



INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR Proceeding

**“ Creative and Innovative Language
Learning in the ICT Era Contributing
to the Development of Indonesia ”**

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ENGLISH WORD FORMATION PROCESSES IN GENERATIVE MORPHOLOGY

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1. Introduction

This paper is concerned with English word formation processes in generative morphology study. In other words, this paper deals with the issue of English word formation in the study of generative morphology. Morphology is a branch of linguistics concerned with the study and analysis of internal structure, forms and classes of words in a language. Crystal (1989:90) states that morphology is the branch of linguistics studying the structure of words. Morphology is also called the study of morphemes and their different forms (allomorphs) and the way they combine in word formation. Bauer (1983:33) morphology, an area of linguistics dealing with the internal structure of word forms.

The aim of this paper is to emphasize the issue on English word formation processes in the study of generative morphology. The basic approach to English word formation in this paper based on the theory of word formation rules (WFR's) in generative morphology developed by Aronoff (1976). According to Aronoff WFR's, which are "regular" rules can only derived meaningful words from meaningful bases it follows that only words can be the basic units of Aronoff's theory of morphology. It is known as *The Word Based Hypothesis* (WBH). This theory is formulated in the following terms, Aronoff (1976:21) in Scalise (1984:40): *All regular word-formation processes are word based. A new word is formed by applying a regular rule to a single already existing word. Both the new word and the existing one are members of major lexical categories.*

The hypothesis makes a number of claims:

1. The bases of WFR's are words.
2. These words must be existing words. Thus, a possible but non existent word, according the hypothesis, cannot be the base of a WFR.
3. WFR's can take as a base only a single word, no more (e.g. phrases) and no less (e.g. bound forms).
4. And 5. Both the input and the output of a WFR must be members of a major lexical category.

The following is presented a list of possible inputs and outputs in English word formation, For example:

Input: pattern formation:	N	→	N	king+dom
	V	→	N	invert+ion

The output of WFR is a structure with a label bracketing, when both the category of the input and the category of the output are specified along with the boundary required by the rule. An output such as the word *kingdom* and *inversion* can thus represented in the following rules.

Output: pattern formation: [[king]_N + dom]_N
[[invert]_N + ion]_N

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The subject matter of English word formation processes discussed in this paper dealing with the notion of affixes and compounding. Specifically the subject matter of English word formation processes concerned with the analysis on the aspects of derivational and inflectional patterns of morphological process, as well as compounding.

The data of English word formation processes in this paper based on the writer's critical books review on morphology study, namely *Generative Morphology*, written by Scalise (1984), *English Word Formation*, written by Bauer (1983), *Understanding Morphology*, written by Haspelmath (2002) *Morphology* written by Katamba (1994), and *The Grammar Of Words : An Introduction to Morphology*, written by Geert Booij (2007).

2. Words and Word- Formation

Word-formation is the process of morphological study. The study of word- formation is of central interest to theoretical linguists because it may generate new words in a language. Interest in word formation has probably determined on other aspects of linguistics viewed from different points of view, such as from a phonological points of view and from syntactic points of view and from semantic point of view. Bauer (1983:5) states that in recent years, word formation has been considered by various linguists from different points of view: from phonological points of view (Halle: 1973 ; Lightner, 1975); from a syntactic points of view (Jackendoff, 1975; Roeper and Siegel, 1978); and from a semantic point of view (Leech, 1974; Lyons, 1977).

Word-formation is traditionally divided into two kinds: derivation and compounding. Whereas in compounding the constituents of a word are themselves lexemes, this is not the case in derivation. For instance, *-ity* is not a lexeme, and hence TAXABILITY is a case of derivation. The word INCOME TAX, on the other hand, is a compound since both INCOME and TAX are lexemes. Changing the word class of a word, as happened in the creation of the verb *to tax* from the noun *tax*, is called conversion. And may be subsumed under derivation. (Booij, 2007 : 5). This quotation implies that word formation is traditionally characterized by two components namely derivation and compounding. Whereas in compounding the constituent of a word are themselves lexeme. The word INCOME TAX is to compound because both INCOME and TAX are lexemes. But suffix *-ity* is not a lexeme, therefore the word TAXABILITY is a case of derivation because it changes the word class of a word, become noun.

Bauer (1983:33) states that morphology, is an area of linguistics, dealing with the internal structure of word forms, can be divided into two main branches . word formation is the one branch of it. According to him, 'word formation deals with the formation of new lexeme' whereas Yule (1996:64) defines word formation processes' as 'the study of the processes whereby new words come into being in a language [...]'. Word formation is generally divided into two main groups (Bauer, 1973; Quirk et al, 1985) the first group includes 'affixation (derivation), compounding and conversion' which are considered predictable formations, whereas the second group includes what Bauer (1973) calls the unpredictable formations such as clipping, blending, acronyms, etc. In relation to the word formation processes some basic terms will be defined as follows.

The term generative. The term generation (generative) refers to the specification of new utterance, e.g. sentences, from a limited inventory of linguistic items, by applying a series of grammatical rules. The linguist tries to account for the 'intuitive' behavior of the native speaker by devising analytic models of these processes *generative grammar*, (Hartmann, at.all, 1994). The word *generative* derived from the verb *generate*. To generate means *to predict* or *to specify* how the native speakers could generate or create and produce the new words in their language in respect to competence and performance.

Lexeme and word form. The distinction between these two senses of "word" is arguably the most important one in morphology. *The first sense of "word", the one in which dog and dogs are "the same word", is called a lexeme. The second sense is called word form.* We thus say that dog and dogs are different forms of the same lexeme. Dog and dog catcher, on the other hand, are different lexemes, as they refer to two different kinds of entities. The form of a word that is chosen conventionally to represent the canonical form of a word is called a lemma, or citation form. Katamba (1994: 18) states lexeme are the vocabulary items that are listed in the dictionary. The term *pocling*, *pockle*, *pockles* and *pockled* are different realizations (or representations or manifestation) of the lexeme POCKLE (lexemes will be written in capital letters). A lexeme belong to a particular syntactic category, has a certain meaning (semantic value), and in inflecting languages, has a corresponding inflectional paradigm; that is, a lexeme in many languages will have many different forms. For example, the lexeme RUN has a present third person singular form runs, a present non-third-person singular form run (which also functions as the past participle and non-

finite form), a past form ran, and a present participle running. (it does not include runner, runners, runnable, etc.) the use of the forms of a lexeme is governed by rules of grammar; in the case of English verbs such as RUN, these include subject-verb agreement and compound tense rules, which determine which form of a verb can be used in a given sentence.

Lexeme formation. Boijj (2007: 51) states lexeme belong to lexical categories such as N, V, and A and the derived lexemes may belong to a different category than their bases. Word are divided into two kinds of lexical classes: open and closed classes. In most languages nouns, adjective, and verbs form open classes. These classes can be extended by means of word formation.

Word. The notion word plays a central role or an important role in word formation. Since it respects to syntactic category such as noun, adjective, verb, and adverb. Katamba (1994: 19) defines the 'word' can also be seen as a representation of a lexeme that is associated with certain **morpho-syntactic-properties** (i.e. partly morphological and partly syntactic properties) such as noun, adjective, verb, tense, gender, number, etc. we shall use the term **grammatical word** to refer to the 'word' in this sense. According to Boijj (2007:282) word as a sequence of letters not interrupted by spaces, is an accessible unit. Bloomfield (1935:178) defines the word as a minimum free form. This means that word can form at list in principle, a linguistics utterance in isolation.

Morphemes and words. A well known definition of morpheme is the one given by Hockett (1958:123): "The smallest individually meaningful element in the utterance of a language". Saussure in Scalise (1984:37-38) defines a morpheme is thus a *minimal sign*. A minimal sign, however cannot be defined once and for all; rather, it has to be defined in relation to the pertinent linguistic level. In respect to the term word, Postal and Aronoff (1999) in Scalise (1984) state that for the purpose of syntax the word is the *minimal sign*. The word must also be considered the *minimal sign* for morphology. Aronoff then argues that morphemes are considered linguist units below the word level, though these morphemes have no independent meaning outside. Based on the concept *morphemes* and *words* given above the following analysis can be described:

- (1) cranberry
boysenberry
huckleberry

We can analyze these three words as being composed of a constant element, *berry* and something else. Namely the morphemes in (2):

- (2) cran
boysen
huckle

The items in (2) do not occur independently or in other combinations in English; they are *hapax legomena*. This means that they have no meaning by themselves; rather, their meanings are intimately connected with those of the specific words in which they occur.

Consider, next, another series of *berry words* such as the following:

- (3) strawberry
blackberry
blueberry
gooseberry

Analyzing these words by the same segmentation procedure, we are left again with a constant element, *berry*, plus the following morphemes:

- (4) straw
black
blue
goose

The morphemes in (4), contrary to the ones in (2), do occur elsewhere in English as independent words. Their meanings as independent words, however, are unrelated to their meanings when they occur in the words in (3). A *blackberry* is not necessarily a berry which is "black" there are green or red blackberries, and the meaning relation between *straw* and *strawberry* or between *goose* and *gooseberry* is not very clear.

According to Haspelmath (2002: 16) morphemes can be defined as the smallest meaningful constituents of a linguistic expression.

For examples :

<i>Read</i>	<i>read-s</i>	<i>read-er</i>	<i>read-able</i>
<i>Wash</i>	<i>wash-es</i>	<i>wash-er</i>	<i>wash-able</i>
<i>Write</i>	<i>write-s</i>	<i>writ-er</i>	<i>writ-able</i>
<i>Kind</i>	<i>kind-ness</i>	<i>un-kind</i>	
<i>Happy</i>	<i>happi-ness</i>	<i>un-happy</i>	
<i>Friendly</i>	<i>friendly-ness</i>	<i>un-friendly</i>	

The words are easily segmented, i.e. broken up into individually meaningful parts: *read + s*, *read+er*, *kind+ness*, *un+happy*, and so on. These parts are called **morphemes**. Words may of course consist of more than two morphemes, e.g. *un-happi-ness*, *read-abil-ity*, *un-friend-ly*, *un-friend-li-ness*. It implies that morpheme is the small meaning unit of language whereas any parts a word cannot be broken down further into smaller meaning full part.

The concept of word and morpheme are different, a morpheme may or may not stand alone. One or several morphemes compose a word. A morpheme is free if it can stand alone (ex: "one", "cake"), or bound if it is used exclusively alongside a free morpheme (ex: "im" in impossible). Its actual phonetic representation is the morph, with the different morph ("in-", "im-") representing the same morpheme being grouped as its allomorphs. Free morphemes, like *town* and *dog*, can appear with other lexemes (as in *townhall* or *dog house*) or they can stand alone, i.e., "free". Bound morphemes like "un-" appear only together with other morphemes to form a lexeme. Bound morphemes in general tend to be prefixes and suffixes. Unproductive, non-affix morphemes that exist only in bound form are known as "*cranberry*" morphemes, from the "cran" in that very word.

Inflection and Derivation. Katamba (1994: 47) states that affix morphemes can be divided into two major functional categories, namely derivational morphemes and inflectional morphemes. Inflectional and derivational morphemes form words in different ways. Derivational morphemes form new words either, for instance: (1) it may change the meaning of the base to which they are attached, e.g. *kind vs un-kind* (both are adjectives but with opposite meanings); *obey vs dis-obey* (both are verbs but with opposite meanings), (2) it may change the word-class that a base belongs to, e.g. the addition of *-ly* to the adjectives *kind* and *simple* produces the adverbs *kind-ly* and *simp-ly*. As a rule, it is possible to derive an adverb by adding the suffix *-ly* to an adjectival base.

The inflection and derivation implies the process of word-formation. Inflectional morpheme creating a different form of the same word by changing neither part of speech nor meaning of the lexical category. Derivational

morpheme creating new words by changing either the meaning or the part of speech of lexical category. In other words, it respects to the change of word-class as well as changing the meaning of the base. But the problem is in English (though not in every language) prefixes are always derivational. Suffixes in English though maybe either derivational or inflectional. Bauer (1988:12) shows that in the word-form *formalises* the root is *form* and there are three suffixes: *-al*, *-ise* and *-s*. *Formal* belongs to a different lexeme from *form*, so *-al* is a derivational suffix; *formalise* belongs to a different lexeme from *formal*, so *-ise* is a derivational suffix; but *formalizes* belongs to the same lexeme as *formalise*, so *-s* is an inflectional affix. It implies that the process of word-formation is a matter of derivational and inflectional, whereas if an affix change the part of speech of the base, it is derivational, but if an affix which do not change the part of speech of the base it is inflectional. So *form* is a noun, *formal* is an adjective; *-al* has changed the part of speech; it is thus a derivational affix. *Formal* is an adjective, *formalize* is a verb; *-ise* has changed the part of speech; it is a derivational suffix. *Formalize* is a verb, *formalizes* is still a verb; *-s* has not changed the part of speech; *-s* is likely to be an inflectional affix. Note, however, that while all prefixes in English are derivational very few of them change the part of speech of the base.

Affixes. Affixes are realized as the characteristics of word formation in English. In relation to the discussion of points (a, b, and c) above, it is necessary to make several remarks. Affixes are introduced by the derivational and inflectional rules in word formation. Scalise, (1984:79) states the set of affixes can be divided into two subsets, prefixes and suffixes depending, among other things, on the position in which they are attached.

In the case of prefixation, the syntactic category of a derived word is that of the word to which the prefix is added negative prefix (dis-) + A + V + N → inflectional.

[dis+[honest]_A]_A

[dis+[charge]_V]_V

[dis+[favor]_N]_N

In the case of suffixation the syntactic category of derived word is that the word to which the suffixes are added, (-ness, -ful, -al, -ly) → derivational.

[[WORD]+Suf]

kindness

peaceful

refusal

happiness

heavily

The distinction between the characteristics of prefix and suffix is the bases of an important hypothesis or Based Word Hypothesis (BWH) concerning ordering in English word formation.

According to Boij (2007:307) affix is a bound morpheme, a constituent of a word attached to a stem of a particular word class that cannot appear as a word of its own. Katamba (1994: 44) defines an affix is a morpheme which only occurs when attached to some other morpheme or morphemes such as a root or stem or base. Katamba also states, there are three types of affixes namely, (i) prefixes, (ii) suffixes, and (iii) infixes:

A prefix is an affix attached *before* a root or stem or base like *re-*, *un-*, and *in-*.

Examples: re-make un-kind in-decent
 re-read un-tidy in-accurate

A **affixes** is an affix attached *after* a root (or stem or base) like *-ly*, *-er*, *-ist*, *-s*, *-ing* and *-ed*.

Examples: kind-ly wait-er book-s walk-ed
 quick-ly play-er mat-s jump-ed

Infixes is an affix inserted into the root itself. Infixes are very common in Semitic languages like Arabic. But infixing is somewhat rare in English.

Examples: a. Kalamazoo (place name) → Kalama-goddam-zoo
 Instantiate (verb) → in-fuckin-stantiate
 b. Kangaroo → kanga-bloody-roo
 impossible → in-fuckin-possible
 guarantee → guaran-friggin-tee

(Recall that the arrow → means 'becomes' or is 're-written as')

Root, Stem and Base. Bauer (1988) states that root is part of a word-form which remain when all inflectional (see inflection) and derivational (see derivation) affixes have been removed. Stem is a base to which inflectional (see inflection) affixes can be added. In *stupidities* the stem in *stupidity* although the root is *stupid*. Base is any item to which affixes may be added. Roots and stems are special types of base. A base is sometimes termed an *operand*. In relation to inflectional and derivational affixes, roots, bases, and stems the following description may have the specific identification of the terms in word-formation, given by Katamba (1994: 46).

Inflectional	Derivational	Roots	Stems	Bases
Affixes	Affixes			
-ed	un-	faith	faith	faith
-s	-ful	frog	frogmarch	faithful
	-ly	march	bookshop	frogmarch
	-er	clean	windowcleaner	bookshop
	-ness	hard	hardship	window-clean
	-ship	window		window-cleaner
				hardship

It is clear that from the data given above, how to identify the roots, stems and bases from above description in respect to inflectional and derivational affixes in terms of word formation. It is possible to form a complex word by adding affixes to a form containing more than one root. For instance, the independent words *frog* and *march* can be joined together to form the base (a stem, to be precise) *frog-march* to which the suffix *-ed* may be added to yield

[[frog]-[march]-ed]. Similarly, *window* and *clean* can be joined to form the base [[window]-[clean]] to which the derivational suffix *-er* can be added to produce [[[window]-[clean]]er]. And [[[Window]-[cleaner]]] can serve as a stem to which the inflectional plural ending *-s* is attached to give [[[[Window]-[cleaner]]]s]. A word like this which contains more than one root is called compound word.

3. English Word Formation Processes

3.1 Derivational Affixes

Word formation in generative morphology as developed by Aronoff (1976) in morphological theory known as Word Formation Rules (WFR's). Aronoff proposes a morphological theory that is consistent with the lexicalist hypothesis *the word based hypothesis* is an interesting way of refining morphological rules. A set of rules that readjust the output of WFR's (Readjustment Rules) of possible input in English word formation (Scalise: 37, 50).

There are, basically, two types of constraints on the output of WFR's: a syntactic one and semantic one. A WFR's specifies the set of words on which it can operate; this set is called the "base" of that rules. Every WFR's specifies the syntactic label and subcategorization frame of the output word along with a semantic reading which is a function of the semantic reading of the base. A WFR can be represented as the following.

[W]_X → [[W]_X + Af]_Y "semantics of Y"

[F_α] [F_α] [F_β]

This rule says that, where X is the lexical category while α is the features of rewritten as a complex word within internal structure, which consist of the base word, a boundary + and an affix. The output word has the lexical category Y and the features β. The role of WFR's that form the words *readable* and *boyhood*: (V + A → readable, and N + N → boyhood) as the input of word formation. The output of WFR's syntactically and semantically in lexical category is a structure with a labeled bracketing of the output are specified along with the boundary required by the rule. So now an output of the words *readable* and *boyhood* can be represented in the following (rewritten rules).

1) [read]_V → [[read]_V +able]_A "capable of being read"

[+ tr] [+ tr]

2) [boy]_N → [[boy]_N + hood]_N "the quality of being a boy"

[- abstr] [- abstr] [+abstr]

In (1), the WFR attaches the suffix *-able* to the transitive verb *read*, forming the derived adjective *readable*. In (2), the WFR attaches the suffix *-hood* to the non-abstract noun *boy*, forming the derived noun *boyhood*. In (1), the rule changes the lexical category V into A, while in (2) it changes the feature [-abstract] into the feature [+ abstract]. In both cases, the rules provide the semantic reading of the derived words.

Syntactically, every new word created by a WFR must be a member of a major lexical category. The category of the output is determined by the WFR itself. The following is a list of possible inputs and outputs in English word formation, Scalise (1984: 51-52).

3) Input (pattern of word-formation):

N → N king + dom

V → N invert + ion

A → N fastidious + ness

N → V	glory + ify
A → V	short + en
V → V	∅
N → A	educational + al
V → A	drink + able
A → A	green + ish
A → Adv	beautiful + ly

The list in (3) shows that, there are no suffixes that derive verbs from verbs in English (V → V). Aronoff (1976:21) claims that only nouns, adjectives and adverbs can be the product of word -formation, and that only these form classes can be used bases in the formation of derivations.

The output of a WFR is a structure with a labeled bracketing, when both the category of the input and the category of the output are specified along with the boundary required by the rule. Now the output of those in (3) can be represented (*rewritten rules*) in terms of *readjustment rules* in the following way.

4) Output (*pattern of word-formation, rewriting rules*):

- [[king]_N + dom]_N
- [[invert]_V + ion]_N
- [[fastidious]_A + ness]_N
- [[glory]_N + ify]_V
- [[short]_A + en]_V
- [[education]_N + al]_A
- [[drink]_V + able]_A
- [[green]_A + ish]_A
- [[beautiful]_A + ly]_{Adv}

The outputs of the English word formation processes above shows that the pattern is derivational affixes since most of the suffixes change the word class of the base lexeme such as, *-dom, -ion, -ness, -ify, -en, -al, -able, -ish, -ly*. Derivational patterns commonly change the word class of the base lexeme – i.e. nouns can be derived from verbs, adjectives from nouns (Haspelmath, 2002: 68).

3.2 Compounding

In generative morphology, word-formation rule in respect to compounding known as The Right-hand Head Rule (RHR) which developed by (Williams 1981:248, Selkrik 1982) . The notion of head plays an important role in the work of generative morphology. Most compounds in English are endocentric, i.e. they have a head. In such compounds the head element (normaly) appears as the right-handmost constituent of the word. The syntactic and semantic relationship between the two words can be identified in the following compound words., such as:

schoolboy, *bedroom*, and *teapot*. Semantically an endocentric compound indicates a sub-grouping within the class of entities that the head denotes. The head is underline in each compound. Thus, a *schoolboy* is a kind of *boy*, a *bedroom* is a kind of *room*, and a *teapot* is a kind of *pot*. The first word in each case functions as a modifier of the head which specifies the meaning of the head more precisely.

English also has many compound adjectives. Some examples are listed in (5):

- | | | | |
|-----|---------------|--------------|-----------------|
| (5) | a. <i>NA</i> | b. <i>AA</i> | c. <i>PA</i> |
| | world-wide | short-lived | overwhelming |
| | user-friendly | hard-hearted | under-mentioned |
| | seaworthy | good-natured | outspoken |
| | foolproof | long-winded | near-sighted |

These adjectives contain a noun followed by an adjective in [5.a], an adjective is followed by an adjective (derived from the past participle form of a verb) in [5.b], and a preposition is followed by an adjective (derived from the present or past-participle form of a verb) in [5.c]. So the phrase structure rule required is the following :

- (6)
- $$A \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} N \\ A \\ \text{Prep} \end{array} \right\} A$$

Haspelmath (2002: 85) defines compound is a complex lexeme that can be thought of as consisting of two or more base lexemes. In the simplest case, a compound consists of two lexemes that are joined together (called *compound members*). Some examples from English are given. English allows several types of combinations of different word-classes (N:Noun, A:adjective, V:verb), but not all such combinations are possible.

English compounds: some examples

- | | | | |
|-----|-------|---------------------|---|
| (7) | N + N | <i>lipstick</i> | <i>(lip_N + stick_N)</i> |
| | A + N | <i>hardware</i> | <i>(hard_A + ware_N)</i> |
| | V + N | <i>drawbridge</i> | <i>(draw_V + bridge_N)</i> |
| | N + V | <i>babysit</i> | <i>(baby_N + sit_V)</i> |
| | N + A | <i>leadfree</i> | <i>(lead_N + free_A)</i> |
| | A + A | <i>bitter-sweet</i> | <i>(bitter_A + sweet_A)</i> |

These compounds can be generated by the rule as the following:

$$(8) \quad N \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} N \\ A \\ V \end{array} \right\} N$$

$$V \rightarrow NP$$

$$A \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} N \\ A \end{array} \right\} A$$

Selkirk in Scalise (1984) claims that the possible combination in respect to compounds can be characterized as follows.

(9)	N + N	schoolteacher
	A + N	highschool
	V + N	rattlesnake
	P + N	overdose
	N + A	nationwide
	A + A	icy cold
	P + A	overwide
	P + V	underfeed

The compound words are generated by the rule below :

$$(10) \quad N \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} N \\ A \\ P \end{array} \right\} N$$

$$A \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} N \\ A \\ P \end{array} \right\} A$$

$$V \rightarrow P V$$

From the point of view of semantics, in respect to compounds the first compound member generally serves to modified the second compound member, or in other words, the compound is a *hyponym* of its second member. Thus, a *lipstick* is a especial kind of *stick* (not a special kind of lip), a *drawbridge* is a special kind of *bridge*. Semantically the second member is the head of the compound and the modified element is called the dependent. In English, the compound head is always the second member, but in other languages such as Spanish, the head is the first member.

- (11) *hombre-rana* 'frogman' (*hombre* 'man' + *rana* 'frog')
- Ano luz* 'light year' (*ano* 'year' + *luz* 'light')
- Pez espada* 'swordfish' (*pez* 'fish' + *espada* 'sword')

4. Conclusion

The study of word-formation is a part of morphological process in a language. WFR's in generative morphology have a global power in English word-formation processes, or in other words, it takes an important role in word-formation as developed by Aronoff. Since WFR's apply to a base and generate an output. These theory is to explore the notion possible word in a language. And access the word-formation in terms of output. WFR's has to main functions in word-formation namely, (1) creating new words and (2) accounting for the internal structure of existing words. Another rule for compounding words is that The Right-Hand Head Rule (RHR) as developed by William. RHR takes an important role of the compounding word to determine the head of a morphologically complex word to be the right-hand member of the word. For instance a *schoolboy* is a kind of boy, a *bedroom* is a kind of *room*, and a *teapot* is a kind of *pot*. The first word in each case functions as a modifier of the head which specifies the meaning of the head more precisely. English compounds are mainly endocentric, since the head normally on the right

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