AN INTRODUCTION TO
ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

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PREFACE

Words are very important in our daily lives to help us communicate with others. We think that we all really know what words are. However, do we really know how words are organized? In this book we will discuss how words are organized so that after learning this book, you will not only understand what words are, but also how words are organized.

The aim of this book is to introduce one of linguistics branches which is morphology and its relation with other linguistics branches. Thus, English learners will know what morphology is and its relation with other linguistics branches.

To help the learners find more about the topics covered in this book, every chapter ends with some games and exercises that are related to the topic. Therefore, the learners are expected to enjoy learning this book.

This book is not complete edition to cover all morphology materials. There is a lot of lack in this book. Therefore, criticism and suggestion will be gladly accepted.

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CHAPTER I
MORPHOLOGY

1. What is Morphology?

There are so many linguistics branches, one of them is Morphology. The word morphology has its base from 'morph' that means 'shape, form' and 'ology' that mean 'the study of thing'. Morphology tells how words are formed and it focuses on studying words. August Schleicher (1859) emphasized morphology as sub-discipline of linguistics. Morphology is also called as the composition and the connection from the smallest meaningful units in a language.

Language is a communication system which is composed of a group of sounds and written symbols which people use to talk and write in a country or region. People understand each other by communicating. When some specific sounds are put together in specific ways, words, phrases, and sentences, communication between humans will occur by sending and receiving messages from and to each other. In order to expert in morphology, we need to learn about morphemes. Morphemes are the smallest grammatical unit which has meaning. Free morphemes and bound morphemes are kinds of morphemes.

Free morphemes can be defined as morphemes that can come alone because they already have meanings. The examples of free morphemes are *book, deliver, table, learn, think, put, apple*, etc.

Unlike free morphemes, bound morphemes can be defined as morphemes which cannot come alone and they should be attached to free morphemes to get their meanings. Here are the examples of bound morphemes.

Affix	
Prefx	Suffix
dis-	-ly
un-	-ness

pre-	-ish
trans-	-ity
bi-	-er

2. The Importance of Studying Morphology

Morphology is generally described as the study of the internal form of words and the rules of the organization of words in a language. It is piece of our grammatical knowledge in a language. Like linguistic knowledge, it will commonly be unconscious knowledge. English students need to determine knowledge based on understanding word formation processes and the structure of words. By establishing a sensibility of English morphology, English teachers will be able to assist their students easily understand how words enter a language, what their compositions are, and how they are formed by modifying and combining roots, prefixes, and suffixes. According to the current studies, students will get a better reading comprehension and larger vocabulary if they have awareness on word formation processes (Kieffer and Lesaux, 2008). Therefore, morphology would be an important pedagogical guidance for language students to elaborate and apply vocabulary imaginatively.

The purpose of studying morphology is to identify the field of morphology; the internal form of words, the classification of words, and also the base and the modification of words' meanings. Studying morphology is not only for students of linguistics, but also for English students in general and those for English teacher education programs especially. By reading this book, the readers will advance topics of morphology in many variations of topics that will be discussed.

The morphological processes of words formation have drawn the consideration of linguist as a result publication in 1970 (Joaquin A, 1991). It is confirmed theory of words

formation that a complete theory of a language was established. Morphological processes tell about kinds of methods in which new words are formed. There are various processes to build words in any language with different devices:

a) Prefixes

b) Infixes

c) Suffixes

d) Compounding

e) Reduplication

f) Backformation

g) Internal change

h) Suppletion

i) Shortening of bases

j) Alphabet based formation

The importance of morphology in grammar is to study words forms and to study sentence structure. A language will be classified according to the principles of the grammar which hold for them. Linguists believe that there is a relationship between every components of grammar. As a study of the form of words, morphology works as a program to link various constituent of a language. The generative grammar transformational does not have strong relationship with morphology. They could not draw clear differences between aspects of morphology and the theories of syntax and phonology.

Grammarians also express the speaker's knowledge in some rules. By adding -ize as an attachment, new words will be formed as a productive morphological process in which the word formation has considerable deliberation. As the example, the adjective 'social' can be changed into a verb by adding -ize, and thus compose a new word 'socialize'. It has different meaning and different classification. This rules states that one of the most important components of grammar like noun, verb, adjective or

adverb in a base word has a modification, it will change a base word into a new word by adding suffix in it. There is also another type of rule says that a productive morphological process may change the shape of several morphemes, called adjustment rule.

In this book we will explore more about the materials that must be studied in morphology. Starting from the general materials to the complicated ones.

Quiz

Questions
1. According to your opinion, what is the benefit of learning morphology in linguistics?
2. What is the synonym of base words?
3. Is it possible to modify a word by adding prefixes and suffixes simultaneously?
4. Is morphology only studied by linguistic scientists?
5. What are components learned in linguistic morphology?

3. It's Game Time!

Break off the words into free and bound morphemes!

breakable	studied	reads
	writing	
friendship		unreadable
	goodness	
ruined		creativity
	books	
writer	loved	strengthen

Free morphemes	Bound morphemes

4. Summarizing

Morphology is a branch of linguistics that is dedicated to morphemes.

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                        ┌─────────────────┐
                        │   Linguistics   │
                        └─────────────────┘

┌──────────────────────┐              ┌──────────────────────┐
│ Theoritical Linguistics │           │  Applied Linguistics │
└──────────────────────┘              └──────────────────────┘

┌──────────────┐                      ┌──────────────────┐
│  Phonetics   │                      │ Sociolinguistics │
└──────────────┘                      └──────────────────┘

┌──────────────┐                      ┌──────────────────┐
│  Phonology   │                      │ Psycholinguistic │
└──────────────┘                      └──────────────────┘

┌──────────────┐                      ┌──────────────────┐
│  Morphology  │                      │ Ethnolinguistics │
└──────────────┘                      └──────────────────┘

┌──────────────┐                      ┌──────────────────┐
│   Syntax     │                      │  Geolinguistics  │
└──────────────┘                      └──────────────────┘

┌──────────────┐                      ┌──────────────────┐
│  Semantics   │                      │ Neurolinguistics │
└──────────────┘                      └──────────────────┘

┌──────────────┐                      ┌──────────────────┐
│ Pragmantics  │                      │  Biolinguistics  │
└──────────────┘                      └──────────────────┘

┌──────────────────┐                  ┌────────────────────┐
│ Discourse Analysis │                │ Historical Linguistics │
└──────────────────┘                  └────────────────────┘
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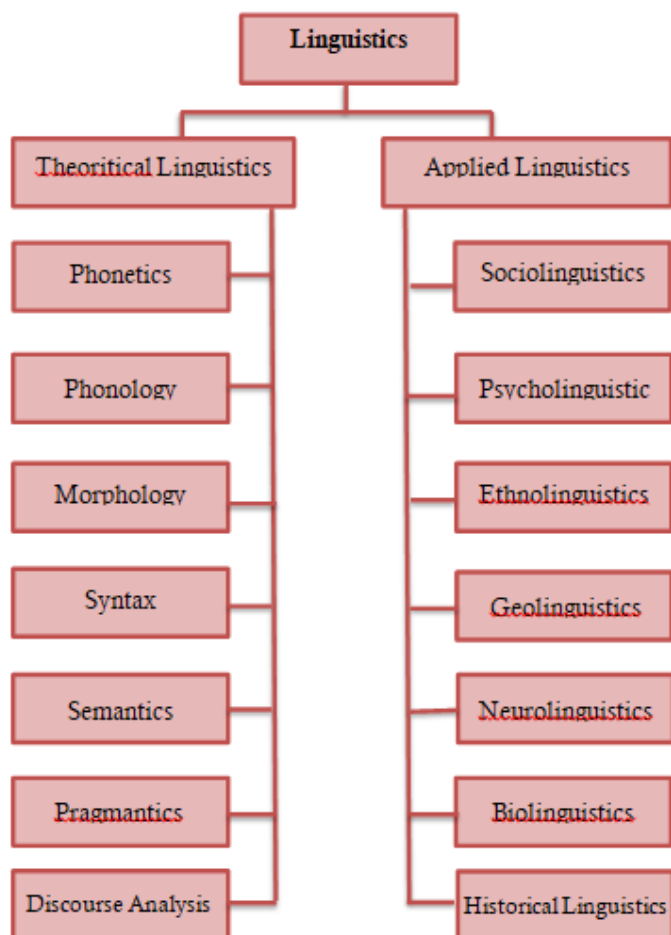
- Morphemes are divided into two, free morphemes and bound morphemes.

```
                    morphemes

      free morphemes          bound morphemes

      Examples:               Examples:
        apple                     -ed
        stand                     -es
        sleep                     -er
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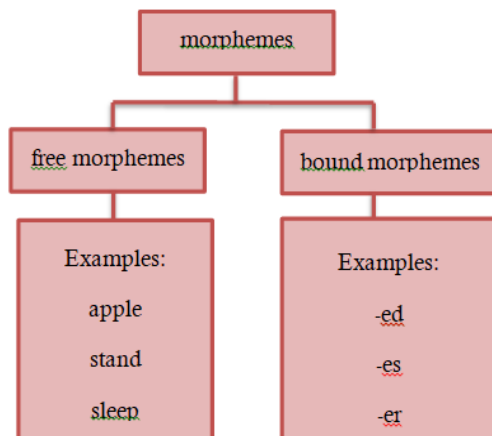
- The importances of studying morphology are:
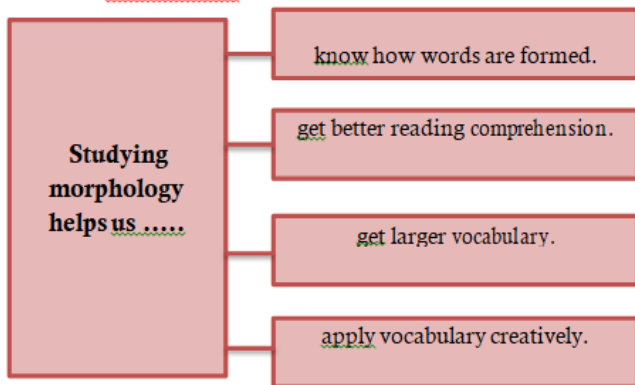
```
                              know how words are formed.

   Studying                   get better reading comprehension.
   morphology
   helps us .....             get larger vocabulary.

                              apply vocabulary creatively.
```

5. Exercises

Exercise 1

<u>Instructions:</u>

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!
2. Scan the barcode below!

3. Watch the video and write its transcript!
4. Break off each word in the transcript into free and bound morphemes!

Exercise 2

Read each statement below and decide whether it is true (T) or false (F)!

Statement	T/F
1. The word morphology has its origin from 'morph' means 'shape, form' and 'ology' means 'the study of biology'.	
2. The composition and the connection from the smallest meaningful units in a language is one of sub-discipline in studying morphology.	

3.	A communication system which consists of a set of sounds and written symbols that people use to talking and writing in a country or region called phonology.
4.	Not all of human language depends on sounds to communicate.
5.	A morpheme can be defined as the smallest grammatical unit that has meaning.
6.	How language can be arranged through word parts and these units of meanings called morpheme is one of sub-material focuses to study in morphology.
7.	Bound morphemes are morphemes that can stand alone because they already heve meanings.
8.	Bound morphemes usually called as affixes.
9.	Affixation process is the presence of an affix that is attached to a morphological base.
10.	The affixes which come at the beginning are called suffixes, while the affixes which come at the end are called prefixes.

~Good luck!~

CHAPTER II
MORPHEME

1. What is Morpheme?

Did you know that there is a grammatical unit smaller than a word? Well, it is called morpheme. Morpheme can be defined as the smallest grammatical unit that has meaning. Therefore, you cannot break it down into the smaller meaningful piece. The linguistics field that is dedicated to morphemes is called Morphology and you have learned it in the previous chapter.

When you are asked how many morphemes the word creative has, what will you answer? Okay, let's find it together! Free morphemes and bound morphemes are kinds of morphemes. Free morphemes are morphemes that can appear alone and already have meanings. There are two types of free morphemes, they are lexical morphemes and functional morphemes. We can find many free morphemes in dictionaries. The examples of free morphemes are apple, read, book, look, etc.

Unlike free morphemes, bound morphemes cannot appear alone and they should be bound to free morphemes to get their meanings. There are two types of bound morphemes, they are inflectional morphemes and derivational morphemes. Bound morphemes can also be called as affixes, the examples are - ly, - es, -s, etc.

Let back to the question before, when you are asked how many morphemes the word creative has, you should answer that the word creative has two morphemes, one free morpheme that is create and one bound morpheme that is - ive. It is easy, is not it?

apple (one morpheme)

Apple + (-*s*) = apples (two morphemes)

Quiz 1

Okay students, to make sure you understand the materials or not, do the following quiz!

Words	How many morphemes does it have?	Free morpheme	Bound morpheme
successfully	**3**	**success**	**-ful, -ly**
unbelievable			
unhappy			
care			
sleepy			
stranger			
writer			
formation			
love			
reading			
unbreakable			

2. Words and morphemes

The difference between words and morpheme is that morphemes frequently do not stand alone, but words always do. Every word consists of one or more morphemes. To know how many types of words that can be formed from free morphemes and bound morphemes, look at the table below:

Type of word	Explanation	Examples
Simple	Simple words are base forms of words that consist of one free morpheme. They cannot be broken into smaller bits.	*Sleep, beauty, form, success, form*
Compound	Compound words are words that consist of two or more free morphemes.	*Keyboard, blueprint, bodyguard, baseball, bedrock*
Complex	Complex words are words that consist of multiple morphemes (free morpheme and bound morpheme)	*Bookishness, unhappiness*

Quiz

Okay students, to make sure whether you understand the materials or not, do the following quiz!

Word	Type of Word	How Many Morphemes Does It Have?
successful	**complex**	**2**
beautiful		
transformational		
ballroom		
bed		

background		
sleep		

3. Lexical Vs Functional Morphemes

As you have read before, lexical morphemes and functional morphemes are kinds of free morphemes.

A. Lexical morphemes

Lexical morphemes are morphemes which provide the substance of the sentences or utterances. They include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. The examples of lexical morphemes are cat, look, short, fast. Lexical morphemes are in open classes. It means that you can add new members to these classes. You can invent new nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. The example of invented word is Google. Long time ago, there was no the word google, but now no one is not familiar with this word.

B. Functional morphemes

Functional morphemes are different from lexical morphemes because they do not have clear meanings. They provide more grammatical roles, linking words together. Functional morphemes include prepositions conjunctions, and articles. For examples on, and, the. Functional morphemes are in closed classes. It means that you cannot invent new prepositions, conjunctions, or articles.

4. Inflectional vs Derivational Morphemes

As you have read before, inflectional morphemes and derivational morphemes are kinds of bound morphemes.

A. Inflectional morphemes

Inflectional morphemes are morphemes that do not change word classes (parts of speech) when they are attached to words. The examples of inflectional morphemes are affix -ed that ends in simple past forms of verbs (looked, asked, focused, aimed, etc.), affix -s/-es that ends in plural forms of nouns (eyes, ears, books, cats, etc.), affix -er/-est that ends in comparative or superlative forms of adjectives (shorter, shortest, smarter, smartest, etc). To make you more understand about inflectional morphemes, look at the following table!

English inflectional morphemes	Attached to	Examples
plural (*-s/-es*)	nouns	Lina bought some *books*.
possessive (*-'s*)	nouns	Lina's mother is kind.
comparative (*-er*)	adjectives	Lina is shorter that Rina.
superlative (*-est*)	adjectives	Lina is the shortest girl in the class.
present tense for 3rd person (*-s*)	verbs	Lina washes her clothes every Sunday.
Past tense (*-ed*)	verbs	Lina borrowed my book yesterday.
present participle (*-ing*)	verbs	Lina is studying now.
past participle (*-en*)	verbs	Lina has taken books from the shelf.

B. Derivational morphemes

Unlike inflectional morphemes, derivational morphemes frequently shift word classes (parts of speech) when they are bound to words. For example: when you add suffix -able to the verb read, it becomes readable and its part of speech also changes. At the first it is a verb, but at the end it becomes an adjective. Here readable is called as derived word because

readable is the word form which results from adding a derivational morpheme.

You are also able to add more than one derivational morpheme to a free morpheme. For example, when we put the derivational morpheme -ful to the noun success, success becomes the adjective successful. Then, we still be able to put the derivational morpheme -ly to the adjective successful, successful becomes the adverb successfully.

C. Some morphemes that are both inflectional and derivational

Some inflectional morphemes, especially -ed, -er, - ing, and -en, are able to be derivational morphemes. Let's take the morpheme -er as the example, -er can be both inflectional and derivational morpheme. If we add -er to an adjective, that indicates the comparative as in shorter. Then, when we add -er to a verb, the verb will become a noun as in reader. Therefore, there are some bound morphemes that are both inflectional and derivational.

Quiz

Okay students, to make sure whether you understand the materials or not, do the following quiz!

Sentence	Affix	Inflectional Morpheme	Derivational Morpheme
She is a beautiful girl.	**-ful**		
He looks unhappy.			
She rode her bicycle slowly yesterday.			
He is a writer.			

He <u>borrowed</u> a book from the library yesterday.			
He is <u>sleepy</u>.			

5. It's Game Time!

Instructions:

1. Each player puts their counters on the space that says 'start'.

2. Take it in turns to roll the dice.

3. You have to do/answer commands/questions that are written on spaces where your counter lands on.

4. If your counter lands at the bottom of a ladder, you can move up to the top ofthe ladder.

5. If your counter lands on the head of a snake, you should slide down to the bottom of the snake.

Mention 3 compound words — 7
Mention 5 simple words — 8
Mention 1 complex word — 21
Mention 1 derivational morpheme — 22
35 FINISH

What is word? — 6
Are morphemes and words same — 9
20
23
34 What is functional morpheme?

What is morpheme? — 5
10 What is bound morpheme
Mention 4 compound words — 19
24
33

Mention 4 bound — 4
11
18
25
32

Mention 2 free morphemes — 3
12 Mention 4 complex words
17
26
31 Mention 2 complex words

START — 2
13 What is simple word?
16 Mention 3 free morphemes
27 Mention 1 free morphemes
30 Mention 2 inflectional morpheme

1
14
15
28
29
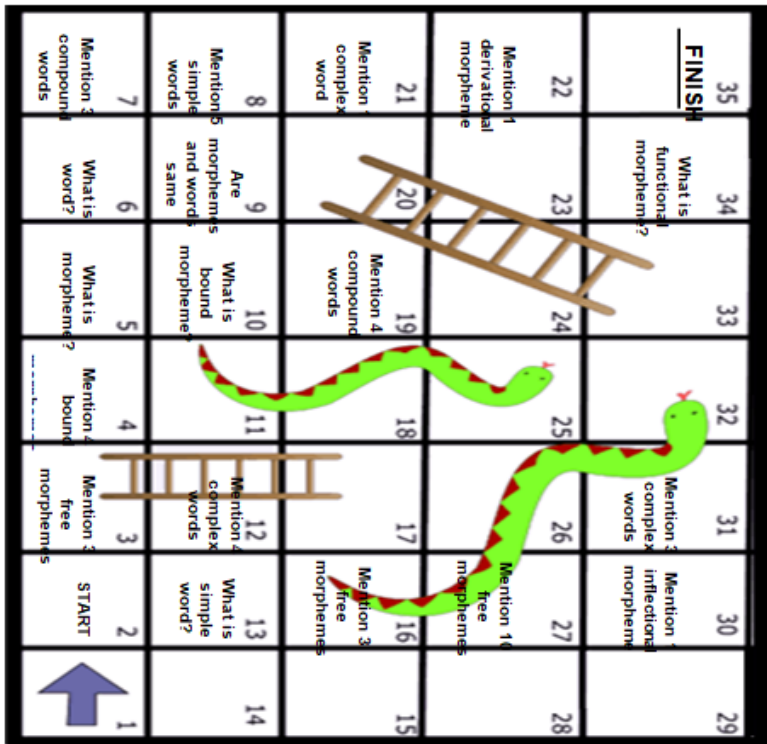
6. Summarizing

- Morphemes are the smallest grammatical units that have meanings. Free morphemes and bound morphemes are kinds of morphemes. There are two kinds of free morphemes, they are lexical and functional morphemes. Like free morphemes, bound morphemes are divided into two kinds as well, they are inflectional and derivational morphemes. Look at the following diagram to make you more understand!
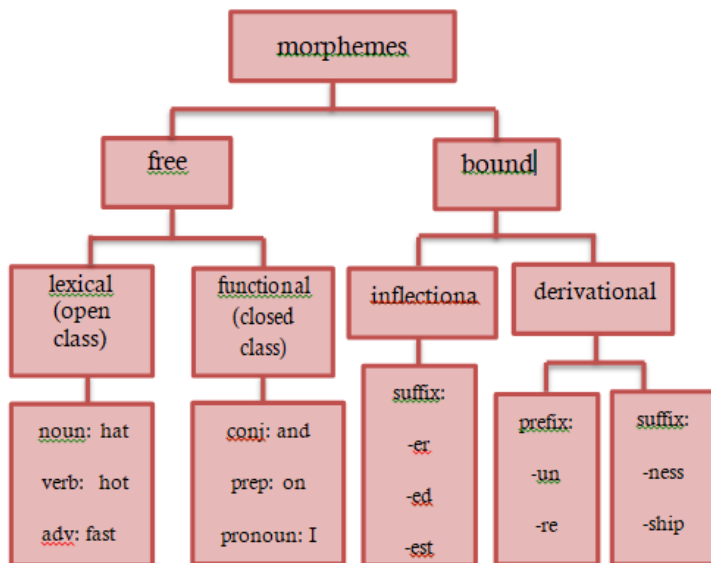
- Every word is composed of one or more morphemes. Words that are composed of only one free morpheme are called simple words. Words that are composed of two or more free morphemes are called compound words. Words that are composed of multiple morphemes (free and bound morphemes) are called complex words. Look at the following diagrams!
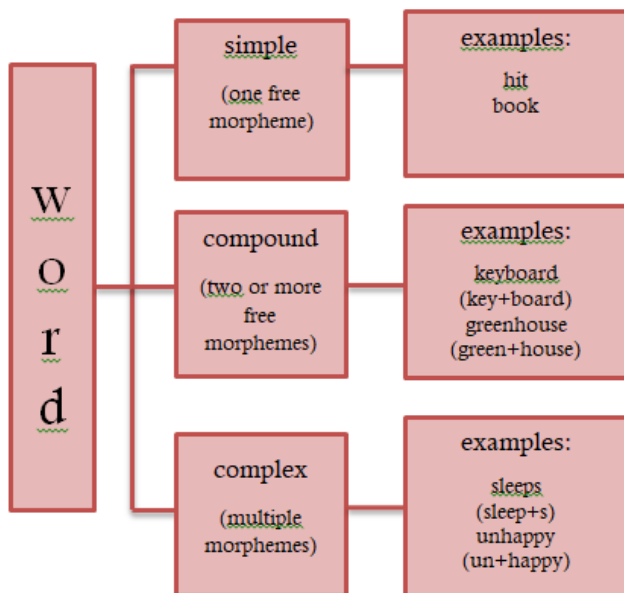
7. Exercises

Exercise 1

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!

2. Scan the barcode below!
3. Watch the video and write its transcript!

4. Analyze the transcript by deciding how many morphemes each word has!

Exercise 2

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!
2. Scan the barcode below!

3. Watch the video and write its transcript!
4. Analyze the transcript by finding words that are attached by inflectional and derivational morphemes!

~Good luck!~

CHAPTER III
WORD, SENTENCES, & DICTIONARIES
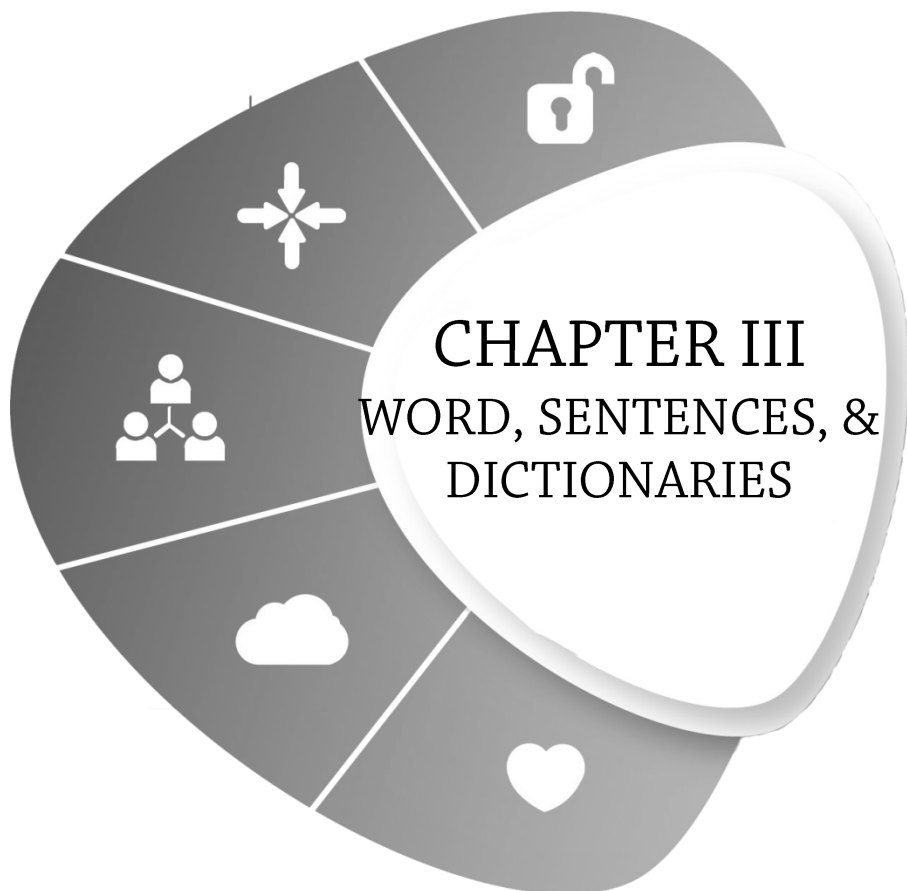
1. Words: Building-Blocks of Language

As we know that word is a basic unit of language. When the baby starts speaking, his or her parents will be so excited and say, "Look, our baby has said his or her first word!" It could be "mama" or "dada". It will surprise us if the baby's first utterance is a sentence. Sentences appear after words, we are having preference to sense, when words are bound together meaningfully. But, a sentence is not always consisting of more than one word. We can say "Look!" or "Go!" and other people can still understand what we mean. It is clear that some words seem to be the building-blocks of language. As adult, we used to say a single word outer the substance of any certain or reorganizable sentence. As illustrations:

Warning shouts, such as "Fire!"

Sometimes, when there is something burn, we want to warn people quickly, right? So, we can say, "fire!"

Conventional commands, such as "Lights!", "Camera!", "Action!"

That words do not included in a sentence. But, when we want to shoot or start filming, rather than say "Please, set the lights properly then on the camera. For the actors, start action now!" We can only say, "Lights!", "Camera!", and "Action!"

Words and sentences can also be categorized and divided in different ways. A categorization of words based on their meanings is called thesaurus. In the other hand, the classification of words based on their spelling alphabetically is called dictionary. Sometimes, we use dictionary to make sure how to spell some words. However, the very general motive why we use dictionary is to know what the meanings of some words are. The entry of dictionary mostly is composed of a group of words, listed in alphabetical order, the meaning of those words, and some information about the part of speech of those words and also how to pronounce those words. For example:
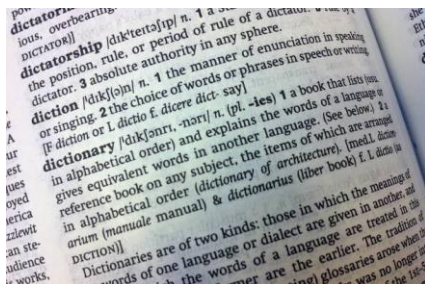
In that picture, we can see the word "dictionary". There, we can know that dictionary is a noun. We can know the meaning of dictionary and how to pronounce it.

Words not only the building-block of sentences but also the building-block with an unpredictable meaning which English learners, and even the native speakers themselves feel difficult so that they must use a dictionary to discover that problem. From this statement, maybe we will think that words are groups of language that are based on two perceptions:

a) Words have the uncertain meaning and those must be inserted in dictionaries.

b) Words are the building-block that phrases and sentences are structured.

However, if we think about two facts above is the only things about words, this would be a very short books because the fact is words are not that short! So, in what part that 1 and 2 failed in describing the characteristic of the words? The answer is mostly lies on fact that there is a unit of language that has characteristic 1 but not in 2. Or maybe, the unit of language has the characteristic in 2 but not in 1.

Quiz

Word	Pronunciation	Part of speech	Meaning (in English)	Example in sentence
sit				
beautiful				
apple				
paper				
swim				
fat				
work				
glass				
cute				
eat				

P.S: Use Oxford Dictionary or search it online in https://www.oxfordlearnersdictioanries.com/definition/english/use_1?=Use

2. Words: Types and Tokens

Before we go to the material of this part, please mention how many words in the sentence below are!

a) Anna goes to Paris next year, and her mother will go to Italy next week.

If our guide is the English spelling convention that it must be "a word" after a space, the answer is clearly to be fifteen. But, there is also the possibility that in that sentence, there are only less than fifteen words. The reason is because the words to and next are repeated. So that, the third word (to) is same as the twelfth word (to). So, they are

counted as one word. Then, the fifth word (next) and the fourteenth word (next) are clearly same. So, those word are counted as one word. The conclusion is there are only thirteen words in that sentence.

So, let us say that the third and twelfth words of that sentence are the different tokens of a single type, and the fifth and the fourteenth word also put in different tokens but in a single type. (In the same way, we can say that it is the two performances of the same tune. Or the two copies of the same books can define what the meaning of the different tokens of a single type is.)

Sandrina did Jaipong dance.

Christy and Carlie did Jaipong dance

Those pictures are the example of token and type. The tokens are "Christy and Carlie" and Sandrina. The type is Jaipong dance. So, the two different dancers did the same dance, Jaipong.

The different tokens-types are relevant to the notion of word in this way. The sentence (spoken or written) consists of word-tokens, but that is clearly not listed in the dictionary. So, the word "*next*" must be not listed in dictionaries according to its token. Because, the dictionary's entry must be the words in one level, types, but not tokens.

It is enough, to say that the characterization 2 (*words are the building block that phrases and sentences are formed*.) relates to word-tokens. But, is it true that the characterization 1 (*words have the unpredictable meaning*) relates to word-type? So, if you still think that 2 facts above have defined all the characteristics of words, our book will be so short. The term "*word*" would be ambiguous between a "token" interpretation and a "type" interpretation, but the ambiguity would be same as the other terms and not specifically related to language like tune. Tune that I have heard today maybe same as the tune that I had heard yesterday. But, the tokens that I have heard today maybe different from the tokens that I had heard yesterday. In the other hand, the relationship between word as the building- block and word as the meaningful units are not that simple. So, it is important to be careful in type-token ambiguity when we talk about words.

Quiz

Sentence	Number of words	Token and Type
After watching a movie, I want to watch a concert.		
Natalia was eating a sandwich while her brother was watching an anime.		
I want to do my homework but my brother wants me to cook fried rice for him.		
My grandmother always visits her friend		

and someday I will accompany her to go there		
Wash your hand after hanging out then put off your clothes and change it!		
My favorite idol is Lisa from Blackpink, but Sheila likes Suga from BTS.		
I really like rose because it is very beautiful, and my brother gave it to me, yesterday.		
Next month, I am going to go to South Korea with my grandmother.		
My math teacher always teaches us seriously but we never understand math.		
Yesterday, I saw Sarah in front of the mall and she was waiting for the taxi.		

3. Words with Predictable Meanings

Are there any words that have the predictable meaning, which is the meaning that can be known by the basic or the combination of sounds? (*Why must sounds not letters? Because writing is the second step after speaking. After the babies start speaking, then they will learn how to write or read.*) The answer is yes. As we can see, some words use their sounds to reflect their meaning. These words are called as **onomatopoeic words**. The example of these words are the sounds of the crying animal, like: *miaow*, *cock-a-doodle-doo*, and *etc*.

It is important to know that **onomatopoeic words** are not same in each country. For example: In German, a cock-crow sounds *kikeriki,* and in French, a dog's bark is *ouab ouab.* There are also sets of words that have the similarity in sounds (*the same consonants in the beginning*), which seem to reflect a similarity in meaning, such as wetness or smoothness, or something about that, like *slop, slurp, slip, slide, slither, slick, slug, slaver, sleek.* This situation is known as **sound symbolism.** But, the sound-meaning relationship in sound symbolism is less than in onomatopoeia. So, the words which begin with *sl-* sound does not guarantee that the meaning is about smoothness or wetness, like *slow, slave, slit.* And there are so many words which relate to wetness or smoothness but they do not begin with *sl-.*

Quiz

Picture	Onomatopoeic Words

4. Non-Words: Unpredictable Meanings

After we learned about the words with predictable meaning, now we move to the non-words that have the unpredictable meaning. Why do non-words? Because, in this section we will learn about the things that larger than a word, because it is composed by two or more words which may not have the predictable meaning.

Please pay attention to these two words below as the English learners. Maybe all of you have understood the meaning of *expenditure, note,* and *tab*. So what do you think about the meaning of these two sentences?

a. Natalia keep notes on all her expenditure.

b. Natalia keep tabs on all her expenditure.

As the English learners, maybe you will not face the difficulty in sentence (a), you can exactly interpret it correctly as "Natalia wrote down a record of everything that she spends". But, if you turn to the sentence (b), maybe you will get confused. What is actually the meaning of that sentence? Do you translate it as "Natalia attach small flaps to all of the notes and coins that she spends"? or maybe you translated it as "She tears small pieces from the paper money that she spends, and keeps them"? If you think about those two meaning, you are exactly wrong! It is okay, because you are learners. But for native speakers, they will directly interpret that the "*keep tabs on*" as the single unit. They will not translate it individually, because the meaning is only one that is "*pay close attention to* or *monitor carefully*". This term is known as **idiom**. So, someday if you find another idiom, the right thing you must do is see it as the single unit. Do not translate it one by one because it will make your answer become wrong.

Idiom has various length, structure, and function. It can verb, it can be like a noun. Similar to idioms, are phrases in

that individual have **collocationally restricted** meanings. Look at these following phrases:

a. White wine
b. White coffee
c. White noise
d. White man

Semantically, those phrases are not really special because they only define the kinds of wine, coffee, noise, and man. But, if you see those phrases broadly, the words "white" is not always meaning "white". It can be counted as idiomatic, because "white" can be interpreted as "yellow", "brown (with milk)", "containing many frequencies with about equal amplitude", and "belonging to an ethnic group whose members' skin color is typically pinkish or pale brown".

	That picture is white wine. But, is the color of that wine really white? No, of course it is not. The color of white wine is actually yellow.
	That picture is white wine. But, is the color of that wine really white? No, of course it is not. The color of white wine is actually yellow.
	That is white man. His skin color is not that white. It is like pinkish to pale brown.
	That is white noise. There is no any relationship about that picture and color because white noise is actually a relaxing sound, like rain falls.

After learning that, maybe you will have a question about is there any linguistic items which have the unpredictable meaning that are larger than phrases and constitute the whole sentence? The answer for that question is yes. They are **proverbs**. Look at the following example!

Quiz

Okay students, to make sure you understand the materials or not, do the following quiz!

Phrase or sentence	Idiom	Collocationally restricted	Proverb
All wet	⭐		
A cold day in July			
White hair			
Blood and thunder			
Chase rainbows			
A picture speaks a thousand words			
Where is here?			
Can of worms			
Friend in need is a friend in deed			
Take a powder			
Actions speak louder than words			

5. It's Game Time!

Last Person Standing

This is such a fast-paced game. It makes students to think fast. The purpose of this game is to make the students mention as many synonyms as they can to improve their vocabulary.

Tool:

1. Ball

Instructions:

1. Firstly, all students form a circle while the teacher holds the ball
2. The teacher can decide a word before starting the game, e.g. erase
3. Then, the teacher throws the ball randomly to the students.
4. The students that had the ball must mention the synonym of that word, e.g. delete
5. After mentioning a word, that student can throw the ball to the other students. Each person who catches the ball, they must mention the other synonym of that word (e.g. erase), such as abolish, eliminate, wipe out, etc.
6. The person who can't mention the word, must sit.
7. Continue this process until five words, then the teacher can change the word.
8. Do this until we find the last person standing.

6. Summarizing

- Words are the basic unit of language, the babies' first utterances. After learning words, people will learn how to combine those words and create a sentence. There are two kinds of words' classification. They are dictionaries and thesaurus.
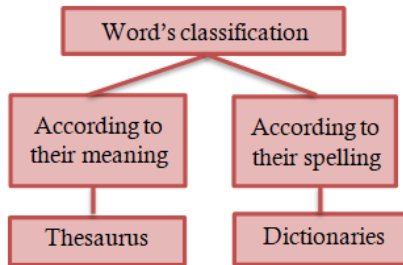
- There are two kinds of words, they are words with predictable meaning and words with unpredictable meaning.
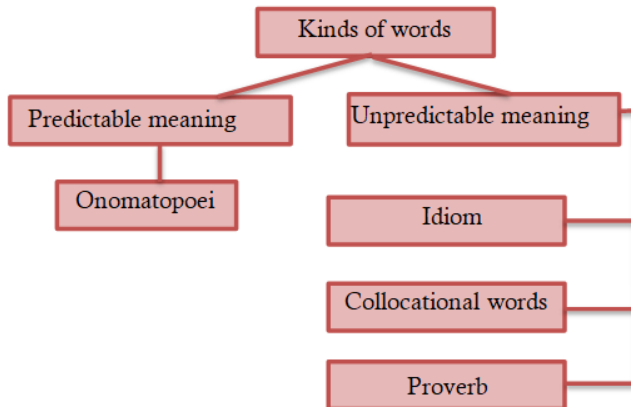
7. Exercises

Exercise 1

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!

2. Scan the barcode below!

3. Watch the video and write its transcript!

4. Analyze the words' token-type in every sentence of the transcript!

Exercise 2

Fill in the blanks!

Word	Pronunciation	Part of Speech	Meaning (in English)
Come	**/kʌm/**	**verb**	**To move to or towards a person or place**
Go	/gəʊ/		
Happy		Adjective	
		Noun	A public area in the town or city where people usually play, walk, and feel relax.
Water			
Day	/deɪ/		
Say		Verb	
House			A building that people use to live in, usually for a family.
Delicious			
		Noun	A piece of land that

			usually around (beside, behind, or in front of) your house where you can plant fruits, flowers, vegetables, and etc.
Shirt			

Exercise 3

<u>Instructions:</u>

1. Read the poem below carefully!

The Bells

By: Edgar Allen Poe

Hear the loud alarm bells, Brazen bells!

What a tale of terror, now, their turbulency tells!

In the startled ear of night

How they scream out their affright!

Too much horrified to speak,

They can only shriek, shriek, Out of tune...

How they clang, and clash, and roar!

What a horror they outpour

On the bosom of the palpitating air!

Yet the ear it fully knows, By twanging

And clanging,

How the danger ebbs and flows...

Source: <u>http://www.literacydevices.com/onomatopoeia/</u>

2. Analyze the onomatopoeic words in that poem!

~Good luck!~

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CHAPTER IV
INFLECTION
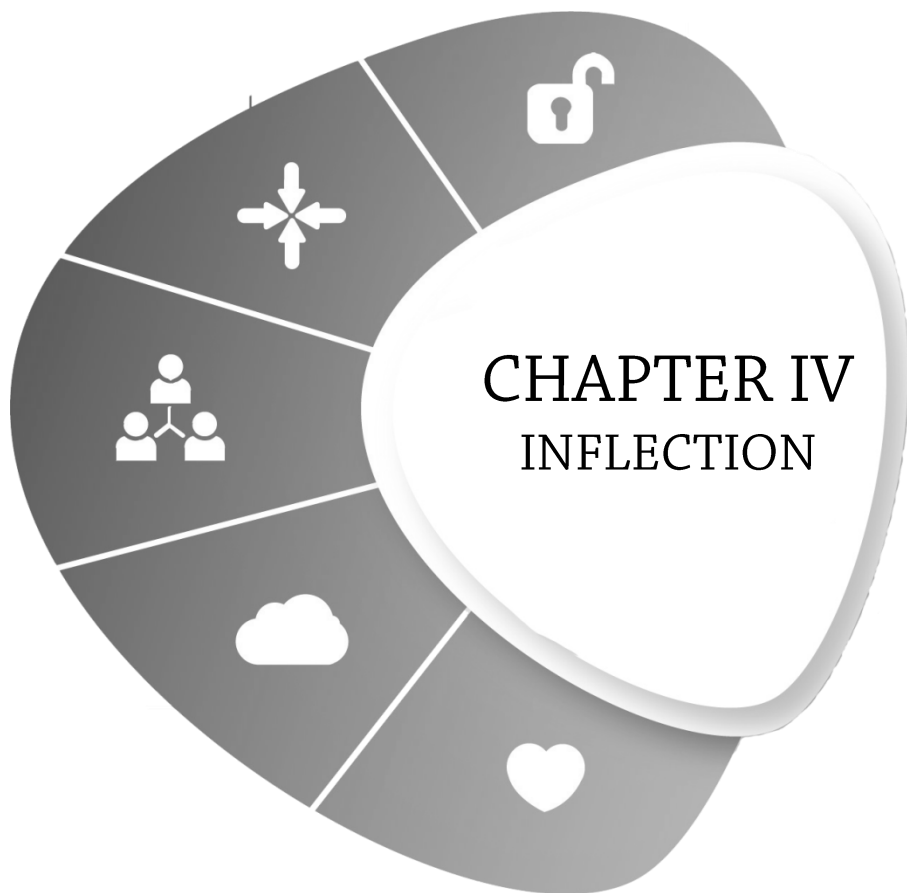
1. What is Inflectional Morphemes?

As you have read in the previous chapter (chapter 2), bound morphemes are divided into two types, inflectional and derivational morphemes. In this chapter we are going to discuss inflectional morphemes or inflectional affixes. Inflectional morphemes are morphemes that do not change the word classes (parts of speech) when they are attached to words. Therefore, they cannot create or generate new words.

Linguists defined an inflectional morpheme as a mere of grammatical indicator or marker. Yule George (2006) stated "an inflectional morpheme as a set of bound morphemes that are not used to produce new words in a language, but it is to indicate the aspects of the grammatical function in a word. An inflectional morpheme is used to show if a word is singular or plural , if it is present tense or past tense, or if it is possessive or comparative form." (p.64).

Another researcher stated that "inflectional morphemes are the small closed of a set of eight grammatical morphemes. Inflectional morphemes can change the words' formation without changing the words' category and their meaning." (Andrea DeCapua, 2008, p.38). Peter Robinson (2013) stated, "Inflectional morphemes as a set of bound morphemes used to serve grammatical purpose. The attachment of an inflectional morpheme did not create a new word. Thus, an inflected word always stays in the same lexical category as the base or the original words." (p.308).

The example of applying an inflectional morpheme is a word *cat* which adding the suffix *-s* will changes to be *cats* and a word *wait* which adding the suffix *-ed* will changes to be *waited*. There are eight inflections in English that indicated the grammatical function of a word. All of them are suffixes. There

are two inflectional morphemes that can be attached to nouns, *-s* as a possessive cases and *–s* as a plural cases. For example:

a) *Anton's* calculator
b) two *mangoes*

Four inflectional morphemes can be attached to verbs, there are *–s* as a the third person singular (present tense), *-ed* as a past tense, *-ing* as a present participle, and *-en* as a past participle.

The example of the inflectional morphemes *–s* as the third person singular (present tense), *-ed* as a past tense, and *–ing* as a present participle:

Verbs	3rd Person Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
play	plays	played	playing
study	study	studied	studying
watch	watches	watched	watching
cook	cooks	cooked	cooking
wash	washes	washed	washing

The example of the inflectional morphemes *–en* as a past participle:

Verbs	Past participle
eat	eaten
stole	stolen
take	taken
write	written
fall	fallen

There are two inflectional morphemes that can be attached to adjectives, *-er* as a comparative and *-est* as a superlative. The examples are:

Adjectives	Comparative	Superlative
happy	happier	happiest
big	bigger	biggest
small	smaller	smallest
pretty	prettier	prettiest
low	lower	lowest

2. Characteristics of Inflectional Morphemes

According to Clayton Valli (2000), there are five characteristics that can distinguish between inflection and derivation. These can be apply to some formal class, prefixes, infixes suffixes, root change, reduplication, suppletion, etc. There are:

a. Do not change the part of speech. Example: high, higher, and highest.
b. Frequently to indicate semantic or syntactic relations between the different words in a sentence. Example: the present tense of *waits* that use a morpheme *-s* shows an agreement of the verb (both are kind of the third person singular).
c. Frequently occur with all members of some large classification of morphemes. Example: the plural morpheme *-s* occurs with mostly all nouns in English.

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d. Appear at the margins of a word, after several derivational morphemes. Example: *rationalizations* that uses morpheme *-s* is kind of inflectional morpheme. It appears at the end of the word.

e. In English, inflectional morphemes are suffixes only.

3. Functions of Inflectional Morphemes

In English, an inflectional morpheme plays as three grammatical roles:

a) To indicates tenses

Tenses are related to a verb. It means that to indicate tenses, it will affect the verb. The verbs will be affected in the following ways:

> come, come+s, come+ing
>
> walk, walk+s, walk+ing,walk+ed
>
> write, write+s, writ+ing (writing), write+en (written)

- The suffix *-s* as the third person singular marker.
- The suffix *-ing* as the continuous tense marker.
- The suffix *-ed* as the past tense marker.
- The suffix *-en* as the past tense participle marker.

b) To indicates numbers

Plurality must deal with nouns. Nouns should be affected by numbers. They are subdivided into plural and singular. Plural nouns will be indicated with the suffix *–s*.

> girl+s = girls
>
> school+s = schools
>
> chair+s = chairs

The suffix -*s* above is kind of plural marker. It includes as an additive morpheme. It indicates the morpheme carrying more than one morpheme.

c)   To indicates comparison

Adjectives mostly are used to compare. Adjectives can be used to compare in two forms, there are comparative form if they have two things to compare and superlative form if they have more than two things to compare. For example:

<div style="border:1px solid;padding:1em;text-align:center;background:#cc7f7f;">

Fat

fatter

fattest

</div>

The suffix -*er* and -*est* are used to indicate comparative and superlative forms of the adjective fat.

4. Allomorphs in Inflectional Morphemes

Did you know that every morpheme was not pronounced in the same way? Well, many morphemes have two or more different pronunciations. It is called allomorphs. Allomorphs happen by determining the context. These will include some of the commonest morpheme in a language. The researcher has illustrated directly and discussed what aspects of the context which can influence the choice of an allomorph in more detail.

How the plurals of most of English nouns are formed? If they compare to the words *cat, dog,* and *horse* with the words *cats, dogs,* and *horses* respectively, the obvious answer is by adding allomorph -*s.* But, English spelling dishonorably unreliable as a guide to pronunciation. In fact, the allomorph -*s* has three sounds of each noun that changes to the plural nouns. They are:

> -s as in *cats* or *lamps* pronunciations
>
> -s as in *dogs* or *days* pronunciations
>
> -s as in *horses* and *judges* pronunciations

So, everyone who learns English, whether native or second language learners must learn each noun individually because sometimes they have more than one allomorphs when they use the same morpheme. That seems extremely difficult, but it is quiet easy to decide that there allomophs are distributed in regular fashion absolutely. According to the sound directly preceding the suffix, thus:

a. When the preceding sound is a sibilation (sounds similar to *hissing* or *hussing*) at the end of *horse, rose, church, bush,* and *judges,* the allomoph *-rzj* will occur.

b. In other ways, when the preceding sound become to voiceless, the focal folds in the larynx (as in cat, cup, rock, or calf) that does not produce vibration will make the *-s* allomorph occurs.

5. Regular and Irregular Inflectional Morphemes

Should all words be listed in the dictionary? Well, not all of words should be listed in the dictionary. Now let's make it clear, not all of words that have been added by morpheme such as the words *performs* and *performed,* or the word *pianists* will be listed in the dictionary. The words that will be listed in the dictionary is only the basic word, called lexeme, *perform* and *pianist.* But, it not correct if we say that there is no inflectional morpheme in the dictionaries.

There are two reasons why the word *pianists* does not have to be listed in the dictionary. First, if we know that the English

word is a noun by looking to the characteristic as a thing which can be counted (if the noun is *pianinst,* not *antonishment* or *sand*), then we can easily to decide that the word *pianist* will have a plural form with no idiosyncrasies of its meaning. The second reason is, mostly several of plural forms of any countable noun will be formed by adding the suffix *-s*. it happens because the suffix *-s* is the regular method of forming plurals.

Otherwise, some of native English speaker thought there is other qualifications should be able to form the plural form in other ways except by adding the suffix *-s.* For example, the plural form of *child* is *children* and the plural form of *tooth* is *teeth.* The entry in the dictionary for the word *tooth* will be like this:

> *tooth* (noun): A hard white structures that will be found in the jaws or mouths and used for chewing and biting.
>
>
> (**teeth** *plural*)

That is an irregular noun. The plural forms of an irregular noun will be written beside the singular form. Irregularity is a kind of idiosyncrasy in the dictionaries that should be acknowledged by some of indications such as in the plural forms of the lexeme tooth.

Because it has long and complex history, Laurie Bauier (1983) stated that there is five ways irregular forms will happen.

a. First, the irregular forms mostly use in different inflection than the regular ones. Example: *-ed* is the modem past participle of a regular verb. But, the past participle of *freeze* is *frozen,* not **freezed**.

b. Second, the irregular forms may involve *grow* (**grew** *plural*), *man* (**men** *plural*), *woman* (**women** *plural*).

c. Third, some forms derive from historically unrelated forms. Example: the lexeme *go* has a past tense *went*. It is called as a suppletion. Another examples are *good*, *better*, and *best*, and *bad*, *worse*, and *worst*.

d. Fourth, there are some words that did not show inflectional change. Example: *sheep* is a lexeme, also as the singular and the plural form of that noun. *Hit* can be as a present tense, past tense, and past participle.

e. Fifth, many of borrowed words, particulary nouns, have irregular inflected forms. Example: cherubim and alumnae are the plurals of cherub and alumna, respectively (p.127).

6. Nouns of Inflectional Morphemes

In English, most of countable nouns have two word forms, singular and plural forms. For example: the lexeme *book* has a singular form *book*, it consists only one morpheme while the plural form of *book* is *books*, it consists of two morphemes, consisting of a root *book* and and a suffix *-s.* Plural forms only used in count nouns. The regular plural of the inflection is the use of *-s* suffix at the end of a count noun.

Although in English most of count nouns take the plural inflection by adding the suffix *-s,* there are a few exceptions of noun that do not have plural forms. Example: *one sheep*, *two sheep*, *five deer*, *ten deer* and words which always end in *-s* but they are not plural, example: *politics* and *series.* There are a number of irregular nouns which change the internal vowel of the root, more absolutely, an allomorph of a root with different vowel from the singular. Example: teeth, feet, and geese.

McCharty (2002) emphasized that irregular plural nouns are commonly nouns that follow older patterns of English

or nouns that borrowed from Greek or Latin therefore some of the plural formation take form Greek or Latin (p. 43). In this case, the words that have been borrowed from Greek or Latin having a tendency to adopt the regular English plural inflection by adding the suffix -*s.*

The suffix -'s indicates a word as a possessive noun. The definition of a possessive noun is a suffix that added as an inflectional in the end of certain noun to show possession or ownership. It also indicates the meaning of originator or investor. Look at the following examples!

Charles Robert Darwin's theory of evolution

George's soccer suit

The possessive –'s can also describe something that are related to a characteristics, like:

The   student's   brave

Not all nouns can take inflectional possessive by adding the suffix -*'s* to indicate possession or ownership. There are nouns that can take the inflectional possessive –*'s*, generally referring to: time, animals, people, and collective nouns.

Inanimate nouns generally do not take the inflectional suffix –*s*, but there are certain inanimate nouns that take the inflection possessive –*s*. Any noun which is not alive or sentiment usually called as inanimate noun. These are generally collective nouns which refer to a group of people such as team, company, committee, or government. Most inanimate nouns will take "off

phrase" to show the possession. Example: *the back of desk*, not *the desk's back.*

ESL/ EFL learners who want to know exactly when they can use or cannot use the inflectional possessive –*s*, should follow the general guide lines to understand it because there is no absolute rules about inanimate nouns. So, when native speakers do not use the inflectional possessive -*'s*, ESL/ EFL learners should follow them by do not use it too, it will minimize the errors.

7. Pronouns and Determiners of Inflectional Morphemes

In studying morphology, we may only concerned with the behavior or words which belong to open classes, there are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. These classes can be added constantly as new words when come into use. In English, it is not expected to encounter a new pronoun such as *I*, *she* or *us* or a new preposition such as *in*, *at*, or *without*. Determiners and pronouns are combining a singular-plural contrast with contrast unique between subject and nonsubject forms. Determiner is a word that comes at the beginning of a noun hence basically to introduce the noun, while pronoun is a word which has a function as a noun phrase that refers either to the participant in a discourse.

Now, letus see the distinction between the word *this* and *these*. The word *this* will use if the subject singular, while the word *these* will use if the subject is plural. Example: *this book* (singular), and *these book* (plural). So, the determiners like *this* and *that* which is singular have the plural forms as a *these* and *those*. It demonstrates that number contrast may have grammatical effects inside noun phrase as well as between the subject of noun phrases and their accompanying verbs. For example: *Joe loves Catherine* or *Catherine loves Joe*. It expresses the inflectional -*s* from the word

loves which corresponding to *Joe* and *Catherine*. If it replaces with the appropriate pronouns, it will be *He loves her* or *She loves him*.

From the examples above, we know that the words *he* and *him* are same as a pronouns but are different in case. *He* is the nominative case while *him* is the causative case. **Nominative case** is a grammatical cases of a noun or any part of speech that generally marks the subject of a verb, as opposed to its object or verbs arguments. Then, **accusative case** is a grammatical cases relating to how a language typically mark a direct object of a transitive verb. The relationship between nominative and accusative forms is consistently complementary. So, here *him* is the lexeme of the word *he*.

Mostly pronouns include in the determiners type. Generally, pronouns use as an possessive determiner, such as: *I, you, they, we, my, them, us, mine, its, our, their, etc.* Thus, the use of pronouns and determiners is often to apply together in a phrase or a sentence.

8. Verbs and Adjectives of Inflectional Morphemes

In English, a verb lexeme has five distinct forms. As illustrated here in the lexeme *eat:*

a) The base form: *eat*
   Example: Bella wants to *eat* a bowl of meatball. (1) Bella may want to *eat* a bowl of meatball. (2)

b) The –s form present tense (third person singular): eats
   Example: Bella *eats* a bowl of meatball every day.

c) The past form: ate
   Example: Bella *ate* a bowl of meatball yesterday.

d) The –ed (perfect or passive participle): eaten

Example: Bella has *eaten* a bowl of meatball today. (1) A bowl of meatball is always *eaten* by Bella. (2)

e) The -ing (progressive) form: eating
Example: Bella is go*ing* to eat a bowl of meatball. (1) Bella is *eating* a bowl of meatball right now. (2)

The contrast between present at the example in **(b)** and past at the example in **(c)** is a contrast of tense. The other dimensions of contrast are manifested in the example of **(a)** that are person (the third person versus the rest) and a number (singular versus plural) (McCharty, 2002, p. 48-49).

If in the explanation above there are five distinct forms of verbs, actually most verbs only have four forms because the perfect or passive participle and the past tense are the same. It is true for all regular verbs (those for the past tense with the inflectional suffix -*ed*, such as in the lexeme *study* as illustrated below:

a. the base form: *study*
b. the –*s* form: *studies*
c. the past form: *studied*
d. perfect or passive participle: *studied*
e. the –*ing* (progressive form): *studying*

The inflectional endings with the suffix -*s*, -*ed* and -*ing* are added to the base form of a verb *study*. Other verbs whose the behavior belongs to grammar rather than word- formation are called auxiliaries, such as **be** *(am, is, are, was, were, be, being,* and *been)*, **have** *(had)*, and **modals** (*may*, *can*, *must)*. But they did not mention here because their various forms are unusual in the range of grammatical words.

There are inflections which adjectives take as an inflectional ending, by adding the suffix -*er* and -*est.* It will show the comparative and the superlative of adjectives. When we should compare two things, we can use comparative. And when we should compare more than two things, we can use superlative.

We can identify the adjectives by looking to their ability to take the comparative by adding suffix *-er* and the superlative by adding the suffix-*est*. Look at the following example!

Adjective	Comparative -er		Superlative -est
old	older	(than)	the oldest
happy	happier	(than)	the happiest
small	smaller	(than)	the smallest
cool	cooler	(than)	the coolest
mad	madder	(than)	the maddest

English adjectives exhibit in three forms, there are positive, comparative, and superlative, as illustrated above. All of these is regular pattern of suffixation with the inflections of -er and -est. But, there are also irregular pattern of adjectives inflections, for example: *good*, *better*, *best* and *worse, worst*. Then, some adjectives form of the comparative and the superlative using more and most respectively to change the suffixation of *–er* and *–est* in the adjectives which have three syllable or more.

9. It's Game Time!

The lecturer prepares some sentences cards that will be used in this game. In these cards, the bold words are inflectional morphemes. Students may emphasize the inflectional morphemes when whispering the sentences card to the

members of their group. Now, the lecturer will explain the instructions of this game.

Example of the sentences card:

> Dessy **likes** breakfast with egg, while John **likes** breakfast with fried rice. They are **twins** of a mother named Martha. Martha always **prepares** breakfast for them while they are **sleeping**

Instructions:

1. Students form two groups in one class.
2. Students lined up a 'U' facing the board.
3. The lecturer would call one representative from each
4. groups to come to the lecturer's desk.
5. The lecturer will show the sentences cards to the two group representatives and asks them to remember the sentences card.
6. Two group representatives return to their group lines.
7. The lecturer will start the game by saying "ready, go!"
8. The two group representatives would whisper the sentences card to all of the members until the last member of the group. They had to stop whispering when the song was playing (Old MacDonald had a farm song https://youtu.be/tmocNb8CYLk).
9. The last member of the group will write out the entire sentences of the sentences card and underline the words that became the inflectional morphemes.
10. The activity will be repeated until the sentences cards that the lecturer prepared is exhausted.

10. Summarizing

- Inflectional morphemes are morphemes that do not change word classes (parts of speech) when they are attached to words.
- In English, inflectional morphemes are divided into 8 situations.

English inflectional morphemes	Attached to	Examples
plural (-*s/-es*)	nouns	Lina bought some *books*.
possessive (-*'s*)	nouns	Lina's mother is kind.
comparative (-*er*)	adjectives	Lina is shorter that Rina.
superlative (-*est*)	adjectives	Lina is the shortest girl in the class.
present tense for 3rd person (-*s*)	verbs	Lina washes her clothes every Sunday.
past tense (-*ed*)	verbs	Lina borrowed my book yesterday.
present participle (-*ing*)	verbs	Lina is studying now.
past participle (-*en*)	verbs	Lina has taken books from the shelf.

11. Exercises

Exercise 1

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!
2. Scan the barcode below, or you can read the following story!

3. Find words that are attached by inflectional morphemes!

Exercise 2

Read each statement below and decide whether it is true (T) or false (F)!

Statement	T/F
1. All of words and their categories should be listed in the dictionary.	
2. The regular suffix in the regular inflectional morpheme especially to decide the plural nouns is by adding the suffix *-s.*	
3. The base word or lexeme in the dictionary of the word *dog* is *dogs*.	
4. The past tense form of the word *perform* is *performs.*	
5. Another qualification of the inflectional morpheme to make a plural form of noun is by adding the suffix *-ed.*	

6.	The plural form of *child* is *children* and the plural form of *book* is *books.*	
7.	In the dictionary, the plural forms of an irregular noun will be written beside the singular form.	
8.	The irregular forms mostly use in different inflection than the regular ones.	
9.	In regular and irregular inflectional morphemes all of words will show an inflectional morpheme.	
10.	Many borrowed words, particularly nouns, have irregular inflected forms.	

~Good luck!~

CHAPTER V
DERIVATION

1. What is Derivational Morpheme?

As you have read in the previous chapter (chapter 2), bound morphemes are divided into two types, inflectional and derivational morphemes. In this chapter we are going to discuss derivational morphemes or derivational affixes. Derivational morphemes are morphemes that can change the words classes (parts of speech) when they are attached or bound to words. However, there are some derivational morphemes/affixes that do not change parts of speech of words. The example of derivational morphems that do not change parts of speech when they are attached are suffixes-*hood* and -*ship*. When nouns are attached by them (-*hood* and -*ship*), noun will not turn into other parts of speech. And then prefixes *dis-* and *mis-* that do not change parts of speech of verbs. The last is suffix –*un* that does not change parts of speech of adjectives.

Derivational morphemes are divided into two types, productive and unproductive morphemes/affixes. Productive morphemes/affixes are morphemes/affixes that appear actively in word-formation in modern English, while unproductive morphemes/affixes do not.

2. Affixes Which Form Nouns

A. Noun derived from verbs

Here are some affixes that can change verbs into nouns when they are attached:

a. *-ing*
- read (V) + ing = reading (N)
- cook (V) + ing = cooking (N)
- build (V) + ing = building (N)

b. *-ion/ation/ition*
- express (V) + ion = expression (N)
- organize (V) + ation = organization (N)
- define (V) + ition = definition (N)

c. *-ment*
- advertise (V) + ment = advertisement (N)
- environ (V) + ment = environment (N)
- agree (V) + ment = agreement (N)

d. *-al*
- arrive (V) +al = arrival (N)
- try (V) + al = trial (N)
- approve (V) + al = approval (N)

e. *-ance/ence*
- disturb (V) + ance = disturbance (N)
- differ (V) + ence = difference (N)
- resist (V) + ance = resistance (N)

f. *-er/ar/or*
- write (V) + er = writer (N)
- toast (V) + er = toaster (N)
- drive (V) + er = driver (N)

g. *-ant/ent*
- inhabit (V) + ant = inhabitant (N)
- serve (V) + ant = servant (N)
- inform (V) + ant = informant (N)

h. *-ee*
- train (V) + ee = trainee (N)
- appoint (V) + ee = appointee (N)
- employ (V) + ee = employee (N)

B. Nouns derived from adjectives

Here are some affixes that can change adjectives into nouns when they are attached:

a. -ness
- kind (Adj) + ness = kindness (N)
- careless (Adj) + ness = carelessness (N)
- good (Adj) + ness = goodness (N)

b. -ity
- able (Adj) + ity = ability (N)
- diverse (Adj) + ity = diversity (N)
- odd (Adj) + ity = oddity (N)

c. -th
- long (Adv) + th = length (N)
- deep (Adv) + th = depth (N)
- wide (Adv) + th = width (N)

C. Nouns derived from other nouns

Here are some affixes that can change nouns into other nouns when they are attached:

a. -hood
- child (N) + hood = childhood (N)
- neighbor (N) + hood = neighborhood (N)
- brother (N) + hood = brotherhood (N)

b. -dom
- king (N) + dom = kingdom (N)
- free (N) + dom = freedom (N)
- duke (N) + dom = dukedom (N)

c. -ship
- friend (N) + ship = friendship (N)

- relation (N) + ship = relationship (N)
- fellow (N) + ship = fellowship (N)

d. -y
- analog (N) + y = analogy (N)
- presidence (N) + y = presidency (N)
- monarch (N) + y = monarchy (N)

3. Affixes Which Form Verbs

A. Verbs derived from nouns

Here are some affixes that can change verbs into nouns when they are attached:

a. *-ify*
- beauty (N) + y = beautify (V)
- quanta (N) + y = quantify (V)
- speech (N) + y = speechify (V)

b. *-ate*
- hyphen (N) + ate = hyphenate (V)
- assassin (N) + ate = assassinate (V)
- chlorine (N) + ate = chlorinate (V)

c. *en- (em-)*
- em + power (N) = empower (V)
- en + danger (N) = endanger (V)
- en + list (N) = enlist (V)

B. Verbs derived from adjectives

Here are some affixes that can change verbs into nouns when they are attached:

a. *-ize*
- central (Adj) + ize = centralize (V)

- popular (Adj) + ize = popularize (V)
- equal (Adj) + ize = equalize (V)

b. *-en*
- moist (Adj) + en = moisten (V)
- hard (Adj) + en = harden (V)
- dark (Adj) + en = darken (V)

C. Verbs derived from other verbs

Here are some affixes that can change verbs into nouns when they are attached:

a. *-un*
- un + lock (V) = unlock (V)
- un + pack (V) = unpack (V)
- un + do (V) = undo (V)

b. *de-*
- de + compose (V) = decompose (V)
- de + frost (V) = defrost (V)
- de + segregate (V) = desegregate (V)

c. *dis-*
- dis + agree (V) = disagree (V)
- dis + obey (V) = disobey (V)
- dis + connect (V) = disconnect (V)

d. *mis-*
- mis + understand (V) = misunderstand (V)
- mis + lead (V) = mislead (V)
- mis + apply (V) = misapply (V)

4. Affixes Which Form Adjectives

A. Adjectives derived from nouns

Here are some affixes that can change verbs into nouns when they are attached:

a. *-y*
- mess (N) + y = messy (Adj)
- cloud (N) + y = cloudy (Adj)
- health (N) + y = healthy (Adj)

b. *-ous*
- poison (N) + ous = poisonous (Adj)
- danger (N) + ous = dangerous (Adj)
- fame (N) + ous = famous (Adj)

c. *-ish*
- style (N) + ish = stylish (Adj)
- girl (N) + ish = girlish (Adj)
- boy (N) + ish = boyish (Adj)

d. *-al (-ar)*
- procedure (N) + al = procedural (Adj)
- logic (N) + al = logical (Adj)
- hormon (N) + al = hormonal (Adj)

e. *-ic*
- Arab (N) + ic = Arabic (Adj)
- democrat (N) + ic = democratic (Adj)
- poet (N) + ic = poetic (Adj)

f. *-ic-al*
- grammar (N) + ic + al = grammatical (Adj)
- economic (N) + ic + al = economical (Adj)
- geology (N) + ic + al = geological (Adj)

g. *-ly*
  - lone (N) + ly = lonely (Adj)
  - man (N) + ly = manly (Adj)
  - love (N) + ly = lovely (Adj)

h. *-ful*
  - success (N) + ful = successful (Adj)
  - skill (N) + ful = skillful (Adj)
  - waste (N) + ful = wasteful (Adj)

B. Adjectives derived from verbs

Here are some affixes that can change verbs into nouns when they are attached:

a. *-ive/ative/itive*
  - act (V) + ive = active (Adj)
  - express (V) + ive = expressive (Adj)
  - attract (V) + ive = attractive (Adj)

b. *-able*
  - understand (V) + able = understandable (Adj)
  - accept (V) + able = acceptable (Adj)
  - defend (V) + able = defendable (Adj)

C. Adjectives derived from other adjectives

Here are some affixes that can change verbs into nouns when they are attached:

a. *un-*
  - un + happy (Adj) = unhappy (Adj)
  - un + certain (Adj) = uncertain (Adj)
  - un + able (Adj) = unable (Adj)

b. *in- (im-, il-, ir-)*
  - il + legal (Adj) = illegal (Adj)

- im + possible (Adj) = impossible (Adj)
- in + finite (Adj) = infinite (Adj)

5. An Affix Which Forms Adverb

Adverbs are different from other parts of speech because the only affix that can form adverbs is the suffix *-ly.* Moreover, only adjectives that can be adverbs when they are attached by *-ly.* Look at the following examples!

- slow (Adj) + ly = slowly (Adv)
- beautiful (Adj) + ly = beautifully (Adv)
- correct (Adj) + ly = correctly (Adv)

6. It's Game Time!

Instructions:

1. Each player puts their counters on the space that says 'start'.
2. Take it in turns to roll the dice.
3. You have to mention things on the spaces where your counter lands on.
4. If your counter lands at the bottom of a ladder, you can move up to the top ofthe ladder.
5. If your counter lands on the head of a snake, you should slide down to the bottom of the snake.

				FINISH 35	
4 nouns derived from nouns 7	10 nouns derived from verbs 8	3 verbs derived from verbs 21	3 Adjs derived from Adjs 22		
10 Advs derived from Adjs 6	5 Adjs derived from Adjs 9	20	23	11 verbs derived from verbs 34	
5 Advs derived from Adjs 5	4 verbs derived from nouns 10	5 Adjs derived from nouns 19	24	33	
4 Adjs derived from num 4	11	18	25	8 nouns derived from nouns 32	
3 nouns derived from Adjs 3	5 Advs derived from Adjs 12	8 verbs derived from verbs 17	15 nouns derived from nouns 26	5 Adjs derived from nouns 31	
START 2	6 verbs derived from Adjs 13	8 verbs derived from verbs 16	27	30	
1	14	15	28	29	

7. Summarizing

- Nouns can be formed from verbs, adjectives, and other nouns.
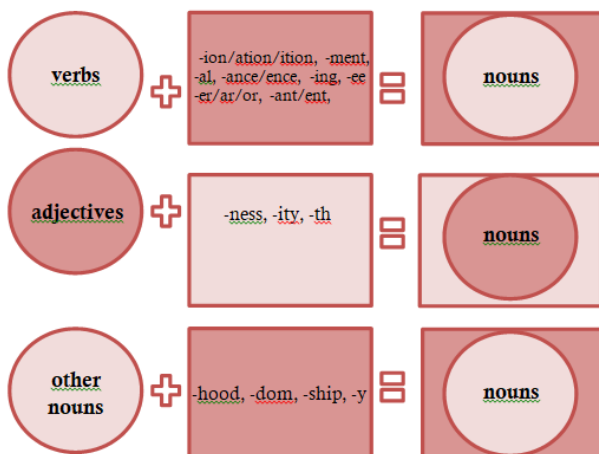
- Verbs can be formed from nouns, adjectives, and other verbs.
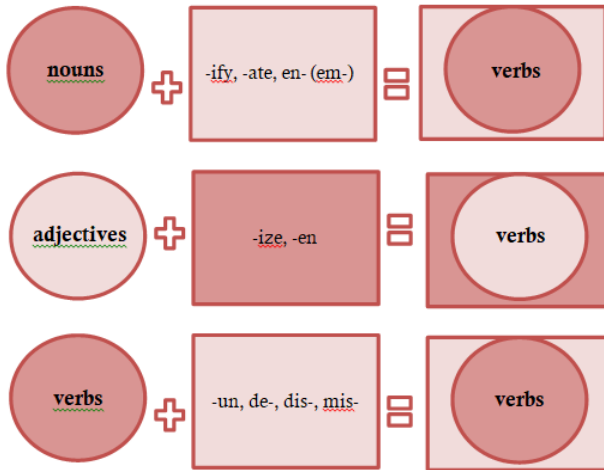
- Adjectives can be formed from nouns, verbs, and other adjectives.
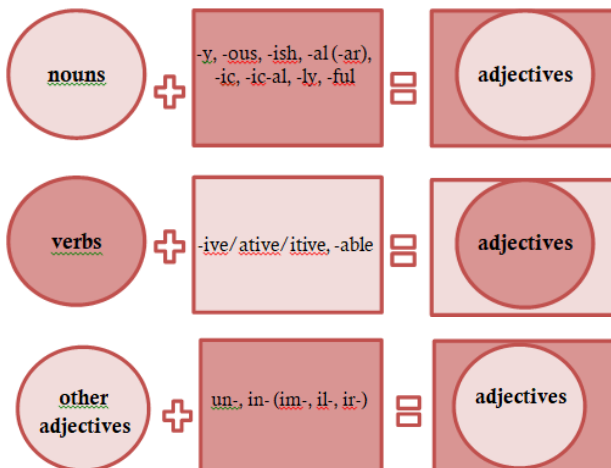
- Adverbs only can be formed from adjectives.
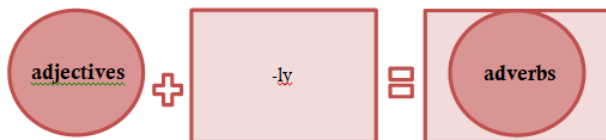
8. Exercises

Exercise 1

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!
2. Scan the following barcode, or you can read the following text!

3. Find derived nouns and adverbs in that story!

Exercise 2

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on PlayStore!
2. Scan the barcode below!

3. Watch the video and write its trancript!
4. Find derived verbs and adjectives in that video!

~Good luck!~
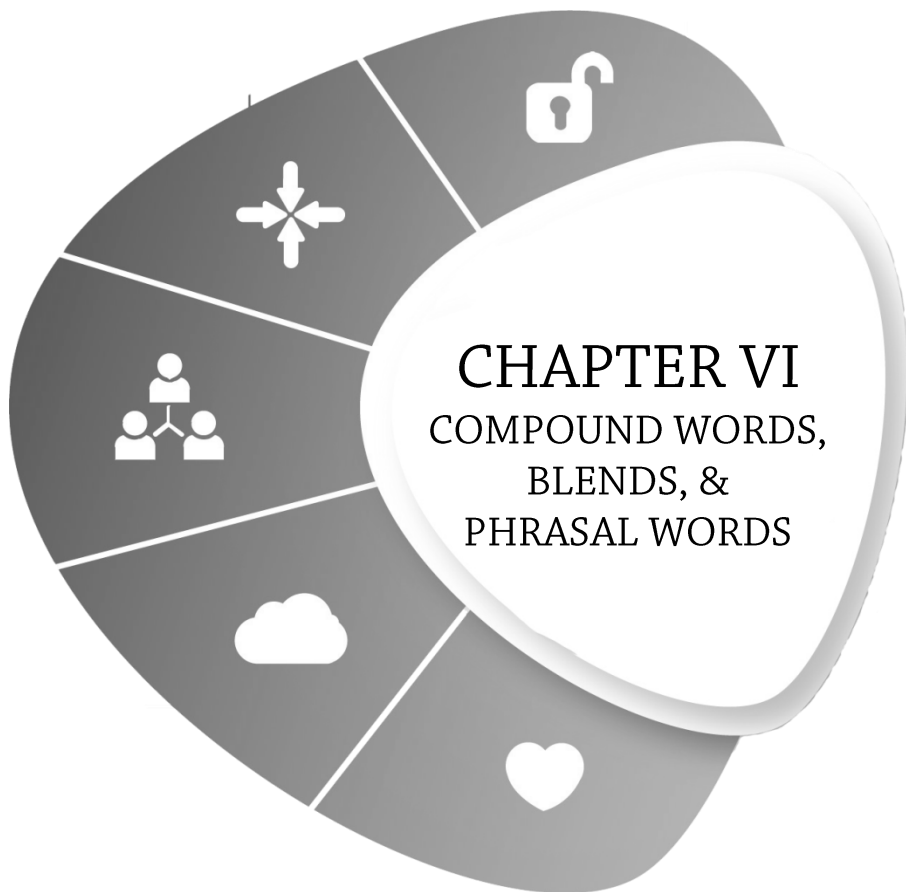
CHAPTER VI
COMPOUND WORDS, BLENDS, & PHRASAL WORDS

1. Compound, Phrasal, and Blend words

A. Compound words

Have you heard about compound words before? Well, compound words are two or more words combined together that have new meanings. For example, *cat* and *fish*, they are different words, but when they are combined together, they will create a new word and a new meaning, *catfish*.

There are three types of compound words, they are closed, open, and hyphenated compound words. Closed compound words are compound words that are formed when two different words combined together. These compound words do not have a space between them. The examples of closed compound words are *football, everything, firework, moonlight,* etc.

Unlike closed compound words, open compound words have a space between combined words and new meanings when they are read together. The example of open compound words are *ice cream, middle class, post office, full moon,* etc.

The last type of compound words is hyphenated compound words. They are combined words connected by a hyphen. The example of hyphenated compound words are *well-being, one-half, mother-in-law, over-the-counter,* etc.

B. Phrasal words

Phrasal words can be defined as phrases that consist of verbs + prepositions, or verbs + adverbs. When they combined together, they will create new meanings. There are two kinds of phrasal words. They are transitive and intransitive phrasal words.

Transitive phrasal words should be followed by obeject, while intransitive ones should not. Transitive phrasal words are

divided into two types, they are inseparable and separable transitive phrasal words. look at the following diagram!
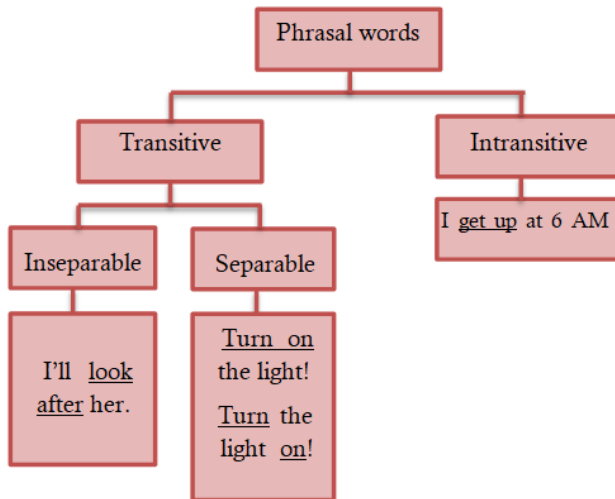
C. Blend words

Blend words are words formed by combining two different words to creat new ones. In blend words, meanings are usually the combinations of the original words. Blend words are also known as *portmanteau*, a French word, means 'trunk' or 'suitcase'. There are three kinds of blend words. hey are blends with overlapping, blends with clipping, and blends with overlapping and clipping.

	Blends with overlapping	Blends with clipping	Blends with overlapping and clipping
Type of blend	Shortening of the words	One or more parts are omitted	Use both overlaping and clipping

Example	slang + language = slanguage	breakfast + lunch = brunch	motor + hotel = motel

D. Similarities and differences between compound, phrasal, and blend words

Similarity
Compound, phrasal, and blend words are formed by combining two free forms.
There is a new meaning created.

Difference	Compound word	Phrasal word	Blend word
Structural	May be single, separated, or hyphenated words	Separated by a space	Combined as single word, but rare occasion with a space (docudrama) and a hyphen (egg-cellent)
Ways of forming	Combination of two or more lexical categories Only draws upon complete words Cannot combine with a bound form Compound verbs: VN, NV, AV, PV Compound adjective: NA, AA, PA Compound nouns: VN, NN, AN, PN	Combination of a verb with a preposition or an adverb Only draws upon complete words Verb + Preposition Verb + Adverb	Abridging action and combination of various lexemes Most blend words are nouns
Meaning	Unpredictable meaning	The meaning changes	The meaning is predictable

	(exocentric compounds) Predictable meaning (endocentric		

2. Compound: Compound Verb, Compound Adjective, and Compound Noun

Verbs that are formed by compounding is not as usual as the verbs that are formed by affixation. According to the structure of **compound verbs**, we can say that there are four types of compound verbs. They are verb-verb (VV), noun- verb (NV), adjective-verb (AV), and preposition-verb (PV).
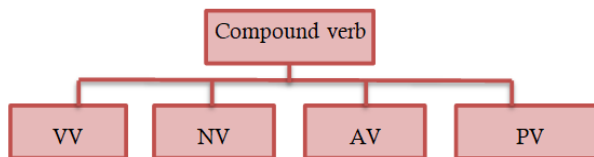
a) Verb-verb (VV): *stir-fry*
b) Noun-verb (NV): *hand-wash*
c) Adjective-verb (AV): *dry-clean*
d) Preposition-verb (PV): *underestimate*

From all those types, the preposition-verb (PV) type is the most commonly found in our daily lives. However, compounds with *under-, over-,* and *out-* do not need to be classed as lexical items. For example: outswim, out-sail, and out-sing (out-), over-bleach, over-polish, and overcriticise. If you notice, almost all of these compounds have a verb on the right, and it is the head of the compound structure. Because of this situation, these compounds are called as **right-headed**, the most element which be the head is put in the right.

After learning compound verbs, we will learn "**compound adjectives**". Unlike compound verbs, compound

adjectives only have three types, they are noun- adjective, adjective-adjective, and preposition-adjective.

```
        ┌──────────────────┐
        │  Compound Adj    │
        └──────────────────┘
     ┌──────────┼──────────┐
┌─────────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌─────────┐
│   NA    │ │   AA    │ │   PA    │
└─────────┘ └─────────┘ └─────────┘
```
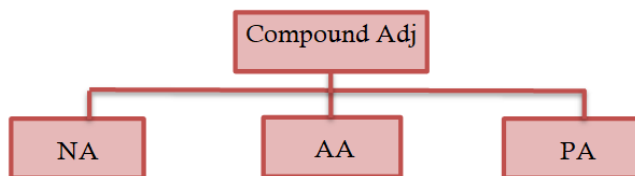
look at the examples of right-headed compound adjectives below:

a) Noun-adjective (NA): *sky-high*
b) Adjective-adjective (AA): *grey-green*
c) Preposition-adjective (PA): *overactive*

As we can see, the preposition *over-* as the first element seems most productive, the preposition *over-* can be defined as "too X". In the third example *overactive*, the head of that word is the adjective *active*. That word is derived from the verb *act.* All the compounds in example a, b, and c are right-headed. However, there are a few compound adjectives that are not right-headed, but that will be discussed later.

Last but not least, we will discuss another type of compound, it is "**compound nouns**". Compound nouns are nouns that compounding into its own word forming process in English. These changes create new vocabulary that are mostly new nouns than new verbs or adjectives. Different from the previous compounds (compound verb and compound adjective), the compound nouns use left- hand element. There are four types of compound nouns. They are verb-noun, noun-noun, adjective-noun, and preposition-noun.
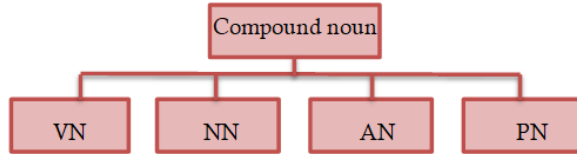
a) Verb-noun (VN): *playtime*
b) Noun-noun (NN): *hairnet*
c) Adjective-noun (AN): *blackboard*
d) Preposition-noun (PN): *overcoat*

   All of these examples have the main stress on the left. If you try to find another example of compound nouns in example a, b, c, and d you will find the fact that the easiest type is noun-noun (NN) or type in example b.

Quiz

1. air-condition	6. Steam clean
2. oil-rich	7. Outrun
3. drop-hammer	8. Coal-black
4. in-group	9. Hair restorer
5. red-hot	10. Greenstone

Write down the words above according to their type of compound!

Compound verb	Compound adjective	Compound noun

3. Compound: Headed and Headless

Consider these three words, *blackboard, greenstone*, and *faint-heart*! *Blackboard* is a kind of board and *greenstone* is a kind of stone. But *faint-heart* is not a kind of heart. That is a kind of person. So, even though heart is a noun, but it is not the head of that word (*faint-heart*). This condition is called as **headless compound**. Simply, headless compound is a kind of compound words which the meaning of that words are not specified by any of parts in that words. More example of headless compound is *pickpocket* which is not a kind of pocket. So, this is called as headless compound. When it is pluralized, it adds -*s* on that word. For example: flatfoots not flatfeet. In the other hand, **headed compound** is a kind of compound which the noun becomes the head of that word (the head is the part that will be explained by modifier). For example: blackboard which is a kind of a board (board is a noun and the head of that word).

Quiz

Compound Words	Headed compound	Headless compound
loudmouth		
stickleback		
dog house		
blackbird		
sabre tooth		

4. Blends and Acronyms

As you have read before, blend words are words formed by combining two different words to creat new ones. In blend

words, meanings are usually the combinations of the original words. For example: smog (blended from smoke and fog). So, we just blending partially. However, people also use only the initial letters of those words for creating a term. This is called **acronyms**. For example: WHO (<u>W</u>orld <u>H</u>ealth <u>O</u>rganization).

Blend word	Acronym
Slanguage (slang + language)	WHO (World Health Organization)
Brunch (breakfast + lunch)	OASIS (Organization For The Advancement Of Structured Information Standards)
Motel (motor + hotel)	BASIC (Beginner's All- Purpose Symbolic Instruction Code)
Smog (smoke + fog)	KEPO (Know Everything Personal Object)

5. It's Game Time!

I Know, the Compound Words!

The purpose of this game is to make the students more understand about compound words because they must mention the compound words quickly by using the words on the board.

Tools:

1. Board
2. Paper
3. Glue

Instructions:

1. Write down some words on the paper like the picture below.

2. Stick those papers on the board!

3. Choose a student randomly, then ask her/him to mention a compound word using one of the words on the board.

4. Ask that student to choose a friend.

5. The student that has been chosen must do the same thing as the first student.

6. The student that can't mention the compound word must stand up.

7. Continue this process until we find the only one sitting student.

6. Summarizing

- Compound words are two or more words combined together that have new meanings. There are three types of compound words, they are closed, open, and hyphenated compound words.

```
                    ┌──────────────────┐
                    │  Compound word   │
                    └──────────────────┘
           ┌─────────────┼─────────────┐
     ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
     │  Closed  │  │   Open   │  │  hyphenated  │
     └──────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────────┘
     ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
     │ football │  │ ice cream│  │  well-being  │
     └──────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────────┘
```
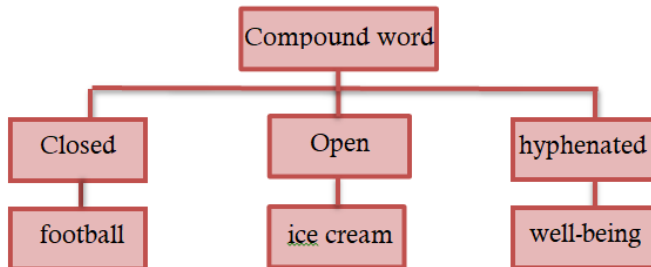
- Phrasal words can be defined as phrases that consist of verbs + prepositions, or verbs + adverbs. There are two kinds of phrasal words. They are transitive and intransitive phrasal words.

```
                    ┌──────────────┐
                    │ Phrasal words│
                    └──────────────┘
           ┌───────────────┴──────────────┐
     ┌──────────────┐              ┌──────────────┐
     │  Transitive  │              │ Intransitive │
     └──────────────┘              └──────────────┘
      ┌──────┴──────┐              ┌──────────────────┐
 ┌─────────────┐ ┌────────────┐    │ I get up at 6 AM.│
 │ Inseparable │ │  Separable │    └──────────────────┘
 └─────────────┘ └────────────┘
 ┌─────────────┐ ┌────────────┐
 │ I'll look   │ │ Turn on    │
 │ after her.  │ │ the light! │
 │             │ │ Turn the   │
 │             │ │ light on!  │
 └─────────────┘ └────────────┘
```
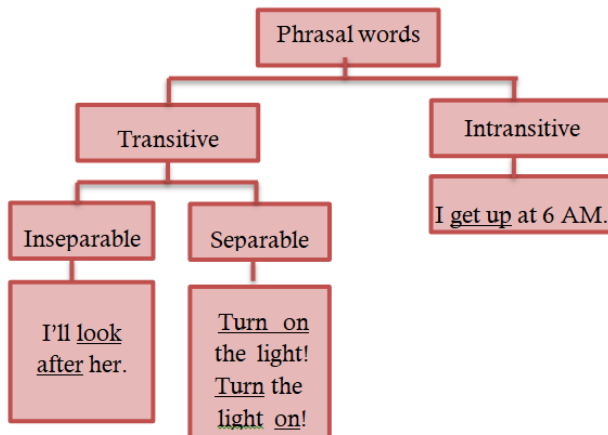
- Blend words are words formed by combining two different words to creat new ones. There are three kinds of blend words. They are blends with overlapping, blends with clipping, and blends with overlapping and clipping.

```
                    ┌─────────────┐
                    │ Blend words │
                    └─────────────┘
          ┌──────────────┼──────────────┐
┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
│ Blends with  │  │ Blends with  │  │ Blends with  │
│ overlapping  │  │ clipping     │  │ overlapping  │
│              │  │              │  │ and clipping │
└──────────────┘  └──────────────┘  └──────────────┘
┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
│  slanguage   │  │   brunch     │  │    motel     │
└──────────────┘  └──────────────┘  └──────────────┘
```
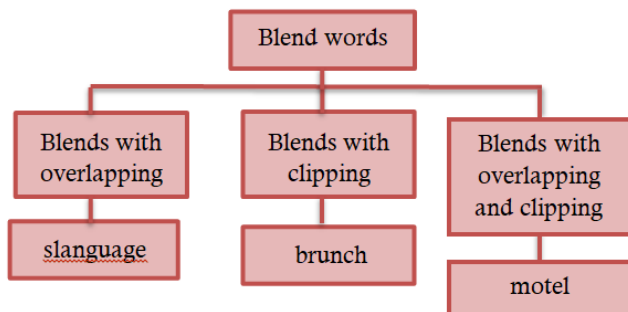
- According to the parts of speech, there are three kinds of compound words, they are compound verbs, compound adjectives, and compouund nouns.

```
                 ┌─────────────┐
                 │  Compound   │
                 └─────────────┘
        ┌──────────────┼──────────────┐
┌─────────────┐  ┌─────────────┐  ┌─────────────┐
│ Compound    │  │ Compound    │  │ Compound    │
│ verbs       │  │ adjectives  │  │ nouns       │
└─────────────┘  └─────────────┘  └─────────────┘
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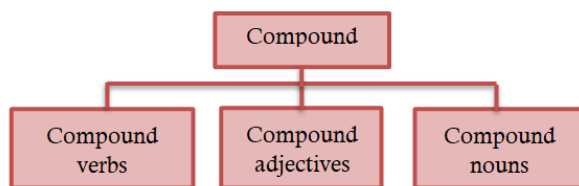
- According to whether compounds have heads or not, compounds are divided into two kinds. They are headed and headless compounds.

```
              ┌─────────────┐
              │  Compound   │
              └─────────────┘
        ┌───────────┴───────────┐
┌─────────────┐           ┌─────────────┐
│  Headed     │           │  Headless   │
│  compound   │           │  compound   │
└─────────────┘           └─────────────┘
```
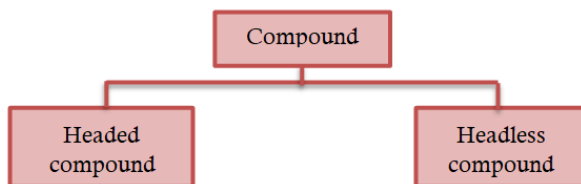
- Compound verbs are divided into four kinds, they are verb-verb (VV), noun-verb (NV), adjective-verb (AV), and preposition-verb.

```
                    ┌──────────────────┐
                    │  Compound verb   │
                    └──────────────────┘
        ┌──────────┬──────────┬──────────┐
   ┌─────────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌──────────────┐
   │   VV    │ │   NV    │ │   AV    │ │     PV       │
   └─────────┘ └─────────┘ └─────────┘ └──────────────┘
   ┌─────────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌──────────────┐
   │strif-fry│ │hand-wash│ │dry-clean│ │ underestimate│
   └─────────┘ └─────────┘ └─────────┘ └──────────────┘
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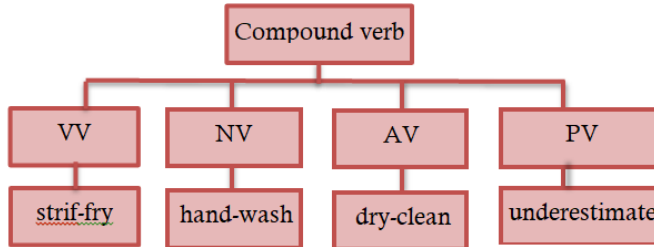
- Compound adjectives are divided into three types, they are noun-adjective, adjective-adjective, and peposition- adjective.

```
                 ┌──────────────────┐
                 │  Compound Adj    │
                 └──────────────────┘
        ┌───────────────┬───────────────┐
   ┌─────────┐    ┌─────────┐    ┌─────────┐
   │   NA    │    │   AA    │    │   PA    │
   └─────────┘    └─────────┘    └─────────┘
   ┌─────────┐    ┌──────────┐   ┌──────────┐
   │sky-high │    │grey-green│   │overactive│
   └─────────┘    └──────────┘   └──────────┘
```
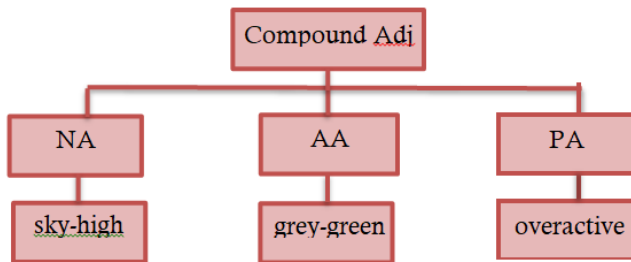
- Compound nouns are divided into four kinds, they are verb-noun, noun-noun, adjective-noun, and preposition-noun.

```
                 ┌──────────────────┐
                 │  Compound noun   │
                 └──────────────────┘
        ┌──────────┬──────────┬──────────┐
   ┌─────────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌─────────┐
   │   VN    │ │   NN    │ │   AN     │ │   PN    │
   └─────────┘ └─────────┘ └──────────┘ └─────────┘
   ┌─────────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌─────────┐
   │playtime │ │ hairnet │ │blackboard│ │ overcoat│
   └─────────┘ └─────────┘ └──────────┘ └─────────┘
```
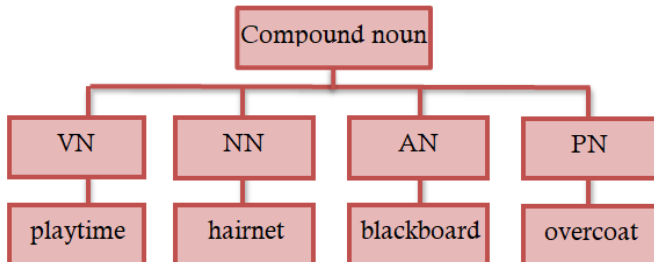
7. Exercises

Instructions:

Exercise 1

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on PlayStore!

2. Scan the barcode below!

3. watch the video!
4. Write down all of the compound words that are mentioned in that video.
5. Choose five of them then make sentences from those words!

Exercise 2

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on PlayStore!
2. Scan the barcode below!

3. Write down those acronyms and the length of them in the table below!

Acronym	→	Length
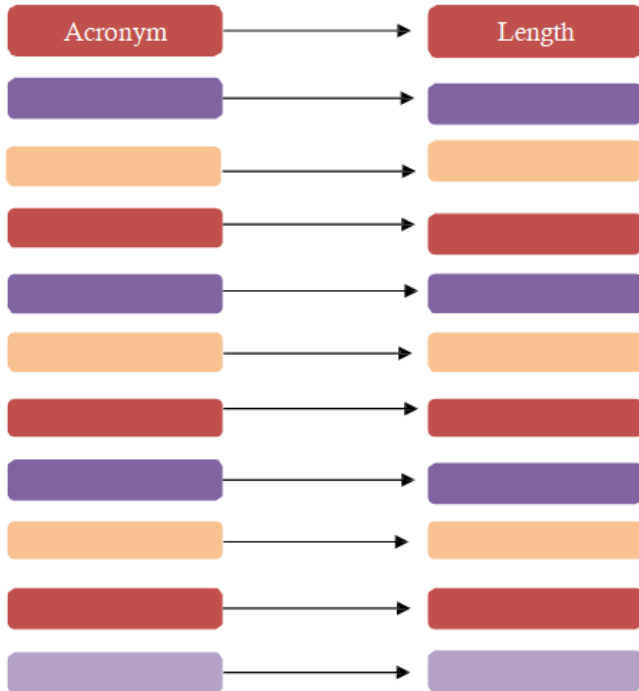
Exercise 3

Insert the phrasal words that fit best into the gaps below!

1. Mr. Patrick was thinking about (_____) (_____) mayor.
2. Tasha (_____) (_____) an old school friend when she was in the restaurant last week.
3. Why Jane is still going on with jack, he is always ( ) her (_____).
4. The fox had (_____) (_____) before the farmer could catch it in his garden.
5. Let's (_____) (_____) our lines for the school play.
6. Jackson will have to stop at the next gas station because his car is (_____) (_____) (_____) petrol.

7. Justin White (_____) the proposal (_____) his personal assistant before he held the meeting.
8. Clara was (____) (____) for shoplifting yesterday.
9. John (_____) (_____) the car waving his fists.
10. Aren't Sarah and Sofia a little old to (____) home (____) their mum?

~Good luck!~

CHAPTER VII
PRODUCTIVITY

1. What Is Productivity?

In every language there is always a pattern of word-forming words used by the speaker to form an infinite number of new words. Then, the new words will be accepted and understood by other language speakers spontaneously, without difficulty. The pattern of words forming tends to be extended continuously, most of the words belonging to a particular type, if the use of the words forming is possible, it is called productivity. Thus, **productivity is** a process that can be used by native speakers to form new lexemes. It is a central issue in the discussion about word formation processes because it will affect to the output of a morphological process.

While bauer (1983) emphasized that every word formation process is productive if the words formation can be used synchronically in the production of new forms (p.18). Plag (1999) stated that productivity is a property to an affix to be used to coin new complex words (p.44). Based on Plag statement, only accounts for derivational and inflectional processes, but Bauer does not agree with this statement. Then, he points out about there are some word formation processes that are not used affixes, but it may nevertheless be productive. Chitchat, dilly dally, and fiddle fadle are lists of a number of ablaut-motivated compounds that support his argument (Bauer, 2001, p.12). Productivity does not refer to solely affixes but it rather to morphological processes (Bauer, 2001, p.13).

Whereas the process of forming new lexeme that can no longer be used by native speakers is called unproductivity. Productivity is bound to regularity, but the regularity must be able to discern meaning.

2. The Forms of Productivity: Formal Generality and Formal Regularity

In the previous chapters, we have discussed words formation process of inflectional and derivational morphemes. For example: an abstract form of nouns from adjectives with the suffix *-ness* (*happiness, greyness, richness*) are commonly used than the suffix *-ity* (*sensitivity, purity)* or *-th* (*length, depth*). Then, formal generality is a derivational process which the characteristic of all base words will be exploiting almost all or nearly without idiosyncratic gaps. The suffix *-ness* is a formal regularity because it can be expanded by other words. If we insert the suffix *–ness* to the adjectives, it will produce an abstract noun which commonly used or usually does not need to be included as a lexical item because it is predictable. For example:

complex	*complexness*
happy	*happiness*
good	*goodness*
blind	*blindness*
dark	*darkness*

The suffix -ness is also a form of regularity because it can easily divided or inserted into a root word as the suffixes. That is why whatever the adjectives are, if it inserted the suffix -ness and produced sounds like nouns, and sometimes it would be used by non-native speakers to modified a word which they think that is a formal generality in English, actually it is not because sometimes the modified word which made by non-native speakers are uncommon to use by native speakers.

Formal regularity is the common affixes usually added to a word to make a new word formation, it can be agreed by native

speakers if it has been used generally in their country. Usually non-native speakers will modify some words while they were speaking in English used the suffix – ness in some adjectives or nouns. For example:

rich	+ *ness* =	**rich***ness*
long	+ *ness* =	**long***ness*
productive	+ *ness* =	**productive***ness*
truthy	+ *ness* =	**truthi***ness*
chair	+ *ness* =	**chair***ness*

If native speakers hear people who are not native speakers use the word *longness* as an alternate from the word **length**, then native speakers would be better to understand what non-native speakers mean. Then, it can be concluded that the suffix -*ness* is a kind of productivity because it can expand to other words and can also be inserted to make new words formation. Whereas the suffix-*ity* and -*th* is a kind of uncommon suffix because it cannot expand to other words. For example: the words *richity* and *greyth* sound like the irregularity one and it contradicted in English. While the word **longnes** is not a new word formation, but native speakers will understand if that word is almost use in daily speaking activity, but it does not mean that the suffix -*ity* and -*th* is an irregularity. The suffix-*ity* is a kind of regularity in the sense of making easier to define an adjective from the suffix –ive (passive, selective), - able or -ible (capable,visible), -al (local, partial), -ar (polar, insular), -ic (electric, eccentric), -id (timid, liquid), and –ous (various, viscous).

Compare it to the prefix –dense and tense, the two look the same, but the form of the abstract nouns are different, density and tension. There are also fluctuating adjectives. For instance, the suffix -ous, some of them maintain to use suffixes in the allomorph -os, for example: viscosity, but the other words do not

use the suffix -os. However, they use the suffix -ous, for example: the word ferocious is the lexeme of ferocity, and the word various is the lexeme of variety. Otherwise, the suffix -th is kind of irregularity because it difficult to decide the suffix -th in the monosyllabic words. For example:

long	+ th = length
strong	+ th = strength
deep	+ th = depth
wide	+ th = width
warm	+ th = warmth

From the explanations above, it can be concluded that the suffix *-ity* is regularity because still be used to form new words. While the suffix *-th* is unproductivity because the suffix *-th* is rarely inserted to form new words. Other examples are the words *offensive, aggressive, social, chemical, nuclear, lunar, allergic, strategic, horrid, languid, gracious, devious,* are uncommonly used words. however, it does not mean that they have never been used because some nouns like, *sociality, offensivity,* or *languidity* do not sound wrong.

Some of these lexemes have been written in the dictionary. It means that some of these words are often used. It is different from the words *richity* and *greenth* which sound unfamiliar or unconventional. It is positively un-English. Different from the word *longness*, that will be a word which does not need effort to understand while native hearing it.

The behaviors of *-ity* and *-ness* show that regularity does not imply formal generality. Even with the suffix *-ity* which is a regular base, it means totally unusual. It will be easy for adjectives which on formal grounds are suitable bases for nouns in *-ity* because noun is a common use.

> The type of formal regularity that has been discussed here take in the basic character of syntax. The base suffix *-ness* is attached will be an adjective or a part of morphology. For example: the bases that the suffix *-ity* is attached will be an adjective which contain certain suffixes.

3. Semantic Regularity in Productivity Meaning

Derivational process is regulated in semantic too which means if there is involvement of an affix which makes the interpretation of lexeme is formed by its consistency. Such as suffix -ly that is added on form of an adverb is not only as a formal generality (like in the suffix   -ness), but almost all of adverbs added by the suffix ¬-ly is semantically regular too. It is always tributary to "X Fashion" interpretation or "X Degree" although the semantic also formal regularity's rules are different.

Then, the suffix -ity has an easy illustration. As we know the suffix -ity as a formal regularity noun can change into an adjective if we add the suffix ¬-ive, -al, and -ar. Selectivity, locality, rationality, and polarity are the examples of the semantic regularity by adding the suffix -ity. Even though we add the suffix ¬-ity in a noun, it can be an adjective that contains certain suffixes. For example: Selectivity has technical interpretation to the radio admission, while selectiveness is only as a non-technical meaning. Local means confined to small area, while locality means neighborhood. The rules of semantic regularity are:

1. It does not happen in the past tense forms
2. It happens when there is a verb that has another

meaning

A formal form and regularity semantic from derivation differs significantly in how inflection is used. Semantic regularity is the norm or rule by which formal process differs: as there is no past tense of the verb that has no meaning and function. Does it have formal regularity such as in the verb performed? Or should it be in irregular verb such as in the verbs brought, sang? These differences are not unusual. If the form of the word is formed with a derivation that distinguishes the form of lexemes, it will have a distinction. As we know, a dictionary should always update the data (new lexeme) which has many variety of the word form one that was allowed to enter the dictionary semantically.

Another illustration on how semantic and formal regularity branch the verb by adding the bound root -mit. For example: a verb commit can branch into commitment, committal, and commission. The meaning from these branches is related to the verb commit, but the uses of these words are unpredictable. Commission generally means payment on the waitress for reaching a trading. It is unrelated to the interpretation of commit. So, suffix -ion does not mean perfectly in regular semantic.

	-ion	*-al*	*-ment*	*-ance*	Stress shift
Admit	V			V	
Commit	V	V	V		
Permit	V				V
Remit	V	?		V	V
Transmit	V	?		?	

Question mark indicates that it is not an active vocabulary. For example: the word transmittance appears as a term in physic

means a measure of the ability of anything to transmit the radiation. Yet, consider to it is formal status, by comparing with the other noun form of suffixes, it can be shown in the format of ticks, question marks, also gaps which looks random exclude the consistency of ticks in suffix -ion. Looks that -ion is officially common (root:-mit). It is the reason why, verb that has the basic word such as -mit will be guaranteed as a corresponding abstract noun in the word mission.

Accordingly, looks common for us to think that the interpretation of these nouns are totally constant but ineffective for"commission". But, Remission is irregular in semantic. The meaning of remit also -ion are not ample to establish the taste of a transient enhancement through a progressive condition. Thus, the reality about noun in the word mission is certainly occur for each verb in the root -mit does not mean that, for nouns, a native speaker can directly predict the meaning in the first time they meet.

4. Semantic Blocking in Productivity Meaning

Semantic blocking with a specific sense will inhibit the morphological derivation. Despite, in the formal regularity which means that words will have precisely meaning. The representation of the fulfillment of semantic blocking is considered to the nouns that related to the adjectives. For example: the words curious and glorious. The suffix -ous give a formal regularity ground for the suffixation of -ity. Thus can be expected that these words have relation with nouns (curiosity and gloriosity). Basically, the noun of curiosity is a semantic regularity, while the noun of gloriosity is not. It can be caused of blocking gloriosity in semantic by root (noun) glory that means pre-empts the suited interpretation. However, noun (curry) might not obstruct the derivation of the adjective curious. Other

example: there is no words' formation like cowlet and sheepling which other noun can be form as piglet and gosling because they have been proven that calf and lamb exist though these words can be as a synonym for some reasons.

Now, let us talk about the familiar synonym which is not hard to identify, like courgettes, zucchini or despite and scorn, and nearly and almost. If you examine it more, you can find that there some words that have different dialects. It means not all of these words have synonyms. Thus, the noun zucchini used in American dialect while courgettes used in British dialect. Other examples are Ellea scorned their apology that shows Ellea refused their apology, whereas Darren despised our apology that shows Darren hates us. And for the last, the adverb almost cannot change the position of the adverb nearly in the phrase of 'not nearly' which means 'far from' like: I am not nearly ready yet. From the example above, we should understand that the lexeme calf and lamb have blocked the word formation of cowlet and sheepling because of those reasons.

Now we know that the definition of semantic blocking is as a phenomenon of a word that has a special meaning to block a morphological derivation.

5. Compounding in Productivity

Did you know what compounding is? Well, compounding is a process of creating a word by combining the lexical items which may be categorized as words, lexemes, or stems depending on the language also on the adopted of theoretical framework. The most familiar compound words are mayor and minor compounds. Both the two are vastly well-organized officially. Yet, just minor compounds that are vastly regular in semantic. For example: hairnet (primer compound and hair restorer (secondary compound), the nearly all usual method to

portray hair restorer is element for restoring hair growth. It interpreted that the early element hair (noun) is the object of the verbal component of restore. This minor compound is interpreted regular semantically. There are other secondary compound words which have irregular semantically. For example:

sign-writer, slum clearance, wish fulfillment, crime prevention

machine-washing, washing of machines globe-trotter, trots globes

voice-activation

Now let's discuss some of these examples. First is machine washing. In some contexts it means that a machine which can wash some clothes, but it may explain as washing clothes in the machine as the antonym of washing clothes by hand. A globe-trotter is a person which travelling around the world. It is not a person which trots globes (I do not know what it means). In voice-activation, actually not an active voice however it is a tool such as a computer which can be stimulated by voice instructions not by typing. From the example above, we can conclude that the first element not be subject but object of the verbal component, or more broadly let the first item to be connected or linked to the verbal element using different method.

Boat moon and bridge cloud, they have stress element at the first word, it showed that they have possible English noun there. The noun of moon somehow associated with boats and the noun of cloud somehow associated with bridges. These semantics ambiguity looks like introducing an unbearable hindrances in making the recent root compounds. The perception of new

compounds relies in training less on solely linguistic regularities than on contexts and global intelegence.

> English makes generous use of compounding words than many other European languages do. It is surprisingly that at least some of compounding words should be formally regular and also highly general.

6. Measuring the Productivity: the Significance of Neologism

This will cause a profit that a non-existent noun such as the word richity may be classify as a formal irregularity. Yet, the minus thing of it will entail the real nouns like the words purity, sanity, severity, also oddity because it also has to be irregular. To make a productive process which has an accurate meaning, it must become an action which may be applied to create a class of new lexemes or neologism. Now, could you identify neologism in these corpora?

Hapax legomena (a singular hapax legomenon) is a Greek term that is adopted from classical studies, it has a meaning as (only) once. To make you more understand about this chapter, you are supposed to have any lore about statistical methods. For some aims, it must be conscious which such a statistical examination is efforceable, and that they have done in defining the formal generality and regularity. However, most of the words which are attached by the suffix -ity will occur (more technically and their token-frequency is great), whereas many other words which use the suffix -ness¬ have low frequency. It also happens in lapax legomena word.

That is way, although one measure of the suffix -ness looks less productive than the suffix -ity, the suffix –ness is more predictable than the suffix -ity to be applied in the production of new neologism.

7. It's Game Time!

The lecturer prepares some word cards which contain words of semantic formality and semantic regularity and some words that are not quite right to use or words that does not exist in English. The lecturer will make a table of semantic formality and semantic regularity on the white board.

Semantic Formality	Semantic Regularity
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	

And so on....

Instructions:

1. Students form groups of eight to ten members.
2. Each group must prepare their own bell by making a unique sound or voice. Example of the bell: pick me… pick me.. pick me up.. or voila..voila.. huha.
3. The lecturer will say something and make a move.
4. If what the lecturer says is what his movement says, then the representatives will ring their bell and do the same as

the lecturer did. Students have a scramble to be the first to ring the bell.

5. The group who has successfully done the previous phase will have an opportunity to choose one word card and stick the card on the white board.

6. The students will take turns becoming one of the group's representatives.

8. Summarizing

- Productive morphemes are morphemes that appear actively in word-formation in modern English, while unproductive morphemes do not.

Productive morpheme	Unproductive morpheme
-er, -ing, -ness, -ism, -ist, -y, *-ly, -ed* *un-, re-, dis-*	*-th, -hood, -en*

- There are two rules of semantic regularity, it does not happen in the past tense forms and happens when when there is a verb that has another meaning.

Rules of semantic regularity

It does not happen in the past tense forms.

It happens when there is a verb that has another meaning.
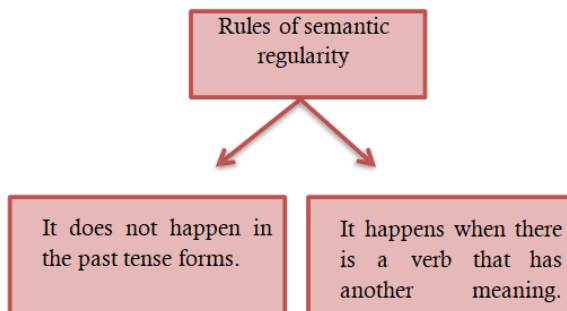
- The important ways in formating words such as formal generality, the formal regularity, and the compound words.

```
                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │ Word-formation  │
                    │    process      │
                    └─────────────────┘
        ┌───────────────────┼───────────────────┐
┌──────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐
│   Formal     │    │   Formal     │    │  Compound    │
│  generality  │    │  regularity  │    │   words      │
└──────────────┘    └──────────────┘    └──────────────┘
┌──────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐
│ happy + ness │    │ wide + th =  │    │              │
│ = happiness  │    │   width      │    │              │
│              │    │              │    │  machine-    │
│ good + ness =│    │ deep + th =  │    │  washing     │
│  goodness    │    │   depth      │    │              │
│              │    │              │    │ globe-trotter│
│ dark + ness =│    │ long + th =  │    │              │
│  darkness    │    │   length     │    │              │
└──────────────┘    └──────────────┘    └──────────────┘
```
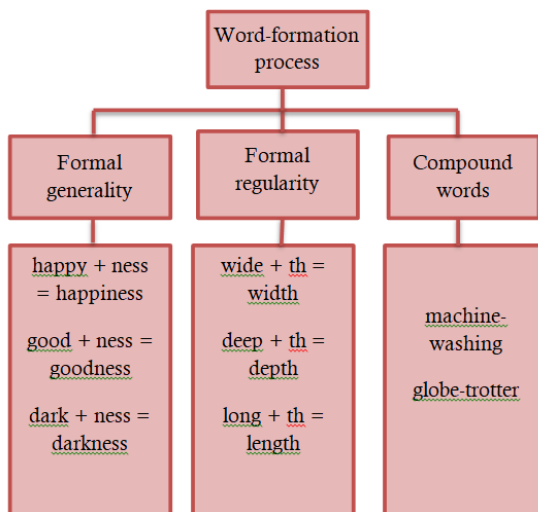
10. Exercises

Exercise 1

Read each statement below and decide whether it is true (T) or false (F)!

Statements	T/F
1. Creativity is a process that can be used by native speakers to form new lexemes.	
2. The forms of productivity are formal generality and informal regularity.	
3. Happiness, goodness, richness are the example of formal genertality.	

4. An inflectional process which the characteristic of all bases words will be exploiting almost all or nearly without idiosyncratic gaps is the definition of formal	
5. Formal regularity is the common affixes usually be added to a word to make a new word formation, it can be agreed by native speakers if it has been used generally in their	
6. Sociality, offensivity, or languidity are the examples of formal regularity, although these words are seldom to used, but it means that they have never been used.	
7. Not all of the words in a language have synonyms.	
8. Sign-writer, slum clearance, wish fulfillment, crime prevention are the example of compound words in productivity.	
9. Boat moon and bridge cloud, they have stress element at the first word, it indicated that they have possible English noun there to be the examples of compound words.	
10. The suffix -ness is more predictable than the suffix -ity to be used in the creation of new neologism in productivity	

Exercise 2

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!

2. Scan the barcode below!

3. Watch the video and write its transcript!

4. Find words that are attached by productive morphemes!

~Good luck!~

CHAPTER VIII
MORPHOLOGY & SYNTAX

1. Introduction to Syntax

In the previous chapter, we have learned about morphemes in Morphology, which are the building blocks of the language that go to make up words. But English is not just about words but more than them. Words are put together to create a sentence. The way to form a sentence from words is called as syntax. Simply, syntax is the study about the way to form the phrases and sentences from words. In syntax, we will learn about the structure of sentence, phrases, and clauses. If you remember, we have learned about dictionary which consists of the collection of words, their part of speech, how to pronounce, and their meaning. Now in syntax, we will also learn about part of speech which is the basic unit of the sentence. To make us more understand about sentence, we must learn words' part of speech first. There are eight parts of speech in syntax, they are:

a) Noun (N)
   Noun is a word which names a place, a thing, or a person. E.g. New York, chair, and Angela.

b) Pronoun (Pro)
   Pronoun is a word that can replace a noun. E.g. it, they, and she.

c) Adjective (Adj)
   Adjective is a word that can describe a person or a thing. E.g. beautiful, large, and large.

d) Verb (V)
   Verb is a word that can express an action. E.g. go, sit, and sleep.

e) Adverb (Adv)
   Adverb is a word that can add more information about time, place, and manner. E.g. too, kindly, and quickly.

f) Preposition (P)

Preposition is a word that can be used before a noun or pronoun to show a position, time, place, and method. E.g. in, at, and under.

g) Conjunction (Conj)

Conjunction is a word that can connect the words and phrases. E.g. because, or, and however.

h) Interjection (Interj)

Interjection is a word that can be used as the exclamation. E.g. Well, yeah, and oh.

There are four basic types of syntax. They are modification, predication, complementation, and coordination. In modification, there are two components to form a phrase or sentence, they are head and modifier. For example: green house, beautiful girl, and handsome boy. House, girl, and boy are the heads. While green, beautiful, and handsome is the modifier. The second one is predication which consists of a subject and a predicate. For example: snow kept falling. Snow is the subject and kept falling is the predicate. However, there is a basic type of syntax which consists of a verbal element and a complement that is known as complementation. For example: speak truth which speak is the verbal element and truth is the complement. The last is coordination which consists of equivalent grammatical units and conjunction. For example: green or red which green and red are the equivalent grammatical units while and is the conjunction.

2. The Relationship between Morphology and Syntax

After we learned the basic of syntax, now we will learn the relationship between morphology and syntax. According to the traditional view, the relationship between those studies is the following: morphology form the words by combining roots with other roots and affixes, while syntax combining those words become phrases and sentences. Simply, morphology is the study

of forming words and syntax is the study of forming phrases and sentences. Syntax is the sequel of morphology. After students learn how to form the words, they will learn how to combine those words become a good phrases or sentences.

3. Morphosyntax

Language consists of sounds, words, and sentences. Language is a rule-based in all levels. For example: in sound level, we will learn about phonology which refers to the rules of sound combination and sound system. When we enter the word level, we will learn about morphology which refers to the words' structures and constructions. There, we will learn everything about words, from the word's roots, prefixes, until affixes (we can call it morphemes). Learning morphemes is important because it can understand us the use of -ing for present progressive, -s for indicating the plural forms, or the correct verb for present or past tense. That knowledge is really important to be learned if you want to learn syntax. Syntax is needed if you enter the sentence level. There, you will learn about the rules of the word order and combination in order to form the phrases and sentences.

Now, we will discuss the morphosyntax which deals with the interaction of those two studies, morphology and syntax. We will begin with the application of inflection in those two studies. In morphological literature, the presence of inflectional in a language depends on the existence of more than one forms of a lexeme. So, if that language only has one form of a lexeme, it might be there is no morphological inflection. In the other hand, there is no any such requirement in syntax. Another difference in term inflection for those two studies is that morphologists speak of inflection only when dealing with bound forms. But syntax has modals or modal auxiliaries which are used for

accompanying other verbs and indicate that the action is described by the sentence is not a simple fact. So, these modals can't be inflection for morphologist because here we are not dealing with bound forms, but separate words. So, syntacticians say that modals auxiliaries as the inflections but not for the morphologists.

In the previous chapter, we learn the part of speech and the examples, now we will learn how to decide the part of speech in syntax by using morphological distribution (derivational and inflectional suffixes).

a) Noun

- Derivational suffixes

  In English, nouns often have derivational endings such as*: -ness, -ment, -ity, -ty, -ation, -(t)ion, -ant, -ist, -ee, -ery,-ship, -aire, -let, -acy, -let, -hood, -ling, -ing, and -ism.* For example: friendliness, expectation, specialist, socialism, neighborhood, etc.

- Inflectional suffixes

  Nouns do not show much inflection, but when nouns are pluralized, they put ending such as: *-en, -s, -es, -ren, -a, and -i.* For example: Apples, books, boxes, children, cacti, etc.

- Syntactic distribution

  We often find that noun appears after determiner, such as those, these, the. For example: the book. Noun also often appear after adjective, such as big, good, beautiful. For example: that big house. Noun can follow preposition, such as in, at, etc. For example: in school.
  All of these conditions also can happen together, for example: in the big house. Noun can be the subject of the sentence or the direct object of the sentence. For example: Jack is handsome (Noun as the subject), Anne reads comic (noun as the direct object). Nouns can be negated by 'no', for example: No apples were eaten.

b) Verb
- Derivational suffixes
  Verbs have ending such as: -ate, -ize/-ise. For example: regularize, dissipate.
- Inflectional suffixes
  In the past tense, verbs usually have ending such as –ed or -t. in present form, when appearing after (he, she, it) usually have -s ending. After to be, verbs have -ing ending. When verbs are passivized, they usually put -en or -ed ending. For example: played, drinks, sitting, eaten, etc.
- Syntactic distribution
  Verbs can follow modals or auxiliaries, such as can, will, shall, is, are, would, should, could, have to, must, am, have, has, etc. for example: I will call you (will here as the modal and call as the verb because it follows will). Verbs can also follow special infinite marker 'to', for example: to do, to act, to have, to love, etc. Verbs can also follow subject and adverb, such as often, frequently. Verbs can be negated by not.

c) Adjectives
- Derivational suffixes
  Adjectives usually have derivational suffixes such as: -al, -ing, -ive, -able, -ish, -ate, -(i)an, -some, -full, -less, -ly. For example: traditional, readable, friendly, etc.
- Inflectional suffixes
  In comparative form, adjectives have ending such as -re (alternative: appear after more). In superlative form, adjectives have ending -est (alternative: appear after most). Adjectives use un- which means "not". For example: more beautiful, most handsome, cheaper, biggest, etc.
- Syntactic distribution

Adjectives can appear after determiner and noun, such as the, these, that (determiner), book, chair, table, mirror (noun). For example: the big house (the as the determiner, house as the noun, so the word between those two words are adjective). Adjectives can also follow the auxiliaries (this condition overlaps with verbs), such as am, are, is, etc. For example: I am beautiful, he is handsome, etc. Adjectives can also be modified by adverbs 'very' (this condition overlaps with adverb).

d) Adverb

- Derivational suffixes
  Adverbs mostly have ending such as: -ly. For example: quickly, carefully, etc.
- Inflectional suffixes
  Adverbs rarely use inflectional suffixes, but in some occasions, adverbs can be used comparatively and follow the word more, such as: more quickly. Adverbs do not put un- prefix unless the adjective are derived first. Such as unhelpfully from unhelpful.
- Syntactic distribution:
  Adverbs actually can't appear between determiner and noun. For example: the quickly person (this is wrong). They can appear anywhere except between determiner and noun.

To make you more understand, scan the following QR code and read the text!

From that text, we will get so many parts of speech, you can use the morphological distribution (inflectional and derivational suffixes) or syntactical distribution if you don't know what part of speech that is. For example: we have 'farmer', farmer is noun. How do we know? Because the word farmer follows the determiner 'a'. Again, we have 'asked'. This is verb because it has -ed ending. The last is 'primitive', that is an adjective because it follows auxiliary 'am'.

4. It's Game Time!

<u>I am the Actor</u>

The purpose of this game is to increase their confidence and also their cooperation as the group.

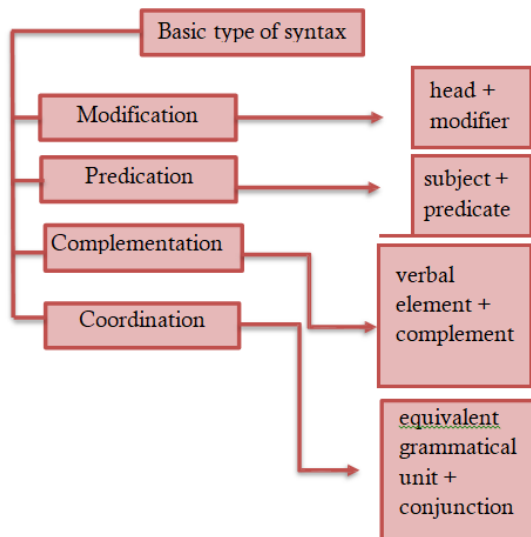<u>Tool:</u>

1. Paper

<u>Instructions:</u>

1. The teacher writes a simple sentence on the paper.
2. Then, the teacher divides the students into some groups.

3. After that, the volunteers from each group come to the front.

4. Then, the teacher shows them a simple sentence. They must memorize it.

5. After that, the volunteers back to their group, then they have to act out that sentence, without speaking.

6. The other students must guess what actually that sentence is.

7. The group that know the answer can raise their hand, then say the answer loudly. If their answer is true, they get 1 point. If the answer is wrong, they get -1 point.

8. Continue this process until we get a winner.

5. Summarizing

• Syntax is the study about the way to form the phrases and sentences from words. There are 4 basic types of syntax, they are modification, predication, complementation, and coordination.

Basic type of syntax		
Modification	→	head + modifier
Predication	→	subject + predicate
Complementation		verbal element + complement
Coordination		equivalent grammatical unit + conjunction

- There are eight parts of speech. They are noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection

Parts of speech	Noun	→	Chair
	Pronoun	→	You
	Adjective	→	Bad
	Verb	→	Go
	Adverb	→	Quickly
	Preposition	→	To
	Conjunction	→	Or
	Interjection	→	Well
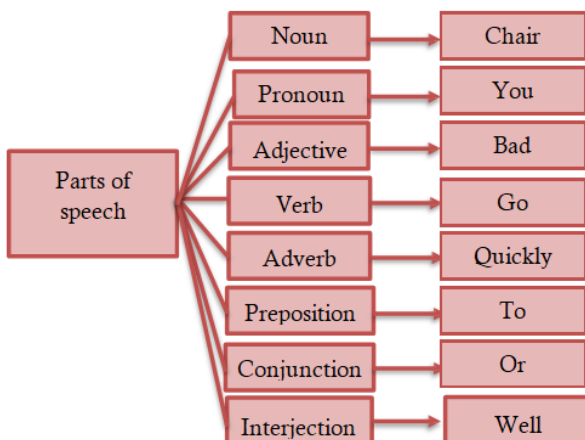
6. Exercise

Exercise 1

A true friend

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store.
2. Scan the barcode.
3. Select five sentences.
4. In the blanks below, write down five sentences that have been

Write your answer below!

1. ………………………………………………………

2. ………………………………………………………

3. ………………………………………………………

4. ………………………………………………………

5. ………………………………………………………

Analysis result

………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………

Exercise 2

<u>Instructions</u>

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!

2. Scan the barcode below then listen carefully!

3. After listening to the video, fill the blanks by using the correct answer!

Toy Story Official Trailer

Woody   : "Everyone, _____ made a friend in class!"

Dolly   : "Oh, she is already _____ friends."

Woody   : "No, no, she (....) made a _____ friend." I want you to _____ Forky! Forky   : "h...h....h...hi!"

All toys   : "Hello...hi!" Forky   : "Aaaaahhhhh!"
Pricklepants   : "He is a _____!"

Forky   : "Yes... yeah, I _____."

Woody   : "Forky is the most _____ toy to Bonnie right now. We all have to make sure nothing _____ to ." Buzz Lightyear: "_____! We have a _____."

Forky   : "I'm not a _____. I was made for _____, _____, maybe _____, and then the _____! Freedom!"

Woody   : "Buzz! We've to get forky!" Buzz Lightyear: "Affirmative!"

Woody   : "Ahhhh! Ohh... owwww..."

[124]

Forky : "Why am I ____?"

Woody : "You're Bonnie's toy. You are going to help happy memories that will last for the ____ of her life!"

Forky : "Huh? What?"

Woody : "Ohh! Gah! Ahh! I! uhh! Ugh! Bo? Forky, come on!"

Exercise 3

Instructions

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner in Play Store!
2. Listen to the song carefully!
3. After listening the song, finds all modal auxiliaries that are used in that song!
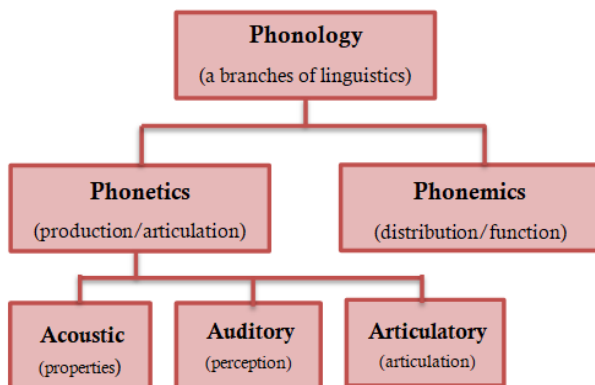
~Good luck!~

CHAPTER IX
MORPHOLOGY & PHONOLOGY

1. What is Phonology?

Like morphology, phonology is also the branch of linguistics. The difference is that phonology studies the ways sounds are used in different languages to form syllables and letter words by following some rules. Phonology came from a Greek word phono which means voice or sound and logy which means speech or discussion. To make it simple, phonology can be defined as the study of how speech sounds form patterns in human language. Phonology can also be defined as the study of how speech sounds are produced. Phonology has two branches, phonemics and phonetics.

```
                    Phonology
            (a branches of linguistics)
               ┌──────────┴──────────┐
          Phonetics                Phonemics
    (production/articulation)   (distribution/function)
    ┌─────────┬─────────┐
 Acoustic  Auditory  Articulatory
(properties)(perception)(articulation)
```

Look at the following terms in phonology that may be useful for you!

a) Phoneme
    Phoneme can be defined as the smallest unit of human speech sound that determines meaning. We can identify phonemes easily because usually they are written in slanted brackets //.

b) Phone

Phone can be defined as the form of phonems in phonological conditions. Phones are usually written in square brackets [].

c) Allophone

Allophone can be defined as a phonetic variant of a phoneme in a specific language.

We know that when someone mispronounces words, she/he will change their meanings. So, it is important for us to study phonology because it can help us know how speech sounds are organized and pronounced. Not only that, but phonology also helps us find different rules for combining different sounds in various languages.

According to physiology, lungs are the source of sounds in human body. The lungs have to produce adequate airflow and air pressure to vibrate vocal folds. The vocal fold or vocal cord is a vibrating valve that chops up the airflow from the lungs into audible pulse that form the laryngeal sound source. The articulators articulate and filter the sound that comes out from the larynx and can interact with laryngeal airflow to modify the sound to meet the requirement of the context.
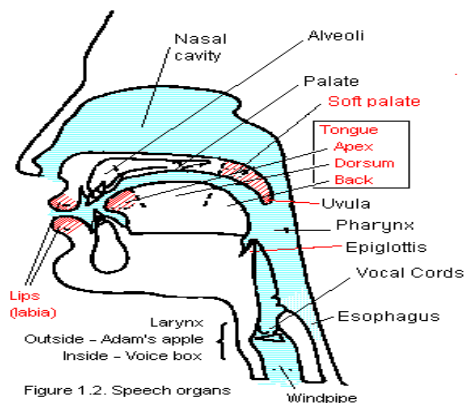

Figure 1.2. Speech organs

There are two kinds of speech sounds, they are consonants and vowels. Consonant sounds are speech sounds that are created when the airflow is interrupted or limited by the position of the tongue, teeth or lips. So, in consonant sounds the air does not flow freely. There are 24 consonant sounds in most of English accents that are conveyed in 21 letters of the legular English alphabet. Look at the following examples of consonant sounds!

Consonant sound	Example
/p/	Pair, cup
/b/	Bad, crab
/t/	Tall, hit
/d/	Dark, head
/k/	Cab, lack
/g/	Good, tag
/f/	Fine, wife

Vowel sounds are different from consonant sounds because they are created by the relatively free passage of breath through the larynx and oral cavity. So, in vowel sounds the air flows freely to made different sounds. Vowel sounds are divided into two kids, short vowels, long vowels. In the IPA (International phonetic Alphabet), there are seven short vowels, they are /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ʌ/, /ʊ/ , /ɒ/, /ə/. Distinguishing short vowels from long vowels is quite easy. English long vowels have two dots /:/after the vowel symbols, while English short vowels do not. There are five IPA symbols for English long vowels, they are /i:/, /ɑ:/, /ɔ:/, /ɜ:/, /u:/. Here are the examples of short and long vowels in English:

Short vowel	Long vowel
hit /hɪt/	heat /hi:t/
pick /pɪk/	peak /pi:k/

lick /lɪk/	leak /liːck/
duck /dʌk/	dark /daːk/
stuff /stʌf/	staff /staːf/

There are three ranges of vowel sounds, they are monophthongs (a single vowel sounds in a syllable), diphthongs (two vowel sounds in a syllable), and triphthongs (three vowel sounds in a syllable).

a. Monophthong

Monophthong is a vowel that has one perceived sound. Most of them are short vowel sounds, but there are also long vowel sounds that are monophthong too. Here are the examples of short and long vowel monophthongs:

Short vowel monophthong	Long vowel monophthong
A a /æ/ apple (/ˈæpəl/) map (/mæp/) track (/træk/) man (/mæn/)	/u/ exclude (/ɪkˈsklud/) prove (/pruv/) true (/tru/) cruise (/kruz/) chew (/tʃu/) loot (/lut/) through (/θru/)
E e /ɛ/ set (/sɛt/) jet (/dʒɛ/) bend (/bɛnd/) met (/mɛt/)	/ɔ/ Water (/ˈwɔtər/) across (/əˈkrɔs/) thought (/θɔt/) dawn (/dɔn/) author (/ˈɔθər/)
I i /ɪ/ tip (/tɪp/) strip (/strɪp/) imply (/ɪmˈplaɪ/)	/ɜ/ nerve (/nɜrv/) stir (/stɜr/) work (/wɜrk/)
fin (/fɪn/)	curve (/kɜrv/) search (/sɜrtʃ/) journey (/ˈdʒɜrni/)
O o /ɑ/	

top (/tɑp/) hot (/hɑt/) offer (/ˈɑfər/) pollen (/ˈpɑlən/)	
U u /ʌ/ cut (/kʌt/) hug (/hʌg/) mutt (/mʌt/) strut (/strʌt/)	
U u /ʊ/ put (/pʊt/) push (/pʊʃ/) full (/fʊl/) sugar (/ʃʊgər/)	
Y y /ɪ/ myth (/mɪθ/) system (/ˈsɪstəm/) rhythm (/ˈrɪðəm/) crypt (/krɪpt/)	

b. Diphthong

Diphthong can be defined as a sound that is formed by the combination of two vowels in a single syllable.

Diphthong	Example
A /eɪ/ Pronounced "eh-ee" Pronounced "ah-ee"	tape (/teɪp/)
O /oʊ/ Pronounced "oh-oo"	rope (/roʊp/)
U /ju/ Pronounced "ee-oo"	cube (/kjub/)
/ɔɪ/ Pronounced "au-ee"	boy (/bɔɪ/) annoy (/əˈnɔɪ/) royal (/ˈrɔɪəl/)

	stairs (/stɛərz/)
	dairy (/dɛəri/)
	repair (/rəˈpɛər/)
	wear (/wɛər/)
	employed (/ɪmˈplɔɪd/)
	coin (/kɔɪn/)
	foil (/fɔɪl/)
	choice (/ʧɔɪs/)
	noise (/nɔɪz/)
/aʊ/ Pronounced "ah-oo"	found (/faʊnd/)
	pout (/paʊt/)
	stout (/staʊt/)
	mouth (/maʊθ/)
	town (/taʊn/)
	crowd (/kraʊd/)
	chowder (/ˈʧaʊdər/)
	shower (/ˈʃaʊər/)
/ɪə/ Pronounced "ih-uh"	deer (/dɪər/)
	sheer (/ʃɪər/)
	steer (/stɪər/)
	dear (/dɪər/)
	hear (/hɪər/)
	appear (/əpˈɪər/)
	pier (/pɪər/)
	fierce (/fɪərs/)
	frontier (/frənˈtɪər/)
/ɛə/ Pronounced "eh-uh"	flare (/flɛər/)
	care (/kɛər/)
	stare (/stɛər/)

c. Triphthong

Triphthong can be defined as a combination of three vowels (letters or sounds) that are pronounced together. There are three triphthongs in American English, they are

/aʊə/ ("ah-oo-uh"), /aɪə/ ("ah-ih- uh"), and /jʊə/ ("ee-oo-uh"). Look at the following examples!

Triphthong	Example
/aʊə/ Pronounced "ah-oo-uh"	our (/aʊər/) hour (/aʊər/; H is silent) flour (/flaʊər/) sour (/saʊər/)
/aɪə/ Pronounced "ah-ih-uh"	fire (/faɪər/) dire (/daɪər/) inspire (/ɪn'spaɪər/) Ireland (/'aɪərlənd/)
/jʊə/ Pronounced "ee-oo-uh"	cure (/kjʊər/) pure (/pjʊər/) fury (/'fjʊəri/) curious (/'kjʊər.iəs/)

2. Morphophonology

Are phonology and morphology related to each other? The answer is yes, they are. We know that before language learners study morphology they have to study phonology first because phonology is basic knowledge that language learners should master first before they master morphology. In spoken production, phonological and morphological processes are related to each other because they have to collaborate to made a phonological representation that is appropriate for driving phonological processing.

In linguistics, there is a term to call the combination of morphology and phonology, it is "morphophonology". Morphophonology or morphophonemic is a branch of linguistics that studies the phonological structure of morphemes. It focuses on the sound changings in morphemes when they combine to form words. morphohonology is also called morphophonemic. The examples of morphophonology are:

a) The plural form of book, books (attached by suffix -*s*);
b) The plural form of box, boxes (attached by suffix -*es*);

c) The plural form of a word that ends with *-f* is *-ves* like in the word leaf, the plural form of leaf is leaves.

d) The different pronunciations for the past tense marker (*-ed*) like looked and created.

There are some steps in the process of morphophonological analysis, they are:

a) Phonemicization

This is the first step of morpho[honological analysis, in this step the data should be reduced into phonemes. Look at the followeing examples!

- cut   /kʌt/
- kick   /kɪk/
- top   /tɒp/

b) Morpheme division

In this step, we have to break off words into their componet morphemes. Look at the following examples!

- <cuts>   = <cut + s>   = /kʌt + s/
- <kicks>   = <kick + s>   = /kɪk + s/
- <tops>   = <top + s>   = /tɒp + s/

c) Finding the allomorphs

Finding allomorphs of each morpheme is important. After we have found allomorphs, we have to look for the segments that tend to alternate.

d) Active rules

After we have broken off words into morphemes and find their allomorphs, we can state rules and their order of aplication.

e) Setting up underlying representations

After talking about steps in the process of morphophonological analysis, let us talk about the process of morphophonological analysis. They are:

a) Pluralisation

Word (singular)	IPA Transcription	Word (plural)	IPA Transcription
cut	/kʌt/	cuts	/kʌts/
kick	/kɪk/	kicks	/kɪks/
top	/tɒp/	tops	/tɒps/
dog	/dɒg/	dog	/dɒgz/
rib	/rɪb/	rib	/rɪbz/
kid	/kɪd/	kid	/kɪdz/
judge	/dʒʌdʒ/	judges	/dʒʌdʒəz/
wish	/wɪʃ/	wishes	/wɪʃəz/
church	/tʃ3:tʃ/	churche s	/tʃ3:tʃəz/
shoe	/ʃu:/	shoes	/ʃu:z/
day	/deɪ/	days	/deɪz/
pea	/pi:/	peas	/pi:z/

From the previous table we can know that plural morphemes in English are realized as /-s/, /-z/ and /- əz/ that affected by the different phonological environments as the following ones:

- The morpheme ends with voiceless consonant that is non-strident takes [-s] allomorph.
- The morpheme ends with voice consonant that is non-strident takes [-z] allomorph.
- The morpheme ends with consonant that is strident takes [-əz] allomorph.
- The morpheme ends with vowel also takes [-z] allomorph.

Look at the following table of the pluralisation in English!

(1st coda epenthesis + 2nd devoicing)

word + plural morpheme	cut + s	dog + s	judge + s	order of rule application
Underlying representation	/kʌt-z/	/dɒg-z/	/dʒʌdʒ-z/	
Coda epenthesis	-	-	/dʒʌdʒəz/	↓
devoicing	/kʌts/	-	-	
surface form	[kʌts]	[dɒgz]	[dʒʌdʒəz]	

(1st devoicing + 2nd coda epenthesis)

word + plural morpheme	cat + s	dog + s	judge + s	order of rule application
underlying representation	/kʌt-**z**/	/dɒg-**z**/	/dʒʌdʒ-**z**/	
devoicing	/kʌt**s**/	-	dʒʌdʒ-**s**/	↓
coda epenthesis	-	-	-	
surface form	[kʌt**s**]	[dɒg**z**]	[dʒʌdʒs]	

b) Assimilation of negative prefix in-

Assimilation can be defined as a sound change in which phonemes change to be more like the nearby sounds. Look at the following table!

Words	Negative prefix + word	IPA Transcription
possible	in + possible	/ɪmposɪbəl/
balance	in + balance	/ɪmbæləns/
tolerable	in + tolerable	/ɪntɒlrəbl/
active	in + active	/ɪnæktɪv/
complete	in + complete	/iŋkʌmpliːt/

gratitude	in + gratitude	/ɪŋɡrætɪtjuːd/

From the previous table we can know that negative morpheme *in-* can manifest itself as [im], [in] and [ɪŋ].

Allomorph [im] occurs when the following sound is labial consonant [p, b, f, m]. Allomorph [ɪŋ] occurs when the following sound is velar consonant [k, g]. Allomorph [in] occurs when thefollowing sound is veolar consonants [t, d, s, z, n] and vowel sounds [ə, ʊ, u, ɪ, iː]. The other negative morphemes like *un-* and *non-* do not follow the previous rule. Look at the following examples!

- un + polluted → unpolluted (*umpolluted)
- non + personal → non-personal (*nom-personal)
- un + balanced → unbalanced (*umbalanced)
- non + business → non-business (*nom-business)
- un + marked → unmarked (*ummarked)
- non +medical → non-medical (*nom-medical)
- un + lawful → unlawful (*ullawful)
- non + legal → non-legal (*nol-legal)
- un + reasonable → unreasonable (*urreasonable)
- non + restrictive → non-restrictive (*nor-restrictive)

c) Stress shift

Usually stress appears in the first syllable of a word, but it can also appears in any syllable. When morphemes pass derivational process their stresses sometimes change, the changing of the stress is usually called as stress shift. Look at the following table!

Word	1st derivation	2nd derivation	3rd derivation
Photo /ˈfəʊ.təʊ/	**pho**tograph /ˈfəʊ.tə.ɡrɑːf/	pho**to**graphy /fəˈtɒɡ.rə.fi/	photo**gra**phic /ˌfəʊ.təˈɡræf.ɪk/

drama /'drɑː.mə/	dra**ma**tic /drə'mæt.ɪk/	dra**ma**tically /drə'mæt.ɪ.kl.i/	

It is very important for us to be aware of stress because if we misstress words we can change their meanings.

3. It's Game Time!

Instructions:

1. The teacher/lecturer will sing and use the student's name to complete the rhyme:

   Willaby, Wallaby, Wusan,

   An elephant sat on Susan.

   Willaby, Wallaby, Wark,

   An elephant sat on Mark.
2. Students can stand up when they hear a word that rhymes with their names.
3. Continue with other students' names.

4. Summarizing

- Phonology is a branch of linguistics that studies the ways sounds are used in different languages to form syllables and letter words by following some rules. It has two branches, they are phonetics and phonemics.
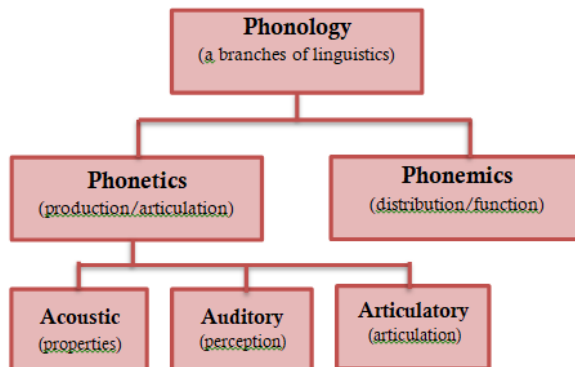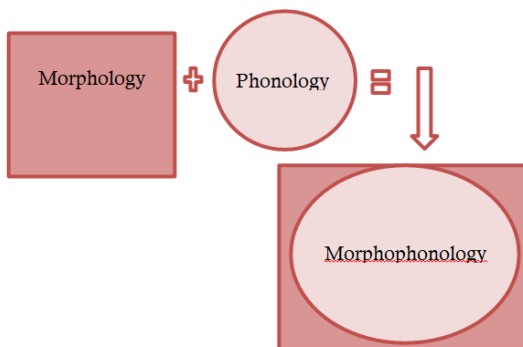
- There are two kinds of speech sounds, they are consonant and vowel sounds.
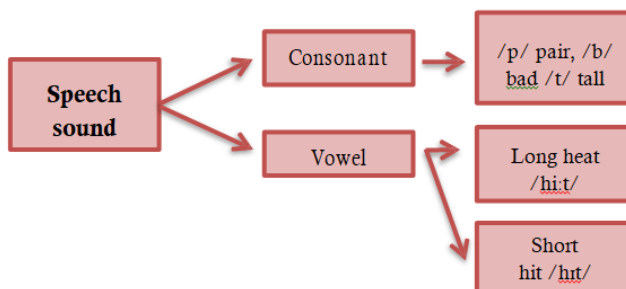

- There are three ranges of vowel sounds, they are monophthong, diphthong, and triphthong.
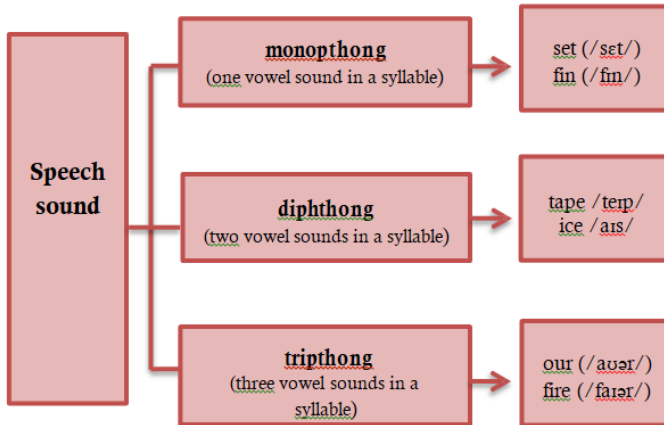
- All linguistics branches are related to each other, including morphology and phonology.

- Morphophonology is a branch of linguistics that studies the phonological structure of morphemes.
- There are five steps of morphophonological analysis.

  They are phonemicization, morpheme division, finding the allomorphs, active rules, setting up underlying representations.

```
phonemicization → Morpheme division → Finding the allomorphs
```

```
Setting up underlying presentation ← Active rules
```
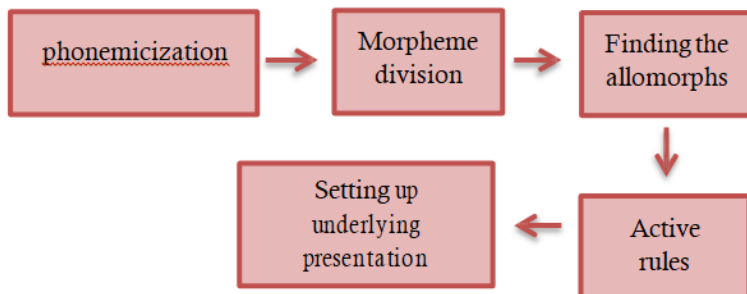
- There are three processes of morphophonological analysis. They are pluralisation, assimilation of negative prefix in-, and stress shift.

```
Morphophonological analysis has three processes →
    Pluralisation
    Assimilation of negative prefix in-
    Stress shift
```
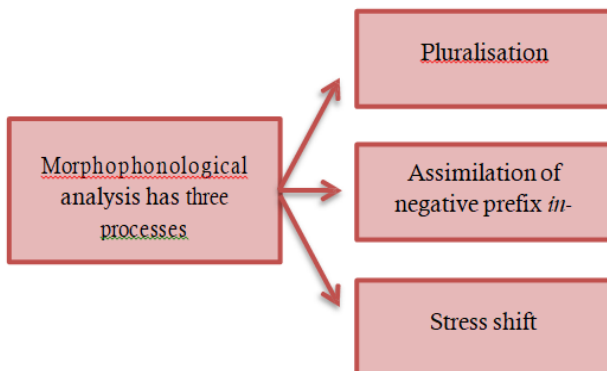
5. Exercises

Exercise 1

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!
2. Scan the barcode below!

3. Watch the video and write its transcript!
4. Write the phoneme of each word of the transcript!

Exercise 2

Read each statement below and decide whether it is true (T) or false (F)!

Statement	T/F
1. Phonology is the study of how words are organized.	
2. Phonology is related to morphology.	
3. Phones are usually written in slanted brackets.	
4. Phonology has two branches, phonemics and morphology.	
5. There are two kinds of speech sounds, consonant and vowel sounds.	
6. Monophthong is a single vowel sounds in a syllable.	
7. Phonemicization is the second step of morphophonological analysis.	
8. Setting up underlying representations is the last step of morphophonological analysis.	
9. Morphophonological analysis is also known as morphosyntax.	
10. The morpheme ends with voiceless consonant that is non-strident takes [-s] allomorph.	

~Good luck!~

CHAPTER X
DISCOURSE GRAMMAR

1. What is Discourse Analysis?

Did you know what the term Discourse Analysis means? Well, Discourse analysis is a research method that studies spoken or written language in relation to its social contexts which specifies the agent of the information. It explains how language is used in real life situations. Zellig Harris (1952) emphasized that a language does not occur in drift words or sentences, but in connected discourse, from one utterance word to ten-volume work, or from monolog to complex argument. It aims to provide an account of a language beyond the limits of a sentence (p. 3). In new disciplines, the familiar term almost always on new comprehensive or efficient meanings that differs from their generally used in formal or daily communication. Van Dijk (1997) stated, the term discourse is generally used to a particular form of a language use, for example for public speeches or more commonly to spoken language or as the ways of speaking.

Van Dijk (1997) also decided that another important characteristic when he points out about language that can be spoken, written, or printed is that each kind of language use will has their own characteristic properties, for example: the communication may be passive as in when people read a newspaper, more active as in e-mail communication and Instagram social media, or fully active as in Whatsapp communication or when people were in face to face dialogue. Those all is the characteristics when conducting analysis that has the researchers considered. From there, we know that some would use the term discourse for spoken language and apply the term text for written or printed language, and others will use both term conversely. Most of the researchers represent discourse as the activities of speaking or writing, but other researchers included other aspects of communication in their

definition, such as Brown (1995) stated that there is another participant in the dialogues, called the listeners, in the discourse activity.

Discourse analysis invariably look closely to the actual language itself rather that at the secondary sources such as descriptions or reports of what was said, meant, or understood. It is virtually all discourse analysis will agree with the conversation that has been done by the analysts. It mostly uses the data from behaviors data that are generated by their own context.

2. The Importance of Studying Discourse Analysis

A. Academic applications

Discourse analysis might be used to study the disparity in the society, such as instructional racism, sexism, and central bias in media. It also used to consider and illustrate discussions about religious symbols located in public places. By looking to the context of a language, we can realize the nuance layers of meaning which are combine by the social or institutional factors at work, such as power, gender, unfairness, cultural background, conflict and racism.

B. Real world applications

Separately from academic applications, discourse analysis also has some practical uses. Especially in this field are tasked to helping world leaders to recognize the true meaning behind a communication from their peers. While in the field of medicine, it would help physicians find ways to establish they are better understood to help people with minimal language skills, as well as directing the patient in dealings when giving them a challenging diagnosis.

C. To distinguish between discourse analysis and grammar analysis

Different from the analysis of grammar, that focuses to study on the structure of sentences, discourse analysis focuses on studying the large and regular use of a language within and between appropriate groups of people. Another important characteristic is that grammarians mostly construct the examples to analyze, while discourse analysis defines on actual speech or writings of the group which being studied to establish the familiar usage.

In the term of textual analysis, grammarians may distinct the texts in detachment for elements such as word choice (diction) or the art of persuasion, only the discourse analysis which takes about the social and cultural context of a given text. In the term of oral expression, discourse analysis takes in the cultural, colloquial, and living use of language including each and every "um", "er" and "you know" as well as slips of the tongue and awkward pauses. On the other hand, grammarians rely entirely on sentence structure, stylistic choices, and word usage. Of course, this often includes the cultural ingredients of a language but it is removed the human nature of spoken discourse.

3. Kinds of Discourse Analysis Data

There are other ways to define discourse. First, face to face conversation, it mostly appears in families, schools, workplaces, hospitals and many other public areas such as in psychotherapy, court room settings (examination and cross examination), in medical examination and interviews, in police interviews, in the classrooms, in office meetings, on social occasions, and sometimes in the experiment of psychology.

Second, people who communicating by writing through letters and memos, when they post comments, when they publish articles and books, when the lecturers or professors write comments on students' examinations or students' papers and in many other activities.

Third, is in mediated communication. It includes in telephone conversations and communication via answering voice mail, radio shows, and by computer which mediated forms such as e-mail, internet chat rooms (WhatsApp application group, Telegram, Edmodo, or Schoology), and in bulletin boards. In the mass media, communication will occur by television talk shows, comic strips, newspapers, and sometimes in political interviews. Now, we have provided more examples from this chapter, mostly in the sections on transcription and recording. Certainly, readers can imagine to think of the other examples that we have not mentioned in this chapter.

4. The Levels of Discourse Analysis

According to Nunan (1993), that have linguistic background, have a different cut at the explanation of discourse. He uses text to refer to a written language or he record the language of a communication in the event and discourse to refer to the assumption of the event in the context in which the event appears. Nunan explained the difference between text analysis and discourse analysis is that the prior of the study of formal linguistic tools that divide a text from random sentences, while the latter is the study of such tools but it is conducted by the researcher with the intention of coming to perceive the purposes and the functions of the discourse likewise the context in which it establish (p.20). From here we know that discourse analysis can involve language as it is being used, while text analysis would be

concerned to the patterns and regularities that appear in written language, such as phonemic and grammatical analysis.

Discourse analysis will focus on patterns and orderliness in language and also with the people who use the language (especially on what they mean and their purposes in which language is use in the context). Nunan (1993) stated about discourse analysis, the ultimate aim of discourse analysis is to show how the linguistic element found in language which enables the language users to communicating with others accordance to the context (p. 20). Therefore, Nunan interest in linguistic elements leads him to study, between other things of linguistic devices such as pronoun usage and conjunctions which enable people to build explicit relationship between entities and events in their discourse with each other in different context (p.57). Also, he is interested in analyzing how smaller components of language can contribute to broader social meanings. Thus, Nunan research spans two levels. First, he divides discourse into it is component parts. For the second, he define at how the parts contribute the formation of meanings in the social contexts.

Although they commonly use different terms, other researchers commonly make the same kind of characteristics among analyzing part of language versus broader issues of meaning when analyzing their positions. Stubbs (1983) points out that there are differences between language analysis below the level of a sentence in a language is above the sentence or above the clause (p.1). Schiffrin (1994) proposes about the distinction levels of discourse is between (formalist and structuralist) and functionalist view of a language. According to Van Dijk (1997) as a functionalist view, he stated that the levels of discourse analysis is in who uses language, how, why, and when (p. 3). From here, we know that a greatly functional approach is focusing on how dialogue works and what a

particular event is doing or (how it works) in it is direct communicative contexts.

So far, we know that the researchers concerned primarily to the language use whose main interest focus on what is said or written. Nonetheless, some analysis focuses on the kind of discourse which involves the ideas or the philosophies that propagated by a group of people. Some researchers call them as a critical linguist or critical discourse analysis (CDA). According to Fowler (1996) stated that critical discourse analysis (CDA) means an analysis of public discourse which arranged to get the ideology coded implicitly behind the obvious propositions, to examine to it specifically in the context of the social formations (p. 3). In the CDA, the focus is not totally on the actual words written or spoken of a language but also on the representations explicit of the words in a language. This kind of analysis might study CDA far above the level of a sentence, because it may less affected with what is spoken or written and more focus to the broader message, philosophy, idea conveyed and ideology. CDA might reveal the particular views of gender or race misrepresent or distort characteristics of the people that represented.

The main goal of critical discourse analysis is to expose the misrepresentation or distortion in order to defamiliarize the public broader with the negative representation. Caldas Couldhard and Coulhard (1966) stated that discourse as a prior instrument of a power and control the critical discourse analysis has endured the indeed part of their efficient role to investigate, reveal, and clarify how big the power and the discriminatory value are write out and mediated through the linguistic system. CDA is essentially political in intent with the practioners acting upon the world in order to transform it. Therefore, CDA can create a world where people are not discriminated against because of color, sex, age, creed, or social class (p. xi).

Parker (1992) a social psychologist, proffer a related kind of critical discourse analysis, his interest is on the role of discourse analysis in the transformation and reproduction of the meanings. Both facilitate and limit of discourses are enable and constrain to what can be said by whom, when, and where (p. xiiii). He explain discourse as a set of evidences which constitute an object (p. 3 and p.5). He endeavors to reveal the problematic views as such. He states the case greatly, maintaining that the moral or the political psychology is worse than useless (p. 2). Surrounded by critical discourse analysis, the term text has more complex meaning which has a lot of different explanation in every context than discourse. It is usually defined as written records of a discourse. Parker (1992) explained that to make discourse analysis should be enforced beyond spoken interaction or written forms is by open up the field of meanings by saying that discourse can be find at the work in texts. Text here means as eliminated issues of meaning that produced by any form of words which can be given an interpretable gloss (p. 6).

Parker would prepare an example that useful to clarify his meaning. He gives an example by describing an electronic game that shows a small moving female figure waving a crucifix at ghosts climb down from the top of screen to the ghosts' graves. Each ghost which is block up from landing by the crucifix-waving man is swallowed accidentally in flames. And the players will be awarded ten points. That is an example of Parker's view of a text which conveys Crishtian discourse. Interestingly, we can see that Parker's example also develop the meaning of discourse to as a part of the means of communication in the written forms and spoken interaction from the language use.

5. Language and Reality in Discourse Analysis

Another important distinction to be mentioned is discourse analysis evidently vary on how they convience between a language and the reality. Here, we will use the term realist and anti-realist to mention or refer to the two conflicting positions with recognition to their subject matter. In stating the difference precisely, we should identify the crucial issue. Nonetheless, as it is commonly the case with brevity, we would have a risk that is oversimplifying at the value of the loss of finer characteristics. Here we should attempt only to familiarize some of the issues involved.

Critical discourse analysis is the realist one. CDA maintain their certain descriptions or constructions from the reality which more accurate and preferable to others, but it is not universally valid and perfectly accurate. The important of this view is their idea about the possibilities to replace the cruel, unreliable constructions or representations to be more accurate representations with the fairer. Remember that it can be happen if there is a real reality which can get any illustration of it that can be seen as accurate or inaccurate.

According to Potter (1996) and Willig (1999), analysists, who are antirealist, they advocate that the existence in the generally understood meaning of the term does not occur. What exist are the descriptions, the constructions, and the representations which cannot be judged to the either true or false. Willig (1999) explaining her proposes that the conceptualize language of discourse analysists is as constitutive of involvement rather than representational or reasoning of the experiences. They argue about the linguistic categories that we use in order to draw the realities which are not in fact the reflections of the intrinsic and explaining features of entities. On the second thought, they would take into the objects they would

like to illustrate. There is constantly more than one way to describe something and it will be the choice on how to use words to combine perceptions and the experiences will give rise to a distinct version of the events and of the reality. In this sense, theorists conclude that language can be said to construct the reality (p. 2).

According to Wood and Kroger (2000) reality is a composition which made in a language. Crucially impaired, antirealists claim that there are any universal standards to justice the accuracy of any particular representation or construction. For example: the conventional assumption is that meaning resides in the movements. We supposed to describe the meaning properly. But, the movements have no inherent necessary meanings, instead, they can be predeterminded multiple meanings by the distinction of the interpreters (by the same of presenter on different occasions) and from meanings that can modify across the situations (p. 12). Having briefly described about the range of realist and antirealist positions, we would like to clarify about our own positions here.

First, it is crucial to analyze among physical events or objects in the world and the meanings of those events or objects. For example: someone is supposed to open the door when there is a person want to entering the room . It is possible to conclude that this event is real in the sense of that movement happened and the door should be open in that time. Nonetheless, this movement can take around any meaning, depending on the context and on the execution. It may means that a person who opens the door is declaring an aim to carry out a requested message or an intention to exit from the relationship (such as he or she is just letting in fresh air completely protesting about someone's activity which is smoking, it means that he or she is advertising that the ensuing of the conversation is to be in a public rather than "behind close door" and so forth).

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Another example, when a spectator takes an expletive in a courtroom, the diffuse performance changes the status of consecutive testimony. If the witness lies, then, he or she might be prosecuted and imprisoned for false oath which is a penalty that does not occur in other settings. Thus, the expletive of the meaning and the result are we could fight effectively though it may definitely be the social construction.

6. It's Game Time!

Find 10 words that are related to discourse analysis!

| L	I	N	G	U	I	S	T	I	C	S	R	J	V
Z	T	M	C	O	N	T	E	X	T	T	A	U	M
A	R	H	T	A	C	D	T	Z	L	F	N	Z	J
D	R	D	T	E	X	T	V	X	A	P	A	A	O
F	D	A	S	S	A	A	F	H	N	O	L	K	T
A	A	T	G	D	Q	W	E	A	G	I	Y	P	D
A	S	G	C	D	I	S	C	O	U	R	S	E	W
M	G	R	A	M	M	A	R	I	A	N	I	B	Q
N	D	A	T	A	Q	W	D	A	G	M	S	C	A
C	A	M	X	A	C	V	F	R	E	V	B	B	Z
C	O	M	M	U	N	I	C	A	T	I	O	N	U
O	Z	A	G	B	P	O	U	Y	V	X	Z	C	K
P	A	R	T	Y	R	R	Z	V	B	N	O	M	J

7. Summarizing

- Discourse analysis is a research method that studies spoken or written language in relation to its social contexts which specifies the agent of the information.
- The importances of studying discourse analysis are for academic application, real world application, and to

distinguish between discourse analysis and grammar analysis.

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┌──────────────────────────────┐
│   The importances of studying │
│       discourse analysis      │
└──────────────────────────────┘
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For academic application	For real world application	To distinguish between discourse and grammar analysis
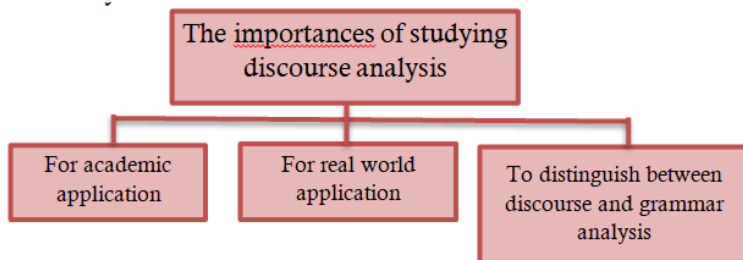
- There are three kinds of discourse analysis data. They are face to face dialogues, communicating through letters, and mediated communication.

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┌──────────────────────────┐
│ Discourse analysis data   │
└──────────────────────────┘
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Face to face	Through letter	Mediated communication
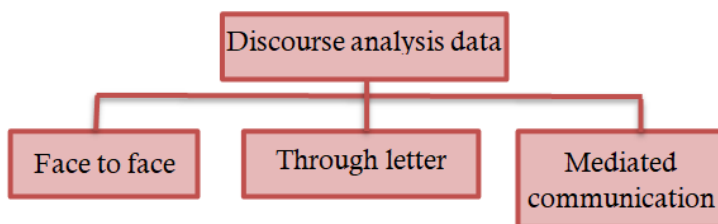
8. Exercises

Exercise 1

1. Define what discourse analysis is by using your own words!

2. Make two examples of discourse analysis in both spoken and written discourses!

   a) Spoken discourse, it may: conversation, storytelling, debate, spoken announcement, spoken invitation, warning etc.

b) Written discourse, it may: magazine, newspaper content, announcement, memo, letters, leaflet, advertisement, etc.
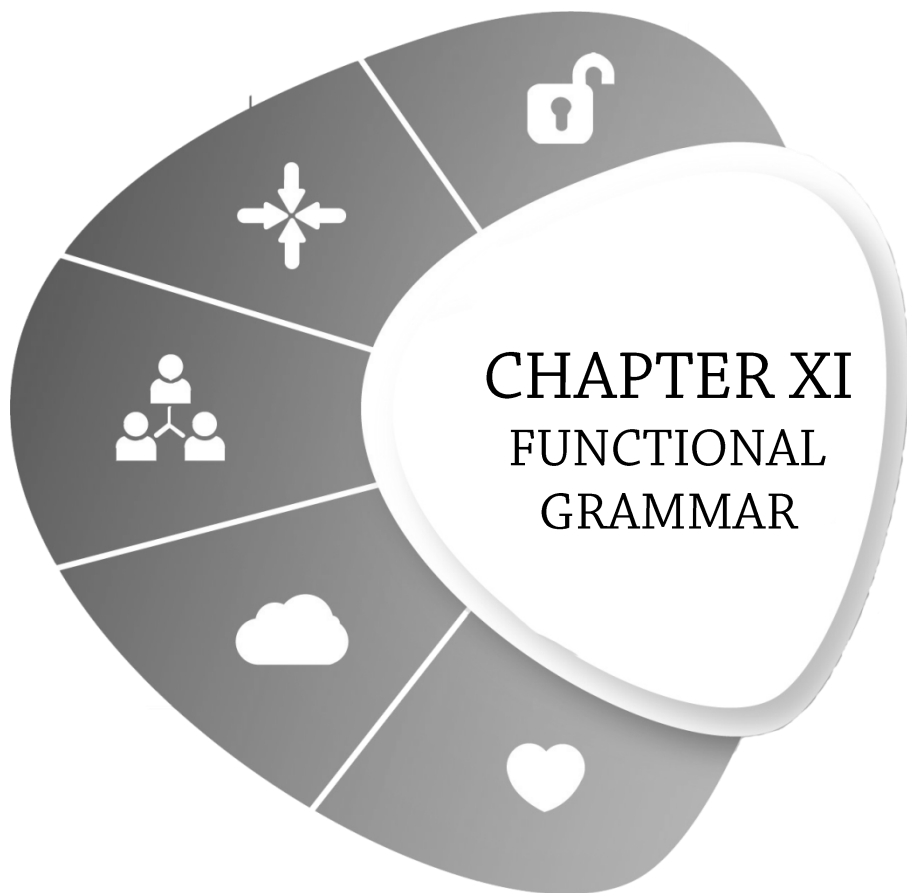
Exercise 2

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!

2. Scan the barcode below!

3. Watch the video!
4. Find news in a newspaper!
5. Analyze that news as the video you have watched!

~Good luck!~

CHAPTER XI
FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR

1. What is Functional Grammar?

Did you know what grammar is? Well, grammar is the study of how sentences are organized. There are so many types of grammar like traditional grammar, formal grammar, and functional grammar. In this chapter we are going to talk about functional grammar.

Most of us study grammar to memorize some rules in it. However, by only memorizing rules in grammar, it cannot help us improve our communication very well. Therefore, to improve our communication we should study functional grammar.

Functional grammar was developed by Michael Halliday in the 1960s. It focuses on how we use grammar to communicate in every situation, both spoken and written English. So by learning functional grammar we can know how to speak and write appropriately and effectively. Functonal grammar has six concepts. They are:

a) Functions and systems

As you have read before, the functional grammar is used to communicate in a specific situation. Its system is like a computer program. When we want to run computer program, we have to choose the menu. For the example, look at the following language menu!

Statement
Question
Exclamation
Command
Suggestion

When we want to express our idea in a spoken language, we have to decide whether we want to use a statement, question, exclamation, command, or suggestion.

b) Hierarchy of linguistic units

"The black cats are eating very fast in the kitchen", the word cats has two morphemes, cat and -s. The word "eating" has two moprhemes as well, eat and - ing. Three words, "the", "black", and "cats", are called nominal group. We have four word groups in this clause, they are nominal group (the black cats), verbal group (are eating), adverbial group (very fast), and prepositional group (in the kithen). From that clause, we can know that larger units may be formed from smaller units and smaller units may form larger units. In funtional grammar this hierarchical relationship can be seen in the following model:
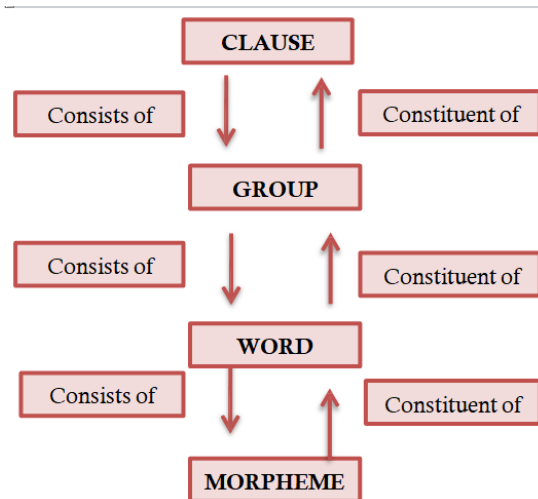
From that model we can know that in functional grammar, a clause is the highest grammatical unit that is formed of one or more groups, every group is formed of one or more words, and every word is formed of one or more morpemes, here the morpheme be the minimal unit.

c) Clause and sentence

Some people are still confused with how to distinguish clause and sentence. In traditional grammar, a sentence is a grammatical unit that is formed from one or more clauses. It is also divided into three kinds, simple, compound, and complex sentences.

According to Halliday (1994), a clause is a composite entity that consists of three structure dimensions, they are theme, subject, and actor. A theme is the point Each structure dimension has different functions. A subject is is the guarantee of the exchange. An actor is is the active participant in a clause. Halliday named them, "clause as message", "clause as exchange", "clause as representation". To make you more understand the difference between sentence and clause, look at the following table!

Example	Clause	Sentence
He is a smart student.	1	1
Hi!	1	1
He did not go to school because he was sick.	2	1
She came to the class, sat on her chair, and read her book.	3	1

From those examples we can conclude that every sentence can be formed of one or more clauses, but every clause cannot be formed of one or more sentences.

d) Theme

In functional grammar, the theme is the unit that serves the point of the message departure. Usually the theme comes first in a clause.

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- That blue book is mine
- This morning I hit him
- Those girls are beautiful

The rest of message of the clause is called rheme. Thus, the clause as message is formed of theme + rheme. The theme is placed in the first position of the clause and the rheme always follows it. look at the following examples!

Theme	Rheme
This morning	I had breakfast
Maya's mother	are beautiful
Have you	studied for today's test?
Crying	is all I can do

From those examples we can conclude that the theme is the first group of the clause and the rheme is group(s) that follows it.

Theme can have three stages, they are ideational, interpersonal, and textual stages.
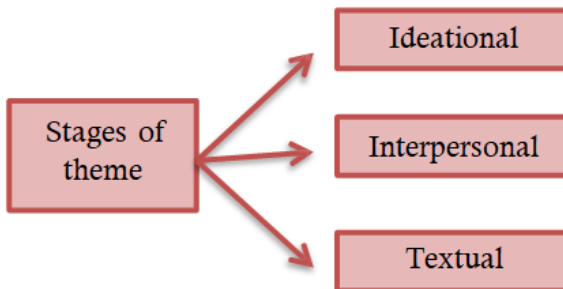
- Ideational theme

  This stage is also known as topical theme. This theme comes in the first group of clause as the expression of representational meaning. It can be participant, circumstance, information about time, place, etc.

  Arrietty is a beautiful girl (participant)

  In 2000, I was born (information about time)

  This stage is divided into two kinds, marked and unmarked ideational theme. Marked ideational themes usually exist in declarative clauses, but the theme should not be the subject of the clause. If the theme is the subject of the clause, the theme is unmarked ideational theme.

  (unmarked because the theme is a subject)

Unmarked theme	Rheme
He	hit her this morning

  (marked theme because the theme is not a subject)

Marked	Rheme	
	Subject	
Someday	you	will love me

  Unmarked theme usually exist in imperative clauses and clauses that start with "don't + you".

  (marked ideational theme)

Unmarked theme	Rheme
Do	your homework!
Don't forget	To bring your book!
Let's	Go to the beach!

- Interpersonal

  This theme includes one ore more finite (usually realized by an auxiliary verb), wh- element, vocative (identifying the adressee in the exchange), and adjuct (usually realized by an adverb).

(the finite)

Theme 1 (interpersonal)	Theme 2 (ideational)	Rheme
Can	you	help me?

(a wh- element)

The	Rheme
What	are you doing here?

(vocative)

Theme 1 (interpersonal)	Theme 2 (ideational)	Rheme
Arrietty	you	are amazing

(an adjunct)

Theme 1 (interpersonal)	Theme 2 (ideational)	Rheme
Unfortunately	his mother	did not believe him

- Textual

  This theme comes before interpersonal theme. usually this theme is a conjunction, relative, conjunctive, or continuative.

Theme			Rheme
textual	interpersonal	topical	
After that	Arrietty	he	proposed me

e) Mood

Mood is a system in which interpersonal meanings are realized in the dialogue. It consists of two parts, they are the subject (a nominal group) and the finite operator (a verbal group), the reminder of those parts is called residue.

Speech function	Typical mood
Statement	Declarative
Question	Interrogative
Command	Imperative
Offer	Modulated interrogative

Answer	Elliptical declarative
Acknowledgement	Elliptical declarative
Accept	Minor clause
Compliance	

Look at the following examples!

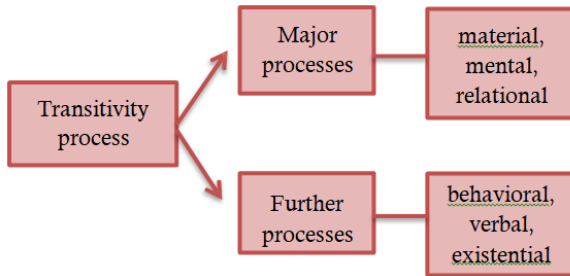| Clause	Mood
I go to that market every morning.	Declarative
Did he forget o bring his umberella?	Interrogative: Yes/No question
What are you doing here?	Interrogative: Wh-question
Don't forget to do your homework!	Imperative

We can make the diagram of mood system like this one:
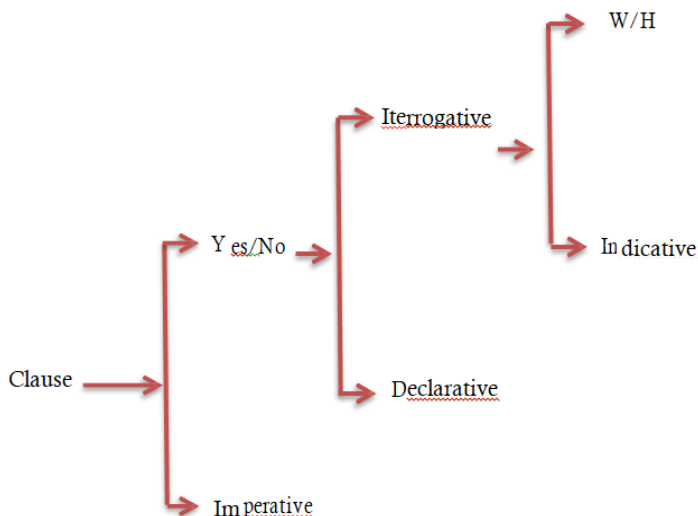
f) Transitivity

In traditional grammar usually we are familiar with transitivity in distinguishing whether verbs should be followed by objects or not. Unlike traditional grammar, in functional grammar transitivity is a system to describe

the whole clause. There are six process of transitivity system, they are material, mental, relational, behavioral, verbal, and existential.

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┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────┐      ┌──────────────┐
│              │      │  Major   │      │  material,   │
│              │─────▶│ processes│─────▶│   mental,    │
│ Transitivity │      │          │      │  relational  │
│   process    │      └──────────┘      └──────────────┘
│              │      ┌──────────┐      ┌──────────────┐
│              │─────▶│ Further  │─────▶│ behavioral,  │
└──────────────┘      │ processes│      │   verbal,    │
                      │          │      │  existential │
                      └──────────┘      └──────────────┘
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- Material process
  A material process is a process of doing and the main participant is the actor. There are six participants in the material process, they are actor (the one who performs the action), goal (the thing that is affected by the action), scope (the thing that is not affected by the action), attribute (a quality attribued to an entity), client (for whom the action happens), and recipient (the receiver of things).

- Mental process
  Mental process is a process of sense, so cannot see it, but feel. There are two participants in a mental process, they are senser (the one who feels) and phenomenon (that is felt by the senser).

- Relational process
  Relational process is a process that is related to being, possessing, or becoming. There should be two participants in this process because the relational process cannot be done alone.

- Behavioral process
  Behavioral process is a hybrid process (material + mental processes). Therefore, it is intermediate between

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material and mental processes. This process only has one participant.

- Verbal process
  Verbal process is a process that includes all modes of expressing and indicating. There are three participants in this process, they are sayer (the addresser), receiver (the addressee), and verbiage (the content of what is said).

- Existential process
  This process is easy to recognize because this process usually starts with there as a subject.

Look at the following examples of each transitivity process!

Transitivity process	Example
Material	That girl read a novel yesterday.
Mental	He loves her.
Relational	The winner is her.
Behavioral	He cried last night.
Verbal	She asked him a question.
Existensial	There is a car.

2. Functional Grammar Vs Traditional Grammar

Most of us must be familiar with traditional grammar. So, did you know what the differences between traditional and functional grammar? Traditional grammar is based on Latin and Greek grammar and it was declined in 18th century. At that time, many people studied this type of grammar to impove their reading and writing skills, while functional grammar was developed by Michael Halliday in 1960s. Traditional grammar only focuses on the theories or rules in grammar and identifying word types in a sentence like nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs,

etc. This type of grammar also gives main emphasis to meanings. Unlike traditional grammar, fuctional grammar focuses on how we use grammar to communicate with others by spoken or written language and it also does not care about meanings since meanings are complex phenomena. Thus, traditional and functional grammar are different from each other since in traditional grammar we can only use grammar in written language and in functional grammar we can use grammar for communicative purpose by spoken or writtern language.

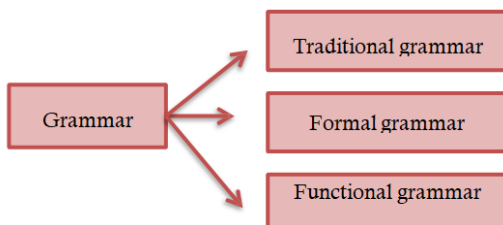| Traditional grammar	Functional grammar
Based on Latin and Greek grammar	Developed by Michael Halliday
Declined in 18th century	Developed in 1960s
Focuses on theories	Focuses on communicative purpose
Gives main emphasis to meanings	Does not care about meaning
Old system	New system

## 3. It's Game Time!

Find 10 words that are related to functional grammar!

| A	I	C	F	A	I	I	K	C	S	S	Z	K	H
I	D	T	E	X	T	U	A	L	E	I	P	B	I
N	E	T	G	D	A	G	B	B	N	C	D	L	N
T	A	R	A	B	U	R	M	A	T	A	K	B	T
E	T	A	G	I	U	A	M	A	E	F	H	O	E
R	I	N	H	Q	A	M	K	T	N	G	P	O	R
P	O	S	T	H	E	M	E	R	C	C	O	C	P
E	N	I	A	Y	U	A	T	R	E	F	L	H	Z
R	A	T	Z	H	T	R	Q	M	O	O	D	T	X
S	L	I	N	G	U	I	S	T	I	C	S	G	Z
O	P	V	Q	Q	R	Z	A	E	R	T	S	G	G
N	I	I	Q	S	U	O	R	X	E	D	D	E	H
A	U	T	W	A	N	P	P	T	W	W	O	R	D
L	Y	Y	R	F	M	V	M	U	L	M	B	W	I
Q	W	R	R	E	S	O	N	A	L	B	F	E	P

4. Summarizing

- There are so many types of grammar like traditional grammar, formal grammar, and functional grammar.

Grammar → Traditional grammar
Grammar → Formal grammar
Grammar → Functional grammar

- Functional grammar has six concepts, they are functions and systems, hierarchy of linguistic units, clause and sentence, theme, mood, transitivity.
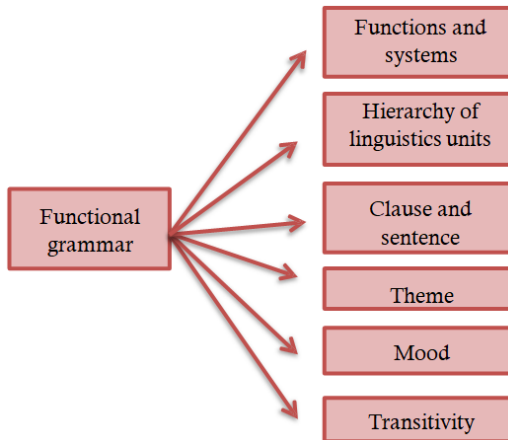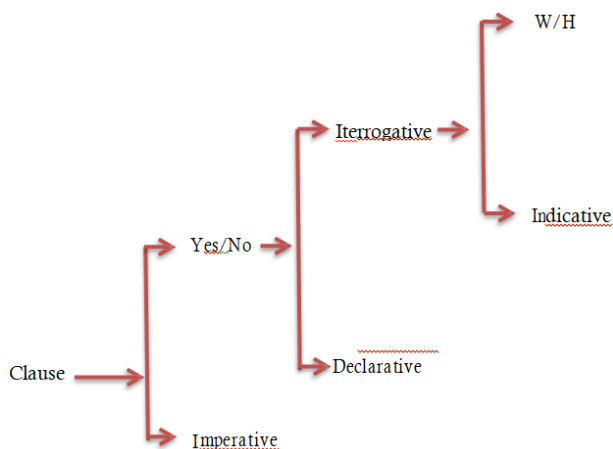

- This is the hierarchical relationship between clause, group, word, and morpheme:
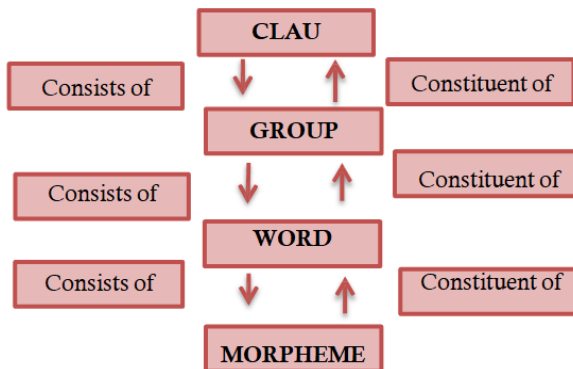
- Every sentence can be formed of one or more clauses, but every clause cannot be formed of one or more sentences.

- Theme can have three stages, they are ideational, interpersonal, and textual stages.
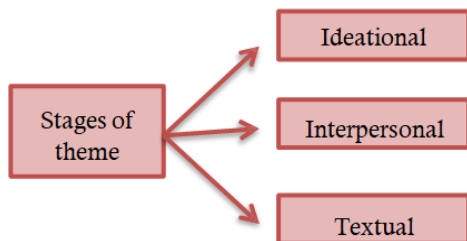
- We can make the diagram of mood system like this one:

- There are six process of transitivity system, they are material, mental, relational, behavioral, verbal, and existential.
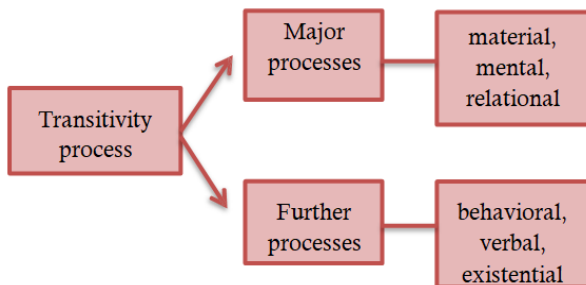
- The following table is the differences between traditional and functional grammar:

Traditional grammar	Functional grammar
Based on Latin and Greek grammar	Developed by Michael Halliday
Declined in 18th century	Developed in 1960s
Focuses on theories	Focuses on communicative purpose
Gives main emphasis to meanings	Does not care about meaning
Old system	New system

5. Exercises

Exercise 1

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!

2. Scan the barcode below, or you can read the following text!

3. Analyze the story by deciding how many clauses each sentence has!

4. Don't forget to write each sentence's type (simple/compound/complex)!

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Exercise 2

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed barcode scanner on Play Store!

2. Scan the barcode below, or you can read the following text!

3. Analyze the story by deciding the theme and the rheme of each sentence!

4. Decide the transitivity process that is used in each sentence!

~Good luck!~

CHAPTER XII
CORPUS, GRAMMAR &MORPHOLOGY

1. What is Corpus Linguistic

The study of language that is based on the large collections of the language use in real life which is stored in corpora or corpuses which can be defined as the computerized   databases that are created for linguistic research is called as corpus linguistic. Simply, it is called as corpus-based studies. In the classroom, corpus linguistic methodology is suitable for college students in all levels because this is the basic study of language that only need very little expertise that is learned to start. Corpus can also be defined as a large, principled collection of the natural examples of language that is stored electronically.

After knowing what corpus linguistic is, now we will learn what corpus linguistic is not. It is also important to know what corpus linguistic is not. There are three facts that can't be the definition of corpus. The first one is corpus linguistic can't provide the negative evidence. So, corpus can't tell us what possible and impossible or correct and incorrect in language. Corpus only tells us what is or is not present in corpus itself. The second one is corpus linguistic can't tell us why it can be like that or this, it can only tell us what it is. To know why, the users of corpus can only use their institution.

The third one is corpus can't provide all possible language in a time. Same as its meaning, "a large, principled collection of the natural examples of language that is stored electronically", it means that the language which goes into corpus linguistic is not random but planned. But, still it can be the guarantee that corpus can present all languages, even we know that corpus is large and principled. So, even we know corpus consists of billion words, still all examples of language use may not be present.

2. What is Grammar?

Grammar can be used to refer to the books that consist of the descriptions of structure in a language. Also, it can refer to the knowledge which the native speakers have or a set of rules that is developed to control the certain aspect of usage of native speakers. Also, grammar can refer to a set of rules that is usually taught in a school. Grammar itself consists of basic axioms such as articles, adjectives, verb tenses, and more. So, went we want to learn any language, we must learn its grammar too because learning language without grammar makes no sense. Our goal when learning language is to be able to communicate with other people. To communicate properly and effectively, we need grammar because the relationship between speakers and listeners, writers and readers is like a system in order to understand each other.

The word grammar is taken from the Greek which means "*craft of letters*". Grammar is actually something that automatically we learn in our first days or weeks of life. So, the effective way to learn grammar is live in the native speaker's country because as we hear the language is spoken around us, in that time we also learn the rules of that language. But don't worry, you can do the other things to learn grammar, from books especially. The key to learn grammar is use that grammar in your daily conversations. Make it as your new habit so expertise it is not impossible.

In grammar, we learn about tenses. Do you know the future tense? As we know, we often use be going to or will to make a future sentence, for example: I will go to your house tomorrow, or I am going to the beach next week. But, have you used the present continuous for the future condition? Now, we will discuss the present continuous for future use. This is very common to use present continuous when you want to talk about

future, but this is only for the arrangements that are planned. If you have planned something, you can say like these:

a) I'm having dinner my Anne tonight.
b) We aren't seeing our friends this weekend.
c) What are you doing on Sunday?

The sentence a) is talking about her/his plan to have dinner with Anne. From that sentence, we know that 'I' in that time is not having dinner with Anne yet, but he/she has a plan to have dinner with Anne tonight. The sentence b) is talking about their plan to not seeing their friends this weekend. Maybe they have something to do so that they can't see their friends on the weekend. Sentence c) is talking about what someone will do on Sunday.

So, you can use these words to make a future plans using the present continuous:

a) Tomorrow, this weekend, tonight.
b) Next week/month/year
c) This spring/summer/winter/fall
d) On Sunday/Monday/Tuesday/etc.
e) Next Sunday/Monday/Tuesday/etc.

3. The Relationship between Morphology and Grammar

Grammar itself is made up from morphology and syntax. Morphology is the study of the words' structure while syntax is the study of sentences' structure. Grammar is the study of the words' formation and structure and how to create phrases, clauses, and sentences from those words. So, from here we know that morphology is the part of grammar.

As we know together, that to be + V-ing is the progressive form of the sentence, for example: *Charlotte is learning in her room right now*. In grammar, it can be V-ing

because verb appears after to be. In morphology, you will learn how verb can become v-ing when appearing after to be. Also, when we want to make a past tense from present tense, we will change the verb from the present form become the past form. For example: *Michael and Jack, my little twin babies, sleep on the bedroom* become *Michael and Jack, my little twin babies, slept on the bedroom.*

That change will be learned in grammar. When you learned morphology, you will know how *sleep* can become *slept*. This verb is called as irregular verb. Do you know that 70% of verb is irregular one, so this is very important to learn the irregular verbs. Maybe all of you feel difficult to memorize the irregular verb, so here we will discuss the tips for learning irregular verbs.

a) All 3 forms identical

This is the easiest group of irregular verbs because there is no change of this verb. So, this group of verbs has the same form as in present, past, or past participle. They are: split, spread, shut, set, quit, put, let, hurt, hit, fit, cut, burst, bet, cast, cost.

b) Identical present and past participle

This group of verb has the same form except the past form:

Present	Past	Past Participle
Run	Ran	Run
Come	Came	Come
Become	Became	Become

c) -N in the past participle

This group is a little more complicated, they have -N for the past participle form:

The past and past participle with 'O'

Present	Past	Past Participle
Forget	Forgot	Forgotten
Get	Got	Gotten

Steal	Stole	Stolen

The past form with 'O'

Present	Past	Past Participle
Write	Wrote	Written
Ride	Rode	Ridden
Drive	Drove	Drive

'-ew' in past form and '-own' in past participle

Present	Past	Past Participle
Grow	Grew	Grown
Fly	Flew	Flown
Throw	Threw	Thrown

Others

Present	Past	Past participle
Fall	Fell	Fallen
Eat	Ate	Eaten
Give	Gave	Given

d) Vowel changes

Long 'e' becomes short 'e'

Present	Past	Past Participle
Sleep	Slept	Slept
Lead	Led	Led
Feel	Felt	Felt

'ea' is pronounced differently

Present	Past	Past Participle
Dream	Dreamt	Dreamt
Hear	Heard	Heard
Read	Read	Read

Long 'i' become 'ou'

Present	Past	Past
Find	Found	Found
Grind	Ground	Ground
Bind	Bound	Bound

Short 'i' becomes 'u'

Present	Past	Past
Dig	Dug	Dug
Swing	Swung	Swung
Spin	Spun	Spun

'-ell' become '-old'

Present	Past	Past Participle
Tell	Told	Told
Sell	Sold	Sold

'-ought' and 'aught'

Present	Past	Past Participle
Buy	Bought	Bought
Teach	Taught	Taught
Fight	Fought	Fought

e)   3 different vowels

This group has the different vowels in each form but still there is a pattern.

Present	Past	Past Participle
Begin	Began	Begun
Ring	Rang	Rung
Swim	Swam	Swum

f)   Really irregular verbs

This group consists of some of the most commonly used verb in English, so make sure you have memorized all of them.

Present	Past	Past Participle
Be	Was/were	Been
Go	Went	Gone
Have	Had	Had
Do	Did	Done
Make	Made	Made

4. It's Game Time!
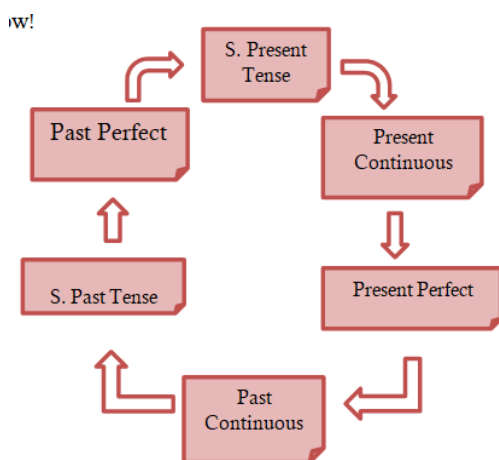
I am the Master

The purpose of this game is to make the students able to think fast in changing the tenses. Also make them more understand about how to change one tense to the other tense.

Tools:

1. Board
2. Paper
3. Glue
4. Ball

Instructions:

1. Write down the tenses on the paper like the picture below!

2. The teacher makes a sentence using one of those tenses, e.g. I sit on the chair (S. Present Tense).
3. After that, the teacher can throw a ball to the students.

4. The students who gets the ball must change that sentence into S. continues tense. After that, she/he can throw the ball to his/her friends.

5. Again, the one who gets the ball must change that sentence into present perfect tense. If he/she can't answer it, she/he must stand up.

6. Continue this process until the last tense. The teacher can start it from any tenses, but she/he must follow the arrow. For example: the teacher starts from simple continuous, then the students change the tense into present perfect, then past continuous, then past tense, past perfect, and the last is present tense.

7. Do it until we find the winner, the student that is

8. sitting. The winner can say, "I am the master".

5. Summarizing

• The study of language that is based on the large collections of the language use in real life which is stored in *corpora* or *corpuses* which can be defined as the computerized databases that are created for linguistic research is called as corpus linguistic, while grammar is a set of rules that is usually taught in a school. Morphology and syntax are the part of grammar.
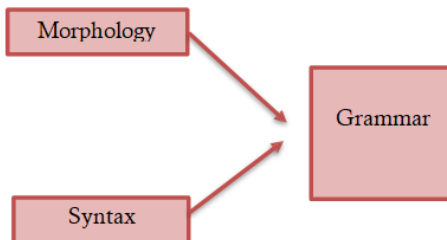
- While morphology is the study of word's structure, syntax is the study of sentence's structure.
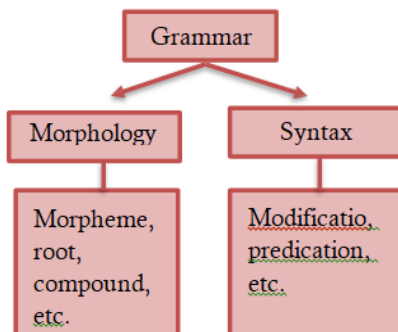
6. Exercises

Exercise 1

Instructions:

1. Fill the blank by using the correct answer!

The Elephant Rope

A gentleman (is, walk) ……. ……. through an elephant camp, and he (spot) ……. that the elephants (are, not, be, keep) …… …… ……. ……. in cages or held by the use of chains. All that was holding them back from escaping the camp, was a small piece of rope tied to one of their legs. As the man gazed upon the elephants, he (is) …… completely confused asked to why the elephants (do, not) ……. ……. just use their strength to (break) …… the rope and (escape)……. the camp.

They (can) …… easily (have, do) ……. ……. so, but instead, they did not try to at all. Curious and wanting to know the answer, he (ask) ……. a trainer nearby why the

elephants were just standing there and never tried to escape. The trainer (reply) ...., "When they are very young and much smaller, we use the same size rope to tie them and at that age, it's enough to hold them. As they grow up, they are conditioned to believe they cannot break away. They believe the rope can still hold them, so they never try to break free." The only reason that the elephants were not (break)....... free and (escape) .... from the camp was that over time they adopted the belief that it just (is) .... not possible.

2. After completing the passage above, read it again and do the exercise below!

Choose five sentences then change it into simple present tense (positive, negative, and interrogative form) and write them below!

1. ……………………………………………………

(
+
)

(-
)

(?
)

2. ……………………………………………………

(+)

(-
)

(?
)

3. ………………………………………………………

(+)

(-)

(?)

4. ………………………………………………………

(+)

(-)

(?)

5. ………………………………………………………
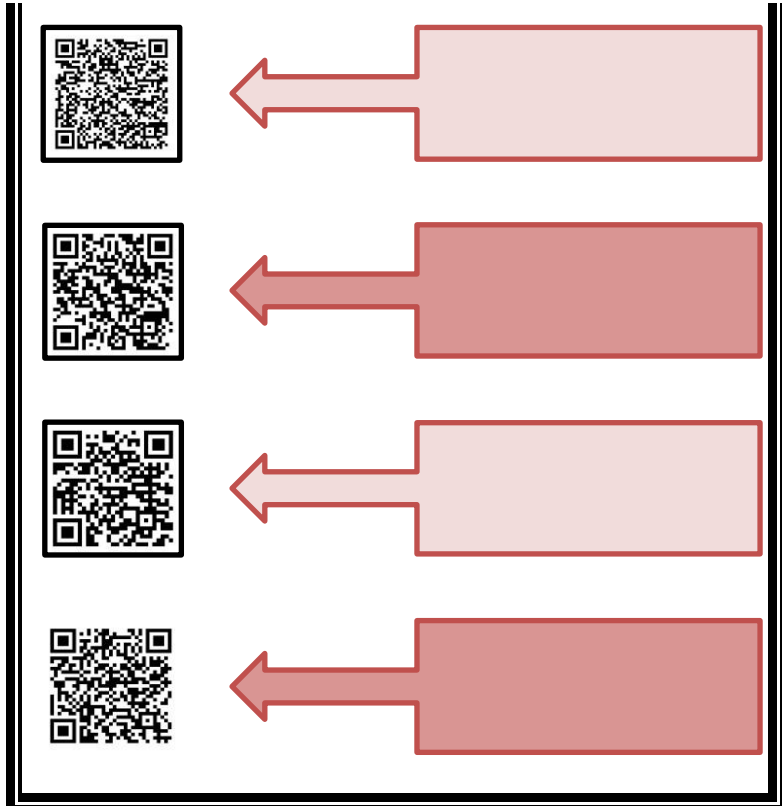
(+)

(-)

(?)

Exercise 2

Instructions:

1. Make sure you have installed the barcode scanner on Play Store!

2. Read all of the texts carefully!

3. Do the exercise below!

Decide what tenses that mostly used in those texts are!

~Good luck!~

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