemes are analyzable.

linguistic form): one is to mean agentive and the other comparative.

Look at the applications of the word light below and what will you say about the word in reference to the status of morpheme?

- a. *Light* is off= electric current.
- b. The box is too *light* for you to lift= not heavy.
- c. Anita has a *light* hair= pale-coloured.
- d. Sky *light*= compartment of glass of a greenhouse.
- e. *Light* touch= gentle.
- f. *Light*-handed= tactful.

Suppose you are hearing a person says /sait/ to you, will you go to say instantly that this must be a single morpheme? Do you not remember that there are three words may co-occupy the same pronunciation: sight, cite, site such as worded below?

- a. Dona lost he sight in the traffic accident.
- b. Cite a famous definition of language.
- c. This is the site for the women's college.

Shortly speaking, we can say that a morpheme must possess its own independent meaning, the only meaning which is not shared.

The explanation given above gives rise to comprehensive discussions.

B. Some Linguistic Notations

The followings are the linguistic notations which frequently appear at the time a linguistic point is being dealt with. Their usage may cover the fields of phonetics, phonology, morphology and syntax. Here they are:

[] 'square bracket' is called phonetic notation denoting pronunciation-check as written in dictionary,

e.g. ago [əgəʊ]
agony [æɡəni]
English [ɪŋlɪʃ]
Language [læŋɡwɪdʒ]

// 'slash' is called phonological notation denoting general pronunciation-check, spoken way,

e.g. plural -s is pronounced /-s/, -z/, /-ɪz/ as in:

'books' [bʊks] → phonemically /b/, /ʊ/, /k/, /s/.
cakes [keɪks] → phonemically /k/, /e/, /ɪ/, /k/, /s/.
kites [kaɪts] → phonemically /k/, /aɪ/, /t/, /s/.
'heads' [hedz] → phonemically /h/, /e/, /d/, /z/.
Jobs [dʒɒbz] → phonemically /dʒ/, /ɒ/, /b/, /z/.
Knives [naɪvz] → phonemically /n/, /a/, /ɪ/, /v/, /z/.
Wishes [wɪʃɪdʒ] → phonemically /w/, /ɪ/, /ʃ/, /ɪ/, /dʒ/.
kisses' [kɪsɪdʒ]

{ } morphological notation denoting morpheme.

e.g. plural morpheme {-s} /-s, -z, -ɪz/

≈ allomorphic notation denoting allomorphs of the same kind.

“ allomorphic notation denoting allomorphs of different kind

e.g. {-s} ‘plural’ /-s/

{- ϕ } ‘plural’

{ $v_2 \leftarrow v_1$ } ‘plural’

{un-} an example of prefixal morpheme

{ $v_2 \leftarrow v_1$ } an example of internal vowel change

e.g. man /mæ ̃ n/ → men /mɛn/

‘_____’

Vowel change

{-e} an example of suffixal morpheme of the word ***refuse***, etc

‘.....’ morphemic notation denoting ‘meaning’ or ‘the meaning of’

e.g. {-l} ‘adjectival suffix’ in ***logical normal*** etc

‘nominal suffix’ in ***denial, arrival*** etc

→ syntactic arrow denoting a rewrite instruction,

e.g. s → NP + VP

- ϕ absence of addition, a morphemic notation denoting nothing is added to a morpheme.
e.g he ***cut*** his finger.

C. Peculiarity of Forms

We cannot generalize our opinion about a linguistic form only by looking at its shape, particularly at its written shape to decide that the form must belong to only a single morpheme, or the form cannot be analyzed further, or perhaps, you are too much sure that it is analyzable (such as ***under*** into ***un*** + ***der***, etc). maintaining this way of thinking can be misleading.

There are many examples in English to show that forms ought to be studied in their distributions or the environments where they occur. To react so abruptly and to give an impromptu answer (without looking at their occurrences) is the starting point of making an error. It is true that {-s} is usually used to pluralize a count noun, but this is not its only function. There are many other activities that this morpheme can do. Below are some peculiarities that a morpheme may function.

1. Peculiarities of Regular Forms

Apart from its main function to pluralize a count noun, the {-s} is also in the following ways:

- a. The words ***make, take, inform, solve*** are changed, for the grammatical purpose, into ***makes, takes, informs, solves***. Plenty more verbs are changed in this way to show the present tense, for the third

person singular, e.g. “The girl rarely makes mistakes.”

- b. There are some series of occurrences in English which are felt to carry grammatical value, either functionally or semantically (or through meaning). Observe these series of paradigms.³ And then compare to one another.

1) he–him–his/hi ϕ –him–hiz/

2) his–hers–yours–ours–theirs

do you not think that in the absence of form (- ϕ) after he, and the presence of –m and –z, there is no meaning added to (1)? Do you not feel that there is no additional value after the example (2) is carefully observed? The {-s} is used to denote ‘possessive’⁴ as exemplified below:

3) This must be yours, not hers.

4) I am in charge to keep ours; theirs is their business.

This is the second function of {-s}

- c. The third function of {-s}, and for its adjustment it is written in s- apostrophe (or ‘s), is another way to show ‘*possessive*’ function (here ‘*genitive*’ function). This s- apostrophe is used to substitute the expressions with ‘of’

5) The son of a butcher → the butcher’s son

³ a list of words which have a grammatical relation to each other so much closely that to one extent they are substitutable.

⁴ Here, they are possessive pronoun

- 6) A visit of three days → a three-day's visit
- 7) The lesson of today → today's lesson
- d. Expressions denoting 'family' is represented by male-parent's name + s; this is the fourth function of {-s}
 - 8) The family of Imran → the Imran's
The family of Mr. Siregar → the Siregar's
Never say : The Shintas or the Rukiahs.
- e. No distinction of singular-plural forms
 - 9) A *series*/some *series* of changes.
 - 10) Human *species*/various *species*.
 - 11) A *woman* collage/some *women*.
 - 12) First *man* single/ both *men* singles.

2. Peculiarities of Irregular Forms

Peculiarities can occur not only in regular shapes. Some morphemes may cause confusion in various ways.

- a. Similar both in shapes and pronunciation or spelling but with different meanings:
 - 1) You make a big work
(= do/verb)
 - 2) These are goods of the same make
(=product/noun)
 - 3) Do you pay them well?
(=remit/verb)
 - 4) Today I shall get my first pay
(=payment/noun)

b. The same shape, different pronunciation and spelling and different meaning:

1) *Bow* /bau/ - 'bend the head body as a sign of respect' (v).

- 'the bending of the head or the body' (n).
- 'front part of the forward end of a boat or ship', opp. 'stern'.

2) *Bow* /bou, bau/

- 'curving wooden piece of an arrow'
- 'ribbon tied in knotted loops'

3) *Refuse/refjus/refjuz*

- 'waste, rubbish'
- 'reject, say not to accept'

c. The same spelling different pronunciation or patterning:

1) *Import* /imp'ɔ:t/

- 'bring goods or ideas from abroad' (v)

2) *Import* /'impɔ:t/

- 'imported goods' (n)

d. As far as pronunciation is concerned, complicated matters are found in the occurrences of the same morpheme in different contexts. The morphemes {pro-} and {con-} are two examples out of many.

1) {pro-}

Produce /prədju's/ v 'cause something to occur'

Product /prodʌkt/ n 'thing or substance produced'

Production/prədʌkʃn/ *n* 'action of manufacturing'
Protest/prətest/ *v* 'express disagreement or refusal'
Protest/prətest/ *n* 'statement or action against sth'
 → sometimes pro – sometimes pra - or prau –

<i>Protect</i>	<i>prosody</i>	<i>prose</i>
<i>Prosaic</i>	<i>prostate</i>	<i>prosy</i>
<i>Professor</i>	<i>profit</i>	<i>program</i>

2) {con-}

Conceal/kənsi:l/ *v.* 'hide, keep away from being seen'
Confusion/kənsju:ʒn/ *n.* 'idea underlying sth., general notion'
Confusion/kənsju:ʒn/ *n.* 'embarrassment, bewilderment'
Conflict/kɒnflɪkt/ *n.* 'struggle, fight, opposition.'

→ with /-ɔ̄-/ usually denoting verbs:

Condom, confer, confine, confuse

With /-n-/ , usually denoting nouns:

Conduit, condom, conquest, concert

D. Morpheme, Morph, Allomorph

From the presentations given in (1.3), (1.5), and (2.1), we can sum up the idea of morpheme as 'The smallest meaningful unit a language'. This unit is usually represented on the physical basis: *what is manifest and usually* written. In practice, i.e. in its real presentation, pronunciation-view, this morpheme appears in different representations. But whatever different they are, these representations maintain their relationship, belong to the same morpheme, the source-morpheme.

For example, the past tense morpheme {-ed} (this is theoretically written), in real pronunciation will become /t/, or /-d/, or /-id/ depending on the environment where it occurs. These variants of the morpheme {-ed} are called ***allomorphs***. Their shapes do not carry any difference in meaning; they remain to mean 'past tense'. Anyhow, they are ***not mutually substituable*** or in other words, technically speaking, they are in ***complementary distribution***, i.e. one should occur in this own place; it cannot occur in the other's place.

On the other hand, *morph* is understood as any shape, phonological or orthographical (=sounded or written, see 2.6) of a linguistic form. This form might be meaningful or meaningless. Those variants of a morpheme are also called morphs: a /ə, æ/ and an /ə, æn/ are morphs; /-s/ is one morph, /-s/ and /-z/ are another. Only in togetherness are those /-s/, /-z/, /-iz/ called allomorphs (but individually are called morphs). From Greek words: *allo-* 'other' + *morph* 'form'.

For the sake of grammatical regulation the form {go} is changed into {wen-} at the time it is inflected (instead of having regular *go* + *ed*). Then we have two morphs of {go}, i.e. /gəʊ/ applied in present tense, and /we-/ 'go' when it is applied in past tense (before it meets past tense morpheme /-t/); both / gəʊ / an / wen-/ are allomorphs of {go}.

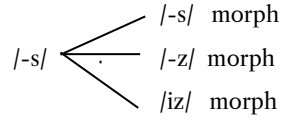
To related the ideas morpheme, allomorphs and morph, a table given below will lead to a better understanding:

Morpheme

Phonological

(spoken form)

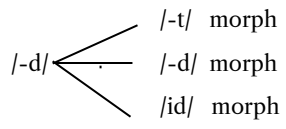
Plural morpheme in noun and third person singular in verb present tense



Three variants or allomorphs to represent the plural morpheme

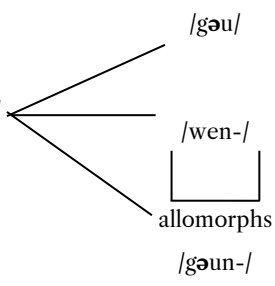
(spoken form)

Past tense morpheme



Three variants or allomorphs (the past tense morpheme)

Morpheme /go/



= one morph, to appear in present tense

= another morph, to appear in past tense

A unique form, the only way of /gəʊ/ to associate with the past tense morpheme.

Since {-s} is not the only plural morpheme in English, and some other forms may represent 'plural morpheme', all these are also considered as the variants or allomorphs of the same morpheme. Zero-addition (such as sheep_{sg} → sheep_(p1)), internal vowel change (such as foot → feet), words originated from Latin (stimulus_(sg) → stimuli_(p1), datum_(sg) → data_(p1), etc.) all of them are the allomorphs but of different kinds.

E. Zero Morpheme and Zero Morph

Morphemes cannot be identified through their size. As it has been repeatedly stated, the size is relative as to the reaching of minimal shape and independency of meaning. When one of these two requirements is missing, the following four possibilities may take place:

1. Bigger than minimal size, it must, at least, a word.
2. Smaller than minimal size, it may be a phoneme.
3. Without a shape at all, it depends on the following conditions:
 - a. The absence of the shape then there is no morpheme to account,
 - b. When the absence of the shape is able to create meaning or to store distinction, the appearance of a morpheme in the construction in different environment has to account: a morpheme is really present.
4. A linguistic form, big or small in size, but without a meaning, is certainly not a morpheme.

Explanation:

- **Linguistic Forms Bigger than Minimal Size**

e.g. *import*, this is not a morpheme, it is a word; this form is still analyzable into *im* + *port* = (*im-* a prefix, meaning *in or to, and port* 'harbour'); *import* 'to bring into the port'. Similarly, *delay*, *ago*, *arrival*, *coincide* are not morphemes.

- **Linguistic Forms Smaller than Minimal Size**

e.g. */i/* is neither a word nor a morpheme; this form may derive from an idea analysis */s/* bigger size of forms, such as *taxi*, *macaroni*, *mini*. All these three words are also three morphemes, that therefore, to force an analysis on unanalyzable form will disturb the meaning. In the word *taxi*, when it is decomposed into *tax* + */i/*, the first element *tax-* may make a sense, but what happens to the second element */-i/*? it does not make any sense. The same thing happens to *-i* as the second element of *macaroni* and *mini*. */i/* is only found as a *phoneme*, not a morpheme. Likewise, do not try to analyze *under* (into *un* + *der*), *rather* (into *rath* + *er* or *rat* + *her*), *may* (into *man* + *y*), ever though, it seems to us, one of the elements in the analysis has a meaning (see A).

- **Zero Element in a Shape**

There are some morphemes which can appear without any shape. This absence of a shape within, before, or after a word to some extent is really because of no morpheme to appear.

Examples:

- a. Any living thing need ϕ water.

Water gives ϕ life to all living things.

These two sentences stand in opposition to.

- b. He need much water.

How many lives (=life + s) are secured?

The no-shape or empty occurrence of a linguistic forms in (a), because there is no need for a morpheme to occur or to account here, while in (b) a morpheme should occur before or after the words needing for help.

Now compare:

- c. The farmer has three sheep ϕ .

Masitha cut ϕ her finger (this morning)

I believe, any intermediate students will soon get sure that in the word sheep and cut in c. There is an extension of their meaning or function of their appearance. The extension is felt very strong in that these two words must contain the idea as follows:

Sheep is the plural form *sheep*, where its extension of meaning is not realized. There is no special shape manifest;

Cut is the past tense form of *cut*, where the past tense morpheme does not appear in shape.

In both, there is no linguistic form to represent their additional meaning, no matter how strong the meaning is felt by a hearer. The occurrence of a morpheme within a word and without a shape is called *zero morpheme*.

- **Linguistic Forms Without any Meaning**

It has been informed somewhere earlier that the factor of meaning has a priority over the factor of shape. In language use it is true that without a meaning a linguistic form may have no shape but hardly be without a meaning, a form which is not a morpheme. Thus this is not true to say *pro-* is a morpheme in the words *proper*, *proof*, even though this form is found in several occurrences of *protest*, *profound*, *project*, etc. what do we call the former group (pro-per, pro-sper, except proof)? They are merely syllables (see 1.3). Their separation is only in terms of syllabication not because they hold in themselves distinction. Furthermore, they are by nature inherent element.⁵

Concerning linguistic forms which have no meaning in their occurrence, or focus of attention goes to those

⁵ Elements which exist in some linguistic forms as permanent or characteristic attribute *inhere* (L. in+hearers 'to stick). In the same way linguistic form -o- in connecting *speed* + *meter*, *therm* + *meter*, and *logy*, is not a morpheme.

found within words and whose presence is indispensable. Their main function is to enable the formation of the words. They are *word formatives*. For example, the presence of *-r-* in *children* and *brethren* is needed where the plural form of child should be *child + en* (as it is found in *ox*_(sg) → *ox + en*, and *brother + en* → *bret (+r) + en*); or presence of *-at-* in *in + form-at-ion* 'information', where all element but *-at-* are meaningful. The words *information*, *inform*, *format*, *formation* are all English, but *inform + at* → *informat* is not an English word. So *-at* is neither a word nor a morpheme. This is another example that we often call *word formative*. All word formatives occur within a word, without a meaning, and their presence is indispensable. These forms are commonly known as *zero morphs*.

F. Representation of Morpheme

The appearance of a morpheme in various occurrences or environments is called the representation of the morpheme.

There are four kinds of a morpheme representation, i.e. *orthographical*, *phonological*, *syntactic or grammatical*, and *semantic representations*.⁶

1. Orthographical Representation

This is the appearance of morphemes in their *written form*. The word 'orthography' is derived from Greek: *ortho* 'straight'+graph 'writing'. So *orthography* means

⁶ Ct. Ronald W. Langacher (1976: 84-86)

straightly written. Compared to the *spoken form*, written form is merely secondary.

All morphemes of a language, the same as all words, have their own ways to appear in writing forms and are bound to differ from the ways in other languages. This is due to the fact that languages have their own writing systems. Besides, the number and kinds of sounds greatly differ from language to language. Many are rich with consonants or vowel clusters, the others are not; many have only few vowels or consonants with some germination, but some others have a lot. Several languages have more nasal sounds, the others retroflex or plosives.

Concerning the way for a morpheme to appear in writing, to some extent it is controlled by its grammar (see 1.6) and in another extent is a matter of precision.

For example,

It is written *cite* when we do not mean *site*
right *write*
seat *sheet*
generous but you may not write *generosity*
reveal *revelation*
deny *denial*
enclose or some other time *inclose*
taxi-cab *taxi*
auto *automobile*
inasmuch *in as much*

etc.

etc.

2. Phonological Representation

Unlike the orthographical representation which emphasized the importance of writing form of the morpheme, phonological representation emphasizes the important of speaking forms, or the way how morphemes are sounded or are spoken. The Greek word *phone* means *voice* or *sound*. So phonological representation is the representation in sound (as it is spoken), or as it appears in pronunciation.

The writing forms are usually more complex than their spoken forms, especially in inflected and semi-inflected language such as German, French, Russian, Arabic, English, and Italian or Spanish. The more complex they will become when suprasegmental phonemes⁷ or umlaut⁸ come into use. Language which are by nature tenseless or genderless (such as Bahasa Indonesia and several other Malayo-Polinesians), their writing forms look simpler.

In English, the spoken form of one and the same morpheme may change when it occurs in different environment and in compliance with the phonological restriction or, perhaps, due to dialect variation, for instance:

⁷ Distinctive feature of speech such stress, pitch, and intonation

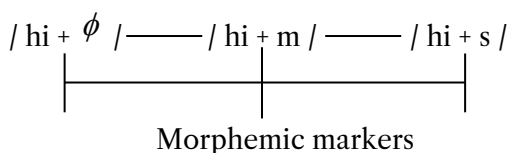
⁸ A sound change which occurs as a result of a vowel in one syllable being affected by the vowel in the following syllable.

<u>Orthographical</u> (in writing)	<u>Phonological</u> (pronunciation)	<u>Environment</u> (occurrence)
(1) <i>The</i>	/ðə/	<i>Before a consonant</i>
	/ði/	<i>Before a vowel</i>
(2) <i>Either</i>	/iðə/ /aiðə/	<i>In free variation</i>
(3) <i>Extra ordinary</i>	/ /	<i>In isolation</i>
		<i>In isolation</i>
<i>Extraordinary</i>		
		<i>In compound</i>
(4) <i>Preface</i>	/ /	<i>In isolation</i>
		<i>In isolation</i>
<i>Preface</i>		
<i>Etc</i>		<i>In compound</i>

Free variation is the phenomenon of two (or more) forms of sounds appearing in the same environment without a change in meaning and without being considered incorrect by native speakers (Wikipedia.org).

From the examples given above it is clear that the phonological representation of morphemes in English are completely dissimilar to their orthographical representation. Notice the use of two slanting bars (/ /) to denote the phonological representation or the real pronunciation of the morphemes. As language is naturally

speech (*language* < *L. lingua* 'tongue or speech'), and the written forms are merely the invention subsidiary to speaking activities, what is coming first to our mind when we learn a language should be the phonological representation rather than orthographical representation. A non-native speaker of English fails to detect the close relation between the word *he* and *him*, because he is deceived by their written forms h + e and h + I + m, whereas he should go through phonological consideration /hi/ and /him/; the earlier is continued by nothing (*or zero*) and the latter by something (or m), these additional shapes of - ϕ and -m make them both different and related: the second (him) is derived from the first (he). When we continue with the third, his, again the difference is made by the shape -s. we learn thereby:



Another difficulty may arise on the side of a nonnative speaker when he is engrossed in looking at the orthographical representation of the word initials: /u-/: vowel in shape, but consonant in pronunciation, or oppositely, /h-/: consonant in shape, but vowel or silent in pronunciation. If they are matched with an article, should we say:

The university /ðəˈjuːnɪvɜːsɪti/ or
 /ðiˈjuːnɪvɜːsɪti/
 a house/a haʊs/ or an hour /aʊər/ or /aʊə/
 a hotel/a hoʊtel/, or an /əˈnoʊəl/

3. Semantic Representation

The third representation of a morpheme is semantic representation or ææ meaning representation →

F. Sementique < Gk semantikes ‘significant’ →
semains ‘signify’, and
sema ‘sign’ or ‘sense’.

It has been previously explained in details in A.b, and F.4 that a morpheme has a meaning and this meaning may not be mutually shared. If we want to concern this semantic point, there must be no doubt at all about considering the word light, for example, as one morpheme at one environment. Having learnt that a morpheme has its own semantic representation, this knowledge will have a conducive power toward accepting the fact that a morpheme may occur in several environment as far as it able to reflect a proper semantic point. Since the meaning of a form generally varies in two classifications, denotative and connotative meaning⁹, we may find the usage as given below.

⁹ Denotative meaning: a dictionary definition, the meaning of a word in reference to the real external word, the literal meaning e.g. girl is ‘a female, young or unmarried woman’.

Morpheme:

expression:

- {go} - We have five minutes more to go.
- Made a go of the jobs.
- She is on the go don't disturb.
- {make} - it makes sense.
- What is the make of your bike?
- Are you on the make?

4. Syntactic Representation

The representation of a morpheme should be syntactically-based. Otherwise, the application of a morpheme in a stretch of expression is considered ungrammatical or, perhaps, grammatical but senseless. The morpheme *cat/k t/* for example, has the meaning '*a kind of tame or homy animal of the genus carnivora*'. In the parts of speech it is known as noun.

As a noun, we can use it as such:

- a. Marty loves cats
- b. What does a *cat* like to do?

But never say as such:

- a. Please cat me down.
- b. Do you mean to cat me, man?

Off course you are not advised to use (3) and (4) unless you deliberately invent the word cat as falling into the

Connotative meaning, the meaning which is based on the feelings and ideas it arouses in the minds of the speaker or hearer, the figurat meaning, e.g. an ocean of imagination.

context, to mean 'to treat a person as a cat'. The knowledge of the syntactic function of a morpheme or a word will lead a language-user not to use it in improper contexts.

Remember that, a syntactic use of the morpheme;

create is predicative

man is subjective, objective, completive

wise is attributive, completive, distributive

CHAPTER 3

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHEMES

This chapter is intended to give the readers with full accounts on how morphemes are classified. Since long time back morphemes have been classified into two kinds. The first covers morphemes which are known as *free* and *bound* morphemes. Secondly, covers those morphemes which are subdivided into *derivational* and *inflectional* morphemes. Only very recently does the third classification come into view, mentioning the existence of *lexical* and *grammatical morphemes*. The latter classification was firstly introduced by Ronald W. Langacker in his book, 'Language and Its Structure' 1973, p.76.

The first classification is a formal status classification, the one which is rather basic and static; the second and third are more operational than the first, denoting how they are applied in larger arrangements rather than only doing an observation over the morphemes themselves as individual entities.

A. Free and Bound Morphemes

1. Basis of Classification

The classification of morphemes into free and bound, i.e. the opinion saying that there are the kinds of free morphemes and bound morphemes, is actually based on the observation that some morphemes are able to stand alone in an expression and individually separable in a structural form such as phrase or statement and the fact that some other morphemes are not able. Through their formal status in an expression as the units of a formal arrangement, the first group of morphemes can stand alone individually forming one entire whole. These free morphemes can even function as the root for the second group to occur together.

All these phenomena inspire some linguists to name the two subclasses as independent and dependent morphemes.

Examples:

Morpheme play in the expressions.

- a. 'I play football'
- b. 'I am playing football', are both observed as follows;

In (1), the morpheme play is able to stand alone as a separable unit, or as an entire whole; in (2) the form play stands together with the other morpheme, -ing, forming another entire whole, in which its independency remains obvious, and it becomes the root of the entire playing, and in which -ing is dependently serving.

2. The ability to stand alone

- Monomorphemic
- Polymorphemic
- Multimorphemic

It is strongly felt and observed that some morphemes are able to stand alone, in the sense:

- a. They are able to represent a relatively complete idea in themselves.
- b. They are able to be looked upon as separable elements of a stretch of expression; some are hiding in *polymorphemic* or *multimorphemic* words, i.e. words being composed of two more morphemes.
- c. The ability to stand alone of those *polymorphemic* and multimorphemic words either by themselves or in an expression will be more certain in carrying message and in showing its status (to be independent) than monomorphemic words (words coming out from free morphemes)

Explanation:

- a. Morphemes such as *sugar*, *water*, *land*, *boy*, *male* have in themselves a complete idea. We know what sugar is; we are able to explain what water looks like; we can describe which land may belong to: upland, highland, lowland, hinterland, etc. such morphemes may also function as the title of a discussion, or as the answer of a question:

1) *What is your newly-born child?* → *Boy*

2) *What is the gender of 'boy'?* → *Male*

In the expressions:

3) *All day long* (phrase)

4) *Everything is running well* (sentences)

We perceive the following facts:

5) Has three morphemes, obviously separable: all – day – long:

6) Has four separable elements in which only two are originally independent: is and well; the other two are structure as follows:

Everything = every + thing (compound word)

Running = run (n) + ing

whereupon:

(i) Both everything and running are polymorphemic words

(ii) The morphemes *every*, *thing*, and *run* have an ability to occur in some independent way like those *all*, *day*, *long*, *-ing* is not able to stand alone; it is dependent on the other morpheme.

b. Polymorphemic words such as everything and running can describe clearer or more specific situations as opposed to their occurrences in monomorphemic operation, every, thing, and run.

Opposite to those morphemes which are able to stand alone, there are a number of morphemes which have no ability to do so. Their appearance by themselves is considered absurd and unlikely. Really, we have morphemes -ing, -s, dis-, mis- and -age. But very sure we may not say:

- 7) She is -ing now.
- 8) Are you s (or t or d)?
- 9) No, dis-, mis-
- 10) Yes, age

All these morphemes are as a matter of course in need of companion. They are *bound* to the other morphemes to occur.

3. Constitution of Words

The existence of free and bound morphemes proves right the definition forwarded by Eugene A. Nida (1946:1) who says, '*Morphemes can constitute words or parts of words*'.

Concerning the constitution of words there are three things that learners should pay attention to:

First, free morphemes can constitute words. *Fortune*, *kind*, *fight*, *sentiment* are both free morphemes and words. They are exactly the same shapes as words. This similarity is also able to satisfy Bloomfield's requirement concerning word: '*a word is a minimal free form*' (1933:178). By minimal free form it is meant that a word is the smallest linguistic unit which is able to constitute a sentences or utterance, and must consist of at least one free morpheme.

Second, bound morphemes cannot constitute words. Morphemes -th, -ish, and a-, for example. Cannot occur alone as separable or independent units. Rather, they appear only as parts of words, or supplements in the formation of words:

True, wide, lony → *truth, width, length*

Boy, child, green → *boyish, childish, greenish*

Go, head, void → *ago, ahead, avoid*

From the example given above, it is learnt that bound morphemes occur together with free morphemes to form words. But this is not the only possible combination the bound morphemes should take. A bound morpheme can also work together with another bound morphemes.

e.g *pro + ject* (L.*jacere* 'throw') → *project*

re + ly (L. *lagere* 'bind') → *rely*

con + fer (L.*ferre* 'bring') → *confer*

Third, the construction of words will also show that words as minimal free forms are very commonly larger in size than free morphemes themselves. In the territory of words, very frequently we find the formation of words by following the pattern bound + free + bound, free + free or bound + bound (see next section); the mixing varieties may also take place: free + bound + bound, bound + free + bound, etc, as are found in the words kindnesses, approval, close-minded, consideration.

What do all those above examples indicate?

They are to convey the following things:

- a. Free morphemes are not only able to stand alone, and to constitute words, but very commonly they also become the parts of words.
- b. All free morphemes are words, but not all words are free morphemes.
- c. Words are usually larger in size than free morphemes;

they may be constituted with more than two morphemes (of free or bound) and all possible combinations.

4. Miscellaneous * Isolating Languages

* More about bound morphemes

When we are questioned, 'Which one between the two kinds of morpheme is more extensively exercised in the formation of words of a language?', we only point out the following points:

- a. All free morphemes are actually words in themselves, but for wider use, they may become parts of words.
- b. Some languages, such as Chinese and Samoan, in all their inventory, make use of free morphemes (*invariable root words*) and *distinctive word order* of the free morphemes rather than inflection, to show grammatical relationship. Their words are free morphemes. Language of this kind are called *isolating languages*.
- c. Bound morphemes are not only recognized as parts of words, but deeper than this and very frequently are recognized as the *carriers of grammatical value*. In this way, bound morphemes are taken into accounts as receiving greater respect than free morphemes. It is the privileges to be formally and functionally applied as *affixes* to yield thereby the next classification of morphemes, i.e. into derivational and inflectional. As affixes, bound morphemes are exercised very commonly.

B. Derivational and Inflectional Morphemes

There are two kinds of morphology, they are derivational and inflectional. Affixes such as suffixes, infixes, prefixes, ablaut and reduplication are kinds of derivational morphology, meanwhile plural, possessive, past time, progressive, comparative and superlative are kinds of inflectional morphology. As it is predicated earlier (A.4.c) the classification of morphemes may fall into derivational and inflectional morphemes. Below, each subdivision is explained.

1. Derivational Morphemes

Derivational morphemes are those bound morphemes whose function is to form new words from original or source-words. A bound morpheme is attached to a free morpheme or a word to obtain a new word. The addition of this bound morpheme to the free morpheme or word is maybe to precede, to succeed, or to split. It is prefixes which precede, suffixes which succeed, and infixes which split or break up a morpheme or a word.

English has the prefixes and suffixes but not infixes.

Affixes which are used in the formation of words are dealt with under subheading derivational morphemes and which are used to carry grammatical significance will be dealt with under subheading inflectional morphemes.

a. Some Patterns

1) free + bound

Source morpheme/ class	Derivational affix	Derived word/class	Remark
<i>grow</i> (v)	-th	<i>growth</i>	<i>nominal marker</i>
<i>decide</i> (v)	-ion	<i>decision</i> ¹²	
<i>skill</i> (n)	-ful ¹⁰	<i>skillful</i>	<i>nominal marker</i>
<i>full</i> (adj)	-fill ¹¹	<i>fulfil</i>	<i>adjective marker</i>
			<i>verbal marker</i>

2) bound + free

Source morpheme/ class	Derivational affix	Derived word/class	Remark
<i>serve</i> (v)	de-	<i>deserve</i> (v)	<i>mostly verbal prefix, word class no change</i>
<i>lay</i> (v)		<i>delay</i> (v)	
<i>part</i> (v)		<i>depart</i> (v)	
<i>sign</i> (v)		<i>design</i> (v)	
<i>play</i> (v/n)	re-	<i>Replay</i> (v)	<i>Mostly verbal prefix</i>
<i>mark</i> (v/n)		<i>Remark</i> (v)	
<i>birth</i> (n)		<i>Rebirth</i> (n)	
<i>new</i> (adj)		<i>Renew</i> (v)	

¹⁰ Full is a free morpheme; -ful is a bound morpheme

¹¹ With some assimilation/disaid/ → /disi n/

¹² Fill is a free morpheme; -fil is a bound morpheme

Full undergoes a change from free morpheme into bound morpheme to satisfy the next originally free morpheme

3) *free + free == compound words*

Source morpheme/class	Derivational affix	Derived word/class	Remark
<i>bath (n)</i> <i>room (n)</i>		<i>bathroom (v)</i>	<i>mostly to yield noun or adjective</i>
<i>blue (adj)</i> <i>print (n)</i>		<i>blueprint (n)</i>	
<i>fortune</i> <i>tell</i>		<i>fortune teller (n)</i> <i>fortune-telling (n)</i>	
<i>ready (adj)</i> <i>made (v)</i>	<i>-er/-ing</i>	<i>ready-made (adj)</i>	
<i>blue (adj)</i> <i>eye (n)</i>		<i>blue-eyed (adj)</i>	

4) *miscellaneous == of mixed composition*

a) *open composition*

base/root	derivational morpheme	derived form
form (n/v)	-al	formal (adj)
	-at-ive	formative (adj)
	-at-/-ion	formation (n)
	in-	inform (v)
	in-at-ion	information (n)
	in-al	informal (adj)
	in-al-ity	informality (n)
	in-al-ity-es	informalities (n)

b) *Compositions which relate:*

income–outcome therein–thereupon
input–output thereby–whereas
indoor–outdoor within–without

b. Formation of Words Which Affects the Parts of Speech

Formation of a new word from a source-word may affect a change in the word class or its part of speech. Observe the following examples:

base/root	derivational morpheme	derived form
slow (adj)	-ly	slowly (adv)
flat (adj)	-en	flatten (v)
home (n)	-y	homey (adj)
beauty (n)	-ion	beautify (v)
prescribe (v)	-ing	prescription (n)
drive		driving (n/gerundive)
	Functioning as adv/adj./ verb/...makers	

source word	derivational morpheme	derived form
brother (n)	-hood	brotherhood (n)
king (n)	-dom	kingdom (n)
lay (v)	de-	delay (v)
make (v)	re-	remake (v)
small (adj)	-er	smaller (adj)

source word	derivational morpheme	derived form
dean (n)	-ship	deanship (n)
president (n)	-cy	presidency (n)
<p>These bound morphemes do not physically change the parts of speech. The change occurs in lesser properties (idea, conception, etc)</p>		

c. Concluding Remarks

- 1) Derivational morphemes operate in the formation of new words.
- 2) The new-formed words are called derived words.
- 3) The affix to derive new words are called derivational affix.
- 4) The derived words are mostly different word class compared to the word class of the source-morphemes.
- 5) Few derived words have the same word class as their source- morphemes.
- 6) The formation of a new word by means of derivational affix (=derivational morpheme) goes relatively open.

2. Inflectional Morphemes

In this subsection our focus of discussion will be about the clarification of function, a number of inflectional morphemes, the up-making of distinction and also provided with concluding remarks.

Whereas derivational morphemes operate in the formation of new words, inflectional morphemes have nothing to do with it. These morphemes are rather identified through their typical contribution, i.e. to the words they are attached to.

The word 'inflection' is derived from Latin *inflectere*, being composed of *in* + *flectere*: *in-* 'into' or 'toward', and *flectere* 'bend'. The entire word may mean 'change of a word form to express tense, gender, number, mood, etc.'. in English the change is mostly concerned with verb form, some in noun and some other in pronoun form.

3. Inflectional Morphemes and Their Grammatical Role

In inflected languages such as Latin, Greek, Russian, etc. the grammatical relationship are shown by inflection rather than by word order. English takes this influence very little in its word forms to determine the grammatical value. The use of some bound morphemes in English are able to show their grammatical role. And since the implication is borne through their inflection in relation to the other parts of speech, these bound forms are called *inflectional morphemes*.

Examples:

a. The use of plural morphemes, -s for example, affect the grammar:

- (1) A ruler → two rulers
- (2) This ruler → some rulers, these rulers
- (3) This ruler is short
- (4) Those rulers are long

The application of *is or are, this these, two or some* depends on the appearance or the absence of the plural morpheme -s or some other forms of plural morpheme.

b. The use tense morphemes -s, -ed and -ing can also affect the grammar:

Verb	Inflectional morpheme	Inflected form
<i>play</i>	-s	<i>Plays</i>
	-ed	<i>Played</i>
	-ing	<i>Playing</i>
<i>cry</i>	-s	<i>Cries</i>
	-ed	<i>Cried</i>
	-ing	<i>crying</i>

Usage: (5) Susan plays tennis today.

(6) She played badminton several years ago.

(7) The baby seldom cries.

(8) It is crying now.

The use of the bound morphemes *-s*, *-ed*, and *-ing* determine the choice of lexical which one is to appear:

- In (5) *-s* determines *Susan* (singular/third person) and
 “ *today* (pres. Tense/indefinite)
- (6) *-ed* “ *ago* (past tense/time)
 “ *she* (neutral form; maybe another)
- (7) *-s* “ *several* (plural marker)
-s “ *baby* (singular/ third person)
 “ *seldom* (habit. act./indefinite)
- (8) *-ing* “ *now* (real progressive action)

- c. The use of *possessive* and *cases of adjective form* can also affect the use of preposition ‘of’ is able to create distinction.

Example:

(9) Fatimah = a female person

(10) Son = a male child

The son of Mr. Aliyas = Mr. Aliyas has a son
 = Mr. Aliyas’ son

(11) *one boy* = an individual

One of the boys = to show the relationship
 between an individual as the *part* and ‘a number of’ as the *whole*: the part *singular* the whole *plural*.

4. Inflectional Morphemes Close the Word Formation

From the outset of this chapter we have been informed about how words are formed. They are formed by the bound morphemes in the language. Towards the

formation of new words derivational morphemes confirms, and concerning the formation of words where in grammar applies, this must be the function of inflectional morphemes.

The formation of a new word or words from the morpheme *nation*, for example, we can see this figure:

Nation → *national*, *nationality*, *international*,
internationalism, *internationality*, etc.

All these new words are formed by the derivational affixes: *al*, *al + ity*, *inter + al + ity*, etc.

The possible number seems very big: *derivational affix opens the formation of new more words*. But what happens to the inflectional morphemes? Observe the following word formations:

nation → nations → no more new words

nationalist → nationalists → no more new words

form → inform ... → informed ed ϕ



derivational

morphemes, open

the formation



inflectional

morpheme, closes

the formation

5. Comparison and Summary

First, we want to put side by side two morphemes, derivational and inflectional, to obtain a bird's – eye view:

<u>Derivation</u>	VS	<u>Inflection</u>
(1) To form new words		(1) To affect grammaticalness
(2) Great in number		(2) Limited in number
(3) Opens or welcome further formation		(3) Closes the formation
(4) Tends to be irregular and idiosyncratic ¹³		(4) Tends to be regular
(5) More intimate to the root.		(5) Less intimate ¹⁴

Second, is -ly derivational or inflectional morpheme?

Let us discuss:

Slow + ly → slowly

This is a new word derived from the root slow. -ly is Derivational

He walks slowly → *He walks slow*

(grammatical) *(ungrammatical, informal)*

-ly is functional, thus inflectional

C. Third Classification (Lexical and Grammatical Morphemes)

1. Statuses of Morphemes

- a. The classification of morphemes into lexical and grammatical morphemes is intended to see the more practical power of some morphemes. It is based on

¹³ We can say bookish, childish, but not roomish, dayish

We can say unlike, unload, but not undifferent, unchair.

¹⁴ It is dislike + s, not dis + likes

Shorten + ing, not short + ing + en

the fact to some extent some morphemes look very 'passive'; they are viewed from their static entity:

- b. That one form has a signal of being composed of several morphemes;
- c. That composition is keeping still, ready to be analyzed in finding its composing elements;
- d. That *-age*, for example, has to occur after several words, but not after a verb or an adverb.
- e. That from its shape or composition it is easy for a learner to identify the status of the form whether belonging to a morpheme or non-morpheme. A word or nonword.
- f. To the other extent some bound morphemes are very productive and creative. Through their existence, a great number of words are created. Among the so 'creative' morphemes we can account these: prefixes *im-*, *in-*, *dis-*, *semi-*, or suffixes *-ly*, *-ness*, *-ion*, etc. you can find also the lesser active bound morphemes and even the most passive morphemes which are not apt to wider operation. With respect to grammatical significance, some morphemes, which belong to bound or free morphemes may actively participate.

2. **Meaningfully Distinct vs Meaningfully Obscure**

Some free morphemes and words can carry in themselves distinct meaning so that a language user without hard labor, easily understand what those morphemes mean.

Example:

Morpheme	Easily-guessed or possible meaning
Fine	Good, excellent, or money paid
Driver	A person who drives (a car, etc.)
Five	Number
Dollar	Currency, monetary unit

So meaningfully distinct these words are, that *driver–fine–five dollar* even a dim-witted hearer is still able to interpret the whole idea of the structure form through a penetration into the individual or group meaning as follows:

Individual item	Possible interpretation
Driver	The, a, or one driver
Fine	(1) Should be in relation to payment, because the next one is about currency. (2) Correct form: <u><i>is</i></u> or <u><i>was fined</i></u>
Five	Remains <u><i>five</i></u>
Dollar	Should be dollars, because it is preceded by <u><i>five</i></u>

Thus, the whole idea, in a grammatical order/arrangement, is written as the following:

The driver is/was fined five dollars,

Or one driver is/was fined five dollars.

How does this person know with confidence this exact interpretation? Because all the four morphemes

possess clear meaning in themselves. Morphemes of this kind are called *lexical morphemes*. As for those elements which are added to help the interpretation correct are called *grammatical morphemes*. They are so-named, because of their appearance in the arrangement.

Of course it is true to say that *the*, *is*, or *was –ed*, *-s* has in each a meaning, but their meanings are obscure either in themselves or in the arrangement. The only thing which is coming to our judgment is that their presence in the arrangement is needed, or else that arrangement remains vulgarly presented.

Characteristics in Summary

These two morphemes, lexical and grammatical¹⁵ are characterized as follows:

Lexical Morphemes	Grammatical Morphemes
(1) Able to carry distinct meaning.	(1) Their meanings are obscure.
(2) In themselves or together with the other lexical morphemes cannot show well-formed-ness, except in compounding.	(2) In themselves or together with the other lexical morphemes cannot show well-formedness.
(3) All lexical morphemes are free morphemes.	(3) Some are free and some other are bound morphemes.
(4) Together with grammatical morphemes the value of grammar emerges.	(4) Together with lexical morphemes the value of grammar appears.

¹⁵ See Ronald W. Langacker's 'Language and Its Structure' p.76.

Examples

Love
Speech
 } Lovely speech

Examples

the
-en
 } the oxen

mother 'married female'

mother *ish* 'behave like

a mother

a/an

→ a *box*

an exception

3. Grammatical Morphemes vs Inflectional Morphemes

First, both are dealing with the promotion of grammatical value, in the sense without their appearance the arrangement is not well-formed,

e.g. book is not grammatical, it is just a lexical item

the book, one particular and definite book

booked, one particular action referring to the one valid only in the past, now no more.

Second, grammatical morphemes are of free and bound morphemes (the, an, some, -s, -d, etc.); (past tense morphemes (-ed, - ϕ , etc), plural morphemes (-s, - ϕ , etc), tense morphemes (- ϕ , -s, ing, etc).

CHAPTER 4

WORD CLASSES AND ROOT CLASSES IN KARO LANGUAGE

Karo language is one of the local languages in Indonesia spoken in Sumatera Province or Karo Land. The main town of the Karo district is Kaban Jahe and Berastagi. Karo district has 17 sub-districts and 258 villages. The total population is about 418,7 thousand in year of 2024 (central board of statistic of population). Recent total population of karo people around Sumatra is more than 600.000 people (<https://www.facebook.com>).

Every language must have a Morphological form in oral and written form. Words in Karo Language may be divided into many different criteria. In this description, it is focused ultimately on the way in which words combine to form larger strings of meaning such as: phrases, clauses and sentences. There are also the function of syntax to define word classes or parts of speech. It may be differentiated according to:

- A. Nominal forms.
- B. Transitive verbs.

- C. Intransitive verbs.
- D. Adjectives.
- E. Prepositions.
- F. Conjunctions.
- G. Operators.
- H. Exclamations, interjections and responses.

Point A to D are the classes which are typically “open”. It means that this class of words can be probably open, in the sense that there is an unlimited number of items which can be added to them. In contrast, point E to H have finite membership, and are considered to be “closed”, it means that the items are very limited which can be added to them.

In the morphological process, there are the roles of syntax how the affixation appears in point A to D. For example, the suffix –en in karo language has four different but predictable function-meaning combinations, it depends on the class of word to which it is attached.

A. Nominal Forms

The term ‘nominal’ derived from Latin word that is *nominalis* which means “of a name”. Nominal forms, in English, are called nouns in which refer to grammatical category or a word or a group of words. Grammatical category that denotes about how word classes are applied to a sentence. Noun, noun phrases, or any word or group of words that function as a noun can refer to nominals. These word classes can be said as subject, object or predicate nominative of a sentence.

Here are some other meanings of the word nominal:

- **In name only:** Something that exists only in name. For example, a nominal ruler is a king or queen in a constitutional monarchy, but the real power is held by the elected prime minister.
- **Trivial or insignificant:** Something that is very small compared to the expected amount or value. For example, a nominal fee is a very small fee.
- **Rate of interest:** A rate of interest that is equal to the annual rate of simple interest (<https://www.thoughtco.com>)

In Karo language, nominal forms are also the same definition as it is there in English with nominal form or nominalization: the prefix per_ and suffix _en, and only suffix -en “affected by verb.”

For example:

Prefix per_ and suffix _en → nominalization (from intransitive verb to noun.

1. Erjabu “marry” → perjabun .
2. Berkat “depart” → perberkatén.
3. Pulung “gather” → perpulungen.
4. Erdalin “walk” → perdalinen.
5. Ertaki “compromize” → pertakien.
6. Aarih “discuss” → perarihen.
7. Ridi “bath” → peridien.
8. Cinep “perch” → percinepen.
9. Erbulang “wearing karo traditional cloth on a head” →

perbulangen.

Suffix *_en* or *_n* → nominalization (from verb in passive form to noun).

1. *ibaba* “carried” → *ibaban*
2. *iinem* “be drunk” → *inemen*.
3. *itangko* “stolen” → *tangkon*.
4. *ibagi* “devided” → *bagin*.
5. *ikira* “count” → *kiran*.
6. *ituri-turi* “told” → *turi-turin*.
7. *ikunduli* “be sat on” → *kundulen*.
8. *itawai* “loughed at” → *tawan*.

1. Semantically, Nouns with *_en* Correspond to the Undergoer of the Transitive Verb from which They Are Derived

For examples:

- a. *baba* “carry or bring” → *baban*.
- b. *isi* “fill” → *isin*.
- c. *gelem* “hold” → *gelemen*.
- d. *tutup* “close” → *tutupen*.
- e. *suan* “plant” → *suanen*.
- f. *baca* “read” → *bacaan*.
- g. *ngatngat* “chew” → *ngatngaten*.
- h. *bendut* “swallow” → *benduten*.
- i. *nehen* “see” → *nehenen*.

2. With Intransitive Verbs: The Suffix -en Signifies Plurality or Multiplicity. It Can Get Prefix si_ and _en or Prefix ke_ and _en.

For examples:

- a. Tatap “look” or “gaze at” → sitatapen.
- b. Buat “take” → sibuaten.
- c. Tandai “know a person” → sitandan.
- d. Pedauhi “avoid” → sipedauhen
- e. Antusi “understand” → siantusen.
- f. Rawai “angry at or scold” → sirawan.
- g. Kelengi “love” → sikelengen.
- h. Sampati “help” → sisampaten.
- i. Jerlengi “stare at” → sijerlengen.
- j. Kirim “send” → sikiriman.
- k. Kelengi “love” → kekelengen.
- l. Keleng “affectionate” → kekelengen.

3. With Adjectives, the Suffix -en Marks Comparative Degree

For examples:

- a. Nggedang “long” → gedangen.
- b. Nembah “angry” → nembehen.
- c. Nterem “crowd” → teremem.
- d. Mbelin “big” → belinen.
- e. Megegeh “strong” → gegehen.
- f. Mekapal “thick” → kapalen.

- g. Metua “tuan” → tuan.
- h. Gutul “noughty” → gutulen.
- i. Kitik “samall” → kitiken.
- j. Beluh “clever” → beluhen.

4. Preposition

Preposition is the word or a group of word that is used to connect noun word, pronoun or noun phrase to another word in a sentence. Preposition functions to indicate direction, time, place or locative preposition, spacial location or to introduce an object. For examples in English: in, at, to, on, for, off, since etc.

- a. Nandendu berkat ia ku tiga nukur nurung.

Mother your leave to market buy fish

“Your mother left for the market to buy the fish”.

- b. Minter bulakkenna bana i spring bed.

Immediately lie down he himself on the spring bed.

- c. Simpan senndu i Bank BRI

Save money your in the Bank of BRI.

“Save your money in the Bank of BRI”.

Note: In the sentence 4.1.1.5 (a) the preposition is ‘ku’ means ‘to’. (b) the preposition is ‘i’ means ‘on’. It is locative preposition, (c) the preposition is ‘i’ means ‘in’.

5. Conjunction

In English, a conjunction is a word that joins words, phrases, or clauses together. Some common conjunctions

include "and," "or," "but," "because," "for," "if," and "when."

There are three main types of conjunctions:

- **Coordinating conjunctions:** Join words, phrases, or clauses that are of equal importance. The most common coordinating conjunctions are "and," "or," and "but."
- **Subordinating conjunctions:** Can begin a sentence if the dependent clause comes before the independent clause.
- **Correlative conjunctions:** Another type of conjunction.

Here are some examples of conjunctions in sentences:

- "The parking lot was filled with cars, trucks, and buses."
- "Natalie thinks cats are cute, but she can't have any because she is allergic to them."
- "Before we can travel to Europe, we have to get passports."
- "The talented acrobats impressed both the children and their parents." (<https://grammarly.com>).

In Karo language, conjunctions expressing time, condition, reason and antithesis may be omitted when two clauses are linked (Wooliams: 1991).

For examples:

- a. Wisuda kam pagi erjabu kita
Convocation you later marry we.

“When you have join convocation, we get married”

- b. Ibabana abangna ras agina ku Jakarta

Go together he brother his and younger brother his
to Jakarta

“He went together with his elder brother and his
younger brother to Jakarta.”

- c. Gawah-gawah ia enca tukurna motorna.

Touring he after bought he car his

“He is touring after he bought his car”.

6. Operators

Operators (in Woollams, 1991) are a heterogenous set of mostly morphologically simple forms which modify predicates, subjects and adjuncts, but which cannot occur as exponents of those constituents. They include negatives, adjective modifiers, aspect markers, quantifying expressions and particles.

In language, an operator can refer to a grammatical auxiliary or a type of expression in generative grammar:

- **Grammatical auxiliary**

The first auxiliary in a verb phrase is the operator, which performs the grammatical operation. For example, in the sentence "You have been smoking," "have" is the operator.

- **Generative grammar**

An operator is a type of expression that participates in an a-bar movement dependency. Operators are often determiners, such as "which," "who," or "when,"

or quantifiers, such as "every," "some," or "most". Adverbs, such as "not," can also be treated as operators (<https://en.wikipedia.org>).

7. Exclamation, Interjection and Responses

a. Exclamation

A longer phrase or clause that expresses emotion and is always written with an exclamation mark. Exclamations are sudden, forceful expressions or cries. Examples of exclamations include "You did a really good job!" and "Wow! I really cannot believe we did that!" (<https://langeek.co>)

An exclamation point (!) is a punctuation mark that's used to convey strong emotions or feelings in writing:

1) Expressing strong emotion

An exclamation point can be used to express strong emotions like anger, joy, surprise, or excitement. For example, "This is the best day of my life!"

2) Indicating a forceful command

An exclamation point can be used to indicate a forceful command or statement.

3) Showing how words may sound

An exclamation point is one of the few ways that a writer can indicate how words may sound when spoken.

Exclamation points are used in exclamatory sentences and with interjections. The writer can choose whether or not to use an exclamation point.

In some programming languages, like Perl, an exclamation mark can represent the logical NOT operator (<https://dictionary.cambridge.org>)

In Karo language, exclamation can be exemplified in the form of sentences. Such as:

1) Galang lau, moumbak ko kari!

Big river sink you later

“The river is flouting, you can be sinking later.”

2) Kujenda ko, kupekpek ko kari!

Come here you, I beat you then.

“You come here, I beat you then”

3) Ente lawes!

Come on, go!

Please go!

b. Interjection

Interjection is a type of word or phrase that can be used in an exclamation, but not all interjections are exclamations, and not all exclamations are interjections:

A short word or phrase that expresses emotion and is not grammatically related to the sentence it's in. Interjections can be used to express sudden emotions like anger, shock, joy, or confusion. They can be removed from a sentence without affecting its meaning. Examples of interjections include "oops," "alas," "hey," "ouch," "ugh," "wow," "hooray," and "phew".

In Karo language, interjection can be exemplified below:

- 1) “Ih”, uga kin e. “Ih” is a kind of interjection showing surprise.
- 2) “Nande”, enggo lepak kal kita. ”Nande” is an expression or voice indicating that there is something wrong unconsciously.
- 3) “Iccel” dah ko enggo lupa kal aku. ”Iccel” is usually uttered when someone forgot to do something but it is already over.

c. Responses

Responses are the answers or reactions from an expression or questions. Responses can be differentiated into asking and giving opinion, offering help, how do you do, congratulation, good morning, accepting, how are you atc. In Karo language also many expressions can be postulated as part of responses, for examples:

Questions	Responses
(a) Kai berita “How are you?”	Mejuah-juah “Well”
(b) Banci sampatindu aku? “Would you please help me?”	Banci, alu meriah ukur “I can with pleasure”.
(c) Selamat kam enggo sukses “Congratulation that you have been successful”.	Bujur ras mejuah-juah. “Thank you and welcome”.

Questions	Responses
(d) Berekenndu min sitik pendapatndu man kami "Please give us your opinion"	Alu meriah ukur, banci kubereken pendapatku. "With a pleasure, I can give you my opinion".
<p>Notes:</p> <p>In Karo language, Good morning, Good afternoon, Good evening and Good night are not found. In a welcoming speech, mostly the speaker may say only "Mejuah-juah man banta kerina." It means "Welcome to all of us."</p>	

B. Affixation

Affixes are attached to a given stem or root. The majority of roots can stand alone or in an independent form. The opposite of this form is affixations which are bound form. Anyhow, these bound forms may produce the derivational and inflectional forms as they are attached to the root. The majority of pre-categorial roots in Karo occur with either an intransitive verb or adjectival derivational prefix, and insofar as their lexical content can be determined—have meaning typical of intransitive verbs and adjectives. There are some roots which are marked by enclosing the gloss in parentheses. For example: nangkih "climb," mulih "return", nehen "see."

There are many precise words in Karo language that is not normally complicated—free roots are certainly clear in double words without changing the class of words. See the following words:

- Nembeh - tembeh 'angry'
- Mate - pate 'die'

- Aler - paler ‘flow’
- Anak - danak “child”

1. Affixes in Karo Language Consist of Prefixes, Suffixes, Circumfixes, and Infixes

Prefix is the element of language which is attached to the root or stem of word in initial position, eg. /r-/ and /er-/ as in:

- Dalan - erdalan [ɛrdalan]
- Daya - erdaya [ɛrdaja]
- Lajang - erlajang [ɛrladʒaŋ]
- Ikan - rikan [rikan}
- Impal - rimpal [rimpal]
- Ende - rende [rɛnde]

Karo language is different from other languages, particularly the form of prefixes. Using affixes (prefix, infix, and suffix) do not have meaning if they are not attached or joined with the stem or base of words. Anyhow, the affixes which are attached to the words can influence the meaning of the stem or lexical form.

Prefix is the elements of language which are attached to the initial position of word and may or may not change the meaning. This can be exemplified in Karo Language such as: prefix /N_/, /er_/, /per_/, /ter_/, /me_/, /i_/, /pe_/, /si_/, /ci_/, /ki_/, /ke_/, /pen_/, /kini_/, and /se_/.

These prefixes can be analyzed from the side of Semantics after those prefixes are joined or attached to the lexical item or base of words. Without being joined,

of course, they do not have any meaning, as the prefixes found in English.

A prefix is added to the front of a word to change its meaning. Both prefixes (added to the front and suffixes (added to the back) are called affixes (<http://en.m.wikipedia.org>)

Prefix is one of the affixes that can be found in most of languages, including Karo Language. Affixation is one of the the most productive ways to form new words in English (Liu and Shen, 2012 : 1). Prefixes are usually studied in morphology or word formation rules. As it is defined by Hu Zhuanglin, affix is “a collective term for the type of morpheme that can be used only when added to another morpheme (the root or stem)” (Hu, 2001:62).

The prefixes in Karo Language can be classified into:

- a. Transitive verb inflection: N_, i_, and ter_.
- b. Predicative marker: me_, N_, and ter_ _en.
- c. Deriving transitive verbs: pe_, pe_ _ken, per_, per_ _ken, and per_ _i
- d. Deriving Intransitive verbs: er_, er_ _ken, N_, per_, me_, si_ _na, ke_ _en, ci_, ki_ and si_ _en.
- e. Deriving nouns: peN_, per_, peN_ _en, per_ _en, ke_ _en, and kini_ _en.
- f. Deriving Miscellaneous forms: N_, se_ and pe_ _ken.

2. Transitive Verb Inflection

Prefix [N_] as Transitive verb inflection.

The function of this prefix is to mark active voice

For example:

Tutup → nutup “to close.”

Pekpek → mekpek “to hit”

Examples in the form of sentence:

- Embun mekapal nutupi matawari
Cloud thick ACT-cover sun
“Thick cloud covered the sun”
- Bapa ngerdangken juma
father ACT-sow field
“Father was sowing the field”
- Temanku nutup labah
Friend my close window
“My friend closed the door”
- Ise mekpek nipe ena
Who hit snake that
“Who hit the snake?”

Note:

Tutup (n) “cap” and (v) “the act of closing st”

Nutup (v) “the act of closing st”

Pekpek (v) “can be imperative” and mekpek (v) “cannot be imperative”

Prefix [i_] as Transitive verb inflection.

For example:

Tutup → itutup “to cover”

Erdangken → ierdangken “to put the seed of”

Togan → itogan “contradicted”

In the form of sentence:

a. Matawari itutupi embun mekapal

Sun PAS-cover cloud thick

“The sun was covered by dense cloud”

b. Bagem juma ierdangken bapa

thus- field PAS-sow father

“In this way the field was sown by father”

Note:

Itutup (v) “Imperative and passive voice.”

Can be made as: labah ula itutup “Door is not closed by.”

The prefix is the linguistic unit which is attached to the initial position of words or the base. In Karo language, prefixes can also be exemplified below:

a. Prefix /er-/ or /r-/ has two sound variations. One of them is influenced by initial sound, that is vowel, and another one is elsewhere. For example:

- ate ‘wish’ → rate [rate]
- impal ‘first cousin’ → rimpal [rimpal]
- simbu ‘spray’ → ersimbu [ersimbu]
- toto ‘pray’ → ertoto [ertoto]
- dahin ‘duty’ → erdahin [erdahin]

The prefix /er-/ does not occur with stems beginning with /r/.

b. Prefix /per-/ and /ter-/ can be eliminated becoming /pe-/ and /te-/ when attached to the stem with initial /r-/. For example:

- rampus ‘angry’ → perampus [pɛrampus]
- ridi ‘bath’ → teridi [tɛridi]
- ranaken ‘talk’ → teranaken [tɛranakɛn]
‘talked’
- riah ‘crowd’ → teriahen [tɛriahɛn] ‘more
crowded’
- galang ‘big’ → pegalang [pɛgalan] ‘
- kitik ‘small’ → pekitik [pɛkitik]
- sinik ‘silence’ → pesinik [pɛsinik]
- idah ‘visible’ → teridah [tɛridah]
- dadap ‘do or touch’ → terdadap [tɛrdadap]
- Pengadi ‘stop’ → terpengadi [tɛrpɛŋadi]
“Can be stopped.”
- Pake ‘use’ → terpake [tɛrpake] “Can be
used.”
- Pedem ‘sleep’ → terpedem [tɛrpɛdɛm] “To
fall asleep”

Prefix [tɛr_] as Transitive verb Inflection

For example:

- Pengadi → terpengadi “Can be stopped.”
- Pake → terpake “Can be used.”
- Pedem → terpedem “To fall asleep.”

- Ngadi - terpengadi: ia banci terpengadi “He can be stopped.”
- Pake - terpake: senndu enggo terpake aku “Your money was used by me.”
- Pedem - terpedem: ia enggo terpedem “He has fallen asleep.”

On the other hand, the reduced form of the prefix happens when the second syllable of the stem begins with /r/. It means that such kinds of prefix are very limited. For example:

- Turah “grow” → peturah [pɛturah] “To make growing.”
- Ngerana “talk” → pengerana [pɛŋɛrana] “The way of talking.”
- Sereh “get married” → tersereh [tɛrsɛrɛh] or tesereh [tɛsɛrɛh]

“Bride marriage.”

Examples in the form of sentences:

Terpengadi: ia banci terpengadi “He can be stopped.”

Terpake: senndu enggo terpake aku “Your money was used by me.”

Terpedem: ia enggo terpedem “He has fallen asleep.”

c. Prefix [i_] as Transitive verb inflection.

For example:

- Tutup → itutup “To cover.”
- Erdangken → ierdangken “To put the seed of.”
- Togan → itogan “Contradicted.”

In the form of sentence:

▪ Matawari itutupi embun mekapal
Sun PAS-cover cloud thick
“The sun was obscured by dense cloud.”

▪ Bagem juma ierdangken bapa
thus-EMPH field PAS-sow father
“In this way the field was sown by father.”

d. Prefix /i-/ can indicate passiveness of the sentence.

For example:

- tutupi ‘closed’ → itutupi [itutupi]
- belgangi ‘boil’ → ibelgangi. [ibɛlgaŋi]
- neheni ‘look’ → ineheni. [inɛhɛni]
- darami ‘seek’ → idarami [idarami]

e. Prefix /me-/ tends to occur to adjective word or stem beginning with any consonant sounds except /w/ and /y/. For example:

- gegeh ‘strong’ → megegeh [mɛgɛgɛh]
- dalit ‘slippery’ → medalit [mɛdalit]
- las ‘hot’ → melas [mɛlas]
- kapal ‘thick’ → mekapal [mɛkapal]
- paras ‘face’ → meparas “Elegant or beautiful face.”
- tultul ‘not sharp’ → metultul “Blunt”
- date ‘soft’ → medate “Soft (thing) or humble speech.”

Examples in the form of sentence

- ndeharandu teridah meparas “Your wife looks elegant.”
- pisaunta enggo metultul “Our knife is already blunt.”
- buah galuh enggo medate “Banana fruit has been soft.”

Note:

Adjective form remains adjective: paras - meparas. It shows the state of something.

- f. Prefix /M-/ or /N_/ can occur to the root with initial sound before /p, t, k, d, j, and vowel sound. For example:
- Pitpit → mitpit [mitpit] “tightly closed the eyes”
 - Belin → mbelin [mbɛlin] “big”
 - Telap → ntelap [ntɛlap] “sharp”
 - Ilep-ilep → milep-ilep [milɛp-ilɛp] “twinkling”
 - Eluk-eluk → meluk-eluk [meluk-eluk] “jick jack”
 - Anjar-anjar → manjar-anjar [mandar-andar] “slowly”
 - Deher → ndeher “near”
 - Jerlang → njerlang “shiny”
 - Telap → ntelap “sharp”

Examples in the form of sentence:

- Rumahta enggo ndeher “Our house is already near.”
 - Matawari sehkal njerlangna “The sun is very sharp.”
 - Pisau ena ntelap “The knife is sharp.”
- g. Prefix /ci-/ can be attached to the limited number of stems, such as transitive verbs and some nouns. There are three allomorphs of this prefix. For example:
- Gergo → cigergo ε
 - Linggem → cilinggemε
 - Kurak → cikurak
 - Ngatngat → cingatngat.
 - Gatgat → cigatgat.

3. The Suffix

The suffix is the linguistic units which must be attached to the final position of the root or base of words.

- a. Saffix /-sa/ is usually attached to transitive verb and has two allomorphs: /-ca/ and /-sa/. For example:
- Make → makesa “use”
 - Nampati → nampatisa “help”
 - Nimai → nimaisa “waite”
 - Mangan → mangansa “eat”

b. The suffix /-ken/

The suffix /-ken/ is one of the suffix which is attached to the stems and usually in the form of intransitive verbs. For example:

- Mangan → manganken.
- Laws → lawesken.
- Ridi → ridiken.
- Rende → rendeken.
- Ndarat → ndaratken.

c. The suffix /-i/

The suffix /-i/ can be attached to the stems of transitive verbs. For example:

- Pikipik → pikpiki
- Ema → emai
- Nangko → nangkoi
- Ndilo → ndiloi

d. The suffix /-en/

The suffix /-en/ is attached to the stems, the stems can be intransitive verb, adjectives and indicating plurality. For example:

- Kiam → kiamen.
- Lawes → lawesen.
- Mambur → mamburen.
- Jile → jilen.
- Lala → lalan.
- Ganjang → ganjangen.

e. The suffixes are the elements which is attached to the root or stem of word in final position, eg. /-ken / as in:

- Kata - kataken.
- Keri - keriken.
- Cakap - cakapken.
- Lupa - lupaken.
- Dalam - dalanken.

4. The Infix

The infix is the linguistic unit which is inserted in between two or more syllables. It always attached to the first syllable of the stem. In Karo language, it derives nouns from transitive verb stems, nearly all of which are affected or produced by the.

5. Circumfixes

Circumfixes are the prefix and suffix attached to the root or stem of word, eg.

/er__ken/ as in :jabu - erjabuken.

/ke__en/ as in : keleng - kekelengen.

/ter__en/ as in : belin - terbelinen.

/si__en/ as in : belin - sibelingen.

/si__en/ as in : nehen - sinehenen.

/pen__en/ as in : sakit - penakiten.

/per__en/ as in : dalam - perdalanan.

/ke__en/ as in : geluh - kegeluhen.

/kini__en/ as in : tek - kiniteken.

Notes:

N- becomes /m-/ before bilabial stops, /n_/ before dental, alveolar, and palatal obstruent and fricatives, and _ng before velar stops. There are five different morphemes realized by N_, which in this description are differentiated from each other by means of a superscript number included within the underlining, for example: N₁, etc (by G. D. Woolams p.47 : 1991).

C. Paradigmatic Affixes

Paradigmatic Affixes can be said also as Paradigmatic Morphology is a study of affixes and lexical entries introduced under paradigms. In morphology, a paradigm is a collection of a word's inflectional distinctions, or the different morpho-syntactic-function. Affixes from the point of paradigmatic can be classified into the following:

1. Countable and Uncountable Nouns

These terms in morphological category can be said as number, on the other hand, it is called singular and plural nouns. This is contradictory found in English, where nouns commonly take the suffix, -s if it is two or more entities.

This basic difference cannot be found in all languages particularly in Karo language. In Karo language, plurality is determined by adding number before nouns, such as: *telu kalak* "three persons," *dua kibil* "two pieces." In English, to indicate plurality, it can be done by adding /-s/ at the end of noun, such as: eyes, legs, fruits, clocks, stones, etc.

Not all languages may have an inflectional suffix to show plurality in noun, particularly in Karo Language.

2. Some Related Concepts in Morphology:

- **Affixes:** A type of morpheme, or part of a word with its own meaning. Affixes can't stand on their own and must attach to a base. For example, the word disappearance has the root word appear and the affixes dis- and -ance.
- **Paradigmatic relation:** A substitution relationship between words of the same word class.
- **Syntagmatic relation:** The linear relationship or position between words in a sentence.
- **Productive affixes:** Affixes that can be used to create new words.
- **Grammaticalization:** A process by which affixes often derive from free lexemes.
- **Degrammaticalization:** A process by which affixes and affixoids develop into free morphemes.

GENERAL QUESTIONS

Read each question two or three times to make sure that you understand what is to answer.

1. Having read the explanation on '*morpheme*', can you describe in your own words:
 - a. What morpheme is?
 - b. The characteristics of a morpheme?

2. Eugene A. Nida says, 'Morphology is the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words'.
 - a. Explain in your own words
 - b. Clarify the relationship between morphemes and words

3. She says further that 'morphemes can constitute words or parts of words'.
 - a. 'Can constitute words', what does it mean?
 - b. 'Can constitute parts of words', what else is it?

4. Mention the scope of the study of morphology.

5. How is morphology related to the other branches of linguistic study?
Mention also
 - a. The other branches of the study

b. The subject matter of each covers

6. Why is morphology called the grammar of words?
Illustrate your answer with adequate examples
7. What is meant by the minimality of a shape?
Relate your answer with several other linguistic forms smaller and larger than this (i.e. the shape which is minimal)
8. Why should the independence of meaning be important in determining a morpheme?
9. How do you make yourself sure that a linguistic form is a morpheme, while some other is not?
10. A single morpheme has several representations.
 - a. What is representation?
 - b. Take {-ant} as an example to exemplify the kinds of representation.
11. The plural morpheme {-s} is only one kind. There are several other kinds of plural morphemes.
 - a. Mention one by one
 - b. Write them down in one series of system to show that they are allomorphs and belong to the same morpheme, i.e. plural morpheme.

12. Are zero morphemes and zero morphs the same.
 - a. Say how they are the same/or not
 - b. Illustrate your answer with adequate examples.

13. Are morphemes and words the same?
 - a. Say how they are the same/or not
 - b. Illustrate your answer with adequate examples

14. Morphemes to one classification are divided into free and bound morphemes.
 - a. What are they?
 - b. What is the basis of this classification?
 - c. Say that these two morphemes have each own relation to and in the formation of words.

15. To another classification, there are derivational and inflectional morphemes to account.
 - a. What are they?
 - b. What is the base of this classification?
 - c. How this classification fundamentally different from the earlier classification (question 13)

16. Compare how derivational morphemes carry contrast to those inflectional morphemes.

Mention also that, for example, the morpheme {-ness} can carry both derivational and inflectional function.

17. Given an unfinished sentence such as : the – a – with – a, it seems impossible for us to compose the sentences unfinished such as: boy – run – way – ball is easier to guess the possible construction which is wanted.
- Mention your reason.
 - What does this solution indicate the possibility for another classification?
18. Lexical morphemes are usually related to free morphemes. How do you think?
19. Grammatical morphemes are usually related to bound morphemes. How do you think?
20. Mention all the bases of the three classifications of morpheme.
21. Mention all the similarities and differences of all the morphemes you have classified. Put them in tabular scheme.
22. The following is a list of then linguistic units or items.
- Identify which ones are morphemes and which ones are words
 - Mention which ones are monomorphemic, polymorphemic and multimorphemic words.
- agony* *favourite*
boundary *peculiar*

communicative *underestimationism*
describe *upon*
entanglement *internationalizations*

23. From the list given in question 22, mention individually (one after the other),
- Derivational morphemes
 - Inflectional morphemes

24. Which ones of the following morphemic analyses are false?

a-gony *fa-vour-ite*
bound-ary *pecul-iar*
commun-icat-ive *under-estim-at-ion-ism*
de-scribe *upon-*
en-tangle-ment *inter-nat-ion-al-iz-at-ions*

25. In the following sentences, try to find and to identify all the free, bound, lexical, grammatical derivational, and inflectional morphemes.
- The boys kicked the bucket.
 - The instruments can be supported by the handle.
 - Inflection is the noun word.
 - Inflectional is the adjective word.
 - Derivational morphemes are found in this sentences.
 - Marry sends the message.

26. Please find out the prefixes in Karo language.
27. Please find out the suffixes in Karo language.
28. What morphemes are used to mark the comparative degree in Karo language.

== *We're all liable to make mistakes* ==

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Until recently, the number of books on morphology is quite limited. This might be due to the following considerations. First, morphology is commonly considered as one field of linguistic study which is subsidiary to linguistics itself as a whole. Secondly, it might be considered unwise to put it in separation from its parent ship that its stature in its own right will cause a misleading interpretation of having got an autonomous status. This second consideration is of course exaggerating as “the studying of the word formation” – morphology is sometimes so defined has no clear-cut boundary with the fields of study concerning speech sound and sentences, respectively from which words are constituted and toward which larger operation of words is made.

Perhaps, the third consideration may appear. Its appearance is mostly based on the less informative reason. It says that morphology is just a field of study of narrow and shallow plain that its complete presentation needs hard work seems unlikely.

Apart from the mentioned reasons, such a separate book of morphology, particularly for direct interaction or any kind of activities in classrooms or for personal guide, is felt strongly urgent. This book is intended for graduate students as well as language improvisers.

It is intentionally prepared as easy-to-grasp as possible, more comprehensive but concise, illustrated with theoretical frameworks and tabular schemes. As universities apply a two-semester program, this book is presented in one volume just to associate with the semesters.

This book is concerned with English Morphology and mixed with Karo language so that the language learners can compare how to use morphological rules in both languages.

May this book be a contribution to those who are interested in Morphology.



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