

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discusses about the previous studies, morphology, and writing ability. The previous studies discuss four related literatures. Next, morphology discusses about the nature of morphology, kind of morphemes, regular and irregular inflection, derivation, the Indonesian language morphology, morphological awareness and cross-linguistic influence in studies on second language acquisition. The last, writing ability discusses about the nature of writing ability and type of writing.

A. Previous Studies

Some literatures related to the study are reviewed as means to clarify the present study. It has found five related studies as done by the previous researchers. The first, Zahra Latifi et al. conducted the study about morphological awareness and its relationship to vocabulary size and morphological complexity among Iranian University students.¹ The findings have shown that students had medium awareness of analytic and synthetic knowledge but vocabulary level of the students was low. The students performed better in suffix section than prefix section. There was a significant relationship between the students' morphological awareness and

¹Zahra Latifi, et al., 2012, "Morphological awareness and its relationship to vocabulary Size and morphological complexity among Iranian EFL University students", *Asian Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities*, Vol.1, No. 4, November 2012, p. 165. (Taken from) <http://www.ajssh.leena-luna.co.jp/AJSSHPDFs/Vol.1%284%29/AJSSH2012%281.4-21%29.pdf>. (online on December, 2012).

vocabulary size. Moreover, morphological awareness did not differentiate between the students' performance on complex words and simple words.

The second previous study was conducted by Omid Tabatabaei and Masumeh Yakhabi.² The aim of their study was to investigate the relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge of Iranian high school students. The findings have shown a significant relationship between the learners' performance on the vocabulary level test and the morphological awareness tasks. These findings implicate the importance of facilitating the students' morphological awareness in English vocabulary learning for EFL learners in Iran.

The third previous study was conducted by Lisa Kay Maag. She conducted the study about measuring morphological awareness in adult reader. She found that participants in her study better in vocabulary and comprehension scores, also had higher morphological awareness scores and greater metacognitive awareness of their own lexicons.³

The last previous study, Kirby et al. conducted the study about children's morphological awareness and reading ability. The results indicated that the new measure had satisfactory reliability, and that morphological awareness was a significant predictor of word reading accuracy and speed, pseudo word reading

²Omid Tabatabaei and Masumeh Yakhabi, 2011, "The Relationship between Morphological Awareness and Vocabulary Size of EFL Learner". *Journal*. vol 4, No. 4, English Language Teaching Copyright © Canadian Center of Science and Education. (Taken from) <http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/elt/article/view/13382>. (online on October 12, 2012)

³Lisa Kay Maag, 2007, "Measuring Morphological Awareness in Adult Readers Implications for Vocabulary Development, *Dissertation*, Tallahassee : University of Florida, p. 9. (Taken from) http://ufdcimages.uflib.ufl.edu/UF/E0/01/96/49/00001/maag_1.pdf. (online on October 24, 2012)

accuracy, text reading speed, and reading comprehension, after controlling the effects of verbal and nonverbal ability and phonological awareness. Morphological awareness also explained variance in reading comprehension after further controlling word reading. The conclusion, morphological awareness has important roles in word reading and reading comprehension, and we suggest that it should be included more frequently in assessments and instruction.⁴

The similarity between the current study and the previous studies above is both of them study about the interrelation between morphological awareness and other language skill or component such as vocabulary, morphological complexity, and reading. Many studies discussed about the role or relationship of morphological awareness especially on vocabulary and reading. Several previous studies above have been studied that morphological awareness has significance role in vocabulary mastery. Meanwhile, the study about the correlation of morphological awareness and writing is scarce. So this way, it is interested in looking for interrelation between morphological awareness and writing ability.

B. Morphology

1. The Nature of Morphology

Morphology refers to the study of forms. *Linguistics morphology* refers to the study of words, their internal structure and the mental process that are involved in

⁴John R. Kirby, et al., 2011, "Children's morphological awareness and reading ability", Canada : Springer Science+Business Media, p. 389. (Taken from) http://www.wordworkskingston.com/WordWorks/About_WordWorks_files/Kirby,%20Deacon,20Bowers,%20Izenberg,%20Wade-Woolley,%20Parrila.pdf (online on March 15 2013).

word formation.⁵ It is study of the hierarchical and relational aspects of words and the operation on lexical items according to word formation rules to produce other lexical items.⁶ According to Strork and Widowson, morphology is concerned with the way in which words and meaningful elements are constructed and with how their function within the grammatical system of a language.⁷

Grammatical system in language covers many aspects of language skills or components. For example, grammatical system becomes important aspect in writing. Good writing should have correct grammar. Indeed, different words in English have different meaning, different auxiliary have different function also. Based on Strork and Widowson's statement above, it is interested in finding the correlation between morphological awareness and writing ability focus on students' ability in using correct words in writing.

2. Kinds of Morpheme: Bound Versus Free

Traditionally, a word can be divided into the minimal linguistic units that bear meanings or grammatical functions (i.e. *morphemes*). In line with the traditional definition, Coates identifies four criteria of what it takes to be a morpheme. A morpheme should have a meaning or function, recur in other words with a related meaning (e.g. *un-* in *unbelievable* and *unhappy*), and be involved in a pattern of

⁵Arnof and Fudeman in Badriya al-Farisi, 2008, "Morphological Awareness and Its Relationship to Vocabulary Knowledge and Morphological Complexity among Omani EFL University Students", *Dissertation*, Queensland : The University of Queensland, p.6. (Taken from) <http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/Thesis/Thesis-Al-Farsi.pdf>. (online on October 15, 2012).

⁶Leong and Parkinson in Farisi, "Morphological Awareness and Its Relationship to Vocabulary...", p.34.

⁷FC Strork and JDA Widowson, 1983, *Learning about Linguistics*, London: Hutchinson Publishing Group, p.17.

interchange (e.g. – *est* in *longest* can be substituted with another morpheme such as, *er*).⁸

The morphemes in the word *helpfulness*, only example, do not all have the same status. *Help*, *-ful* and *-ness* are not simply strung together like beads on a string. Rather, the core, or starting-point, for the formation of this word is *help*; the morpheme *-ful* is then added to form *helpful*, which in turn is the basis for the formation of *helpfulness*. In using the word ‘then’ here, it is not referring to the historical sequence in which the words *help*, *helpful* and *helpfulness* came into use; it is talking rather about the structure of the word in contemporary English – a structure that is part of the implicit linguistic knowledge of all English speakers, whether or not they know anything about the history of the English language. There are two reasons for calling *help* the core of this word. One is that *help* supplies the most precise and concrete element in its meaning, shared by a family of related words like *helper*, *helpless*, *helplessness* and *unhelpful* that differ from one another in more abstract ways. Another reason is that, of the three morphemes in *helpfulness*, only *help* can stand on its own – that is, only *help* can, in an appropriate context, constitute an utterance by itself. That is clearly not true of *-ness*, nor is it true of *-ful*. (Historically *-ful* is indeed related to the word *full*, but their divergence in modern English is evident if one compares words like *helpful* and *cheerful* with other words that really do contain *full*, such as *half-full* and *chock-full*.) In self-explanatory fashion,

⁸Coates R. in Farisi, “Morphological Awareness and Its Relationship to Vocabulary...”, p.6.

morphemes that can stand on their own are called **free**, and ones that cannot are **bound**.⁹

Morphemes can be classified into categories : free morphemes or bound morphemes. Free morphemes are meaningful units of language structure which can be used independently or in combination with other morphemes. A word which consists of only one morpheme must consist of free morpheme. Meanwhile, Bound morphemes are meaningful units of language structure which can only be used in conjunction with other morphemes.¹⁰ Simply, *free morphemes* are those that can exist in their own (e.g. *book* in *notebooks*), whereas *bound morphemes* cannot (e.g. *-s* in *notebooks*). The word *reestablishments* can be broke down into four morphemes: *re-*, *establish*, *-ment*, *-s*. *Establish* is called the *root*. The root is the core of a word to which other morphological units are attached. *Establish* can also be a *stem* (i.e. a base morpheme to which other elements are attached). A stem can be simple (*establish*) or complex (*establishment*). *Re-* and *-ment* and *-s* are called *affixes*. Affixes can appear in the forms of :

- a. prefixes: bound morphemes that are attached in front of a stem.
- b. suffixes: bound morphemes that are attached at the end of a stem.
- c. circumfixes: bound morphemes that are attached simultaneously before and after the stem (not applicable to English language).

⁹Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words and Their Structure*, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, p.18.

¹⁰FC Strok and JDA Widowson, 1983, *Learning about Linguistics.*, p.79.

- d. infixes: bound morphemes that are attached in the middle of a stem (not in English).¹¹

Morphemes are further categorized into *lexical morphemes* (e.g. *-ness*, etc) or *grammatical morphemes* (e.g. *-ed*, *-s*). Grammatical morphemes are part of *inflectional morphology* that underlies the processes involved in building grammatical word forms. Words that contain inflection are called *inflected words* (e.g. *larger*, *willing*, *biggest*, *bottles*, etc). Lexical morphemes are part of *derivational morphology* that is concerned with the processes involved in building lexical word forms. Derivational morphemes are of two types: class 1 and 2. Class 1 morphemes trigger changes to the base and/ or changes to stress assignment (e.g. *-ity* in *sanity*, *-ive* in *productive*) while class 2 morphemes do not (e.g. *-ness* in *promptness*, *-less* in *hairless*). Words that contain derivation are called *derivatives* or *derived words* (e.g. *dehumanize*, *unsatisfactory*, etc).

Based on the way in which morphemes are formed from their constituent, we can categorize different type of words as follow:¹²

- a. Simple word: consist of single morpheme which must be a free morpheme.
e.g. cat, dog, home;
- b. Compound word: made up of two free morphemes used together to form a single lexical unit, e.g. homework, toothbrush;

¹¹Badriya al-Farisi, "Morphological Awareness and Its Relationship to Vocabulary,.. p.6-7.

¹²FC Strok and JDA Widowson, 1983, *Learning about Linguistics...*, p 80.

- c. Complex word: consist either of a free morpheme together with bound morpheme, or of two bound morphemes.

In the present study, it only uses complex words in the testing students' morphological awareness. It provides complex words which consist of three or four morphemes because the words would be analyzed.

3. Derivational Morphemes

Carstairs and McCarthy in *An Introduction to English Morphology Words and their Structure* discussed about derivation in several categories as follow:¹³

a. Adverbs derived from adjectives

The adjective *dioecious*, meaning 'having male and female flowers on different plants'. Certainly, *dioecious* must be listed in any reasonably complete dictionary of English. However, the corresponding adverb *dioeciously* would not have to be listed, because both its existence and its meaning can be taken for granted once the existence of *dioecious* is acknowledged. This neatly illustrates the distinction between lexemes and lexical items: *dioeciously* is a distinct lexeme from *dioecious*, since it belongs to a different word class, but it is not a distinct lexical item. This also illustrates a widespread though not universal characteristic of derivational processes: unlike inflection, they can change the word class of the bases to which they apply.¹⁴

¹³Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words and Their Structure*, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press. p.48-56.(Taken From) <http://logic.sysu.edu.cn/ebookfull/UploadFiles7160/200905/200905061709579.pdf>.

¹⁴Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words...* p.48.

Some introductory treatments of English grammar talk as if not just many but all adverbs end in *-ly*. If that were true, it would be an unusual word class, all of its members being derived. In fact, simple or monomorphemic adverbs, though few in number, include some very common words (*often, seldom, never, soon*), and some other adverbs are morphologically complex without containing *-ly* (*nowhere, everywhere, today, yesterday*). Also, there are common adverbs that are formed by conversion: *fast* (as in *The car was driven fast*) and *hard* (as in *They worked hard*), derived from the adjective *fast* (as in *a fast car*) and *hard* (as in *hard work*).

b. Nouns derived from nouns

Not all derivational processes change word class. English has derivational processes that yield nouns with meanings such as ‘small X’, ‘female X’, ‘inhabitant of X’, ‘state of being an X’ and ‘devotee of or expert on X’. Here are some examples – though by no means a complete list, either of the affixes or of their possible meanings:¹⁵

(1) ‘small X’: *-let, -ette, -ie*

e.g. *droplet, booklet, cigarette, doggie*

(2) ‘female X’: *-ess, -ine*

e.g. *waitress, princess, heroine*

(3) ‘inhabitant of X’: *-er, -(i)an*

e.g. *Londoner, New Yorker, Texan, Glaswegian*

¹⁵Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words...* p.49.

(4) ‘state of being an X’: *-ship, -hood*

kingship, ladyship, motherhood, priesthood

(5) ‘devotee of or expert on X’: *-ist, -ian*

e.g. *contortionist, Marxist, logician, historian*

We should come to agree that all or nearly all of them must count as lexical items. Many of them have unpredictable meanings (a cigarette is not merely a small cigar, and a booklet is not merely a small book; *brotherhood* means not ‘the state of being a brother’ but rather ‘secret or semi-secret society’). Also, the very existence of some of these words seems arbitrary. Why is there a word *actress* (albeit less used now than formerly), but there has never been a word ‘*writerss*’ to designate a woman writer? Why do we have *droplet* but not ‘*grainlet*’ or ‘*lumplet*’? It is merely an accident that some of these words have come into general use while others have not, so those that do exist must be lexically listed. This ‘gappiness’ also helps to confirm (should confirmation be needed) that these affixes are derivational rather than inflectional, even though they do not change word class.¹⁶

c. Nouns derived from members of other word classes

Nouns derived from adjectives and from verbs are extremely numerous, and it should be easy for you to think of many other examples on the lines of those given here. Here are some suffixes used to derive nouns from adjectives:¹⁷

¹⁶Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words...* p.50.

¹⁷*Ibid.*

(6) *-ity*, e.g. *purity, equality, ferocity, sensitivity*

(7) *-ness*, e.g. *goodness, tallness, fierceness, sensitiveness*

(8) *-ism*, e.g. *radicalism, conservatism*

All these three suffixes mean basically ‘property of being X’, where X is the base adjective. Of the three, *-ness* is the most widely applicable, and the great majority of nouns formed with it are not lexical items. For example, once one has learned *dioecious*, one can be confident of both the existence and the meaning of *dioeciousness*. Even so, at least one noun in *-ness* is lexicalised: *highness*, which means not ‘property of being high’ (for which we use *height*), but rather ‘royal personage’, as in *Her Royal Highness*.

Some of these nouns are formed from bases other than the free form of the corresponding adjective, e.g. *ferocity* from *feroc-* (not *ferocious*), *conservatism* from *conservat-* (not *conservative*). The *ferocity* pattern is fairly general for adjectives in *-ious* (compare *rapacity, ferocity* alongside *rapacious* and *capacious*) but not absolutely general (for example, to *delicious* and *specious* there correspond *deliciousness* and *speciousness*, not ‘*delicity*’ or ‘*specity*’). This gappiness is a reason for counting all nouns in *-ity* as lexical items.

Even more numerous are suffixes for deriving nouns from verbs. Here are just a few:¹⁸

(9) *-ance, -ence*, e.g. *performance, ignorance, reference, convergence*

(10) *-ment*, e.g. *announcement, commitment, development, engagement*

¹⁸Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words...* p.51.

(11) *-ing*, e.g. *painting, singing, building, ignoring*

(12) *-((a)t)ion*, e.g. *denunciation, commission, organisation, confusion*

(13) *-al*, e.g. *refusal, arrival, referral, committal*

(14) *-er*, e.g. *painter, singer, organiser, grinder*

The suffixes in (9)–(13) all have much the same function (they form abstract nouns meaning ‘activity or result of Xing’), but they are certainly not freely interchangeable: for example, we have *performance* but no ‘*performment*’ or ‘*performance*’, and we have *commitment, committal* and *commission* but no ‘*committance*’. It is true that some verbs allow a choice of suffixes (e.g. *commit*), but the nouns thus formed are not synonyms: one can commit a crime, commit an accused person for trial, or commit oneself to a task, but, of the three nouns, only *commission* corresponds to the first meaning, only *committal* to the second, and only *commitment* to the third. Comparison of *announce-ment* (corresponding to *announce*) and *denunciation* (corresponding to *denounce*) confirms that verbs that are similar in shape do not necessarily choose the same noun-forming suffixes (*annunciation* scarcely exists outside the idiomatic context *the Annunciation of the Blessed Virgin*). Sometimes a noun’s meaning may even be quite far removed from that of the corresponding verb: for example, *ignore* means ‘deliberately refuse to acknowledge’, yet *ignorance* means not ‘deliberate refusal to acknowledge’ but rather ‘unawareness’. Of the suffixes in (9)–(13), *-ing* is the most general, and indeed all verbs can form nouns with it

irrespective of whatever other suffixes they may use; but even *-ing* nouns may have semantic and grammatical idiosyncrasies (one can look at a painting or a building, but one listens to a song rather than to a singing).¹⁹

The suffix *-er* in (14) is the one most generally used for forming nouns denoting a person performing the action of the corresponding verb (agent nouns). But it is not the only agent suffix (*typist* and *informant* use other suffixes), and this is not its only function; for example, *digger* is more likely to denote a piece of machinery than a person, and we have already encountered *-er* in Section 5.4 with the meaning ‘inhabitant of’ (e.g. *Londoner*).

This is an appropriate place to recall that, although affixation is by far the most common way in which lexemes are derived in English, it is not the only way. Some non-affixal ways of deriving abstract nouns (other than conversion) are:²⁰

(15) change in the position of the stress, e.g. nouns *permit*, *transfer*

alongside verbs *permit*, *transfer*.

(16) change in the final consonant, e.g. nouns *belief*, *proof*, *defence*,

alongside verbs *believe*, *prove*, *defend*,

(17) change in a vowel, e.g. nouns *song*, *seat* alongside verbs *sing*, *sit*.

¹⁹Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words*,... p.51.

²⁰Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words*,... p.52.

By contrast with some languages, however, the derivational use that English makes of vowel change is minimal. Languages that exploit it much more consistently are members of the Semitic family, such as Arabic and Hebrew.

d. Adjectives derived from adjectives

In this category, prefixes predominate. The only suffix of note is *-ish*, meaning ‘somewhat X’, as in *greenish*, *smallish*, *remotish* ‘rather remote’. In contrast, the prefix *un-* meaning ‘not’ is extremely widespread: for example, *unhappy*, *unsure*, *unreliable*, *undiscovered*. Because it is so common, most dictionaries do not attempt to list all *un-* adjectives. This does not mean, however, that *un-* can be prefixed to all adjectives quite freely; we do not find, for example, ‘*ungood*’ with the meaning ‘bad’ (though George Orwell included that word in the Newspeak vocabulary devised for *Nineteen Eighty-Four*).

Another negative prefix is *in-*, with allomorphs indicated by the variant spellings *il-*, *ir-* and *im-*, as in *intangible*, *illegal*, *irresponsible*, and *impossible*. It is more restricted than *un-*, largely for historical reasons. For the present, it is worth noting the existence of pairs of more or less synonymous adjectives, one of which is negated with *un-* and the other with *in-* or one of its allomorphs:²¹

(18) eatable/uneatable	edible/inedible
readable/unreadable	legible/illegible
lawful/unlawful	legal/illegal
touchable/untouchable	tangible/intangible

²¹Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words...* p.52.

Such examples confirm that the use of *in-* is lexically restricted. As the negative counterpart of *edible*, *inedible*, sounds possible, especially if the speaker has limited education and has not encountered, or has momentarily forgotten, the form *inedible*. However, ‘*ineatable*’ as the counterpart of *eatable* is not a form that any English speaker would spontaneously use.²²

e. Adjectives derived from members of other word classes

Some of the processes that derive adjectives from verbs straddle the divide between derivation and inflection in a way that we have not yet encountered. However, such forms (in italics in (19)) can also be adjectives:²³

(19) a. a not very *interesting* book

b. The party-goers sounded very *drunk*.

c. The car seemed more *damaged* than the lamp-post.

The modifier *very* and the comparative construction (*more ... than*) show that *interesting*, *drunk* and *damaged* are adjectives here, not forms of the verb lexemes *interest*, *drink*, and *damage* (Notice that *very* cannot modify verbs, so one cannot say **That book very interested me.*) As for *drunk*, its status as belonging to a distinct lexeme here is confirmed by its special meaning (‘intoxicated through drinking alcohol’), not predictable from the meaning of the

²²*Ibid.*

²³*Ibid.*p.53.

verb *drink* ('swallow liquid'). Further suffixes that commonly form adjectives from verbs, with their basic meanings, are:²⁴

(20) *-able* 'able to be Xed': *breakable, readable, reliable, watchable*

(21) *-ent, -ant* 'tending to X': *repellent, expectant, conversant*

(22) *-ive* 'tending to X': *repulsive, explosive, speculative*

Expectations derived from these basic meanings can, as usual in derivation, be overridden; for example, *conversant* does not mean 'tending to converse'. We have already encountered *-able* in (18), where the variant, or allomorph, *-ible* is also illustrated. What is striking about the *-ible* words in (18) is that their bases, although they have clearly identifiable verbal meanings such as 'eat', 'read' and 'touch', are bound rather than free. Some of these bound verb roots appear in a number of derived lexemes, such as the *aud-* root that occurs in (*in*) *audible, audition, audience, and auditory*. Suffixes that form adjectives from nouns are more numerous. Here are some:²⁵

(23) *-ful*, e.g. *joyful, hopeful, helpful, meaningful*

(24) *-less*, e.g. *joyless, hopeless, helpless, meaningless*

(25) *-al*, e.g. *original, normal, personal, national*

(26) *-ish*, e.g. *boyish, loutish, waspish, selfish*

As will be seen, adjectives in *-ful* and *-less* tend to come in pairs, although the correspondence is not exact: we have *slothfull* but not 'slothless', and

²⁴Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words...* p.53

²⁵*Ibid.*, p.53.

penniless but not ‘*penniful*’. This confirms again that, even when the meaning of a potential word may be easily guessable (a ‘slothless’ person would be hardworking, and a ‘penniful’ person would be well off), the existence of the word is not guaranteed.

f. Verbs derived from verbs

This section is unusual in that all the affixes. Most prominent are *re-* and the negative or ‘reversive’ prefixes *un-*, *de-* and *dis-*, as in the following examples:²⁶

(27) paint, enter repaint, re-enter

(28) tie, tangle untie, untangle

(29) compose, sensitise decompose, desensitise

(30) entangle, believe disentangle, disbelieve

Semantically, the examples in (27)–(30) are mostly straightforward, although those with *de-* are less so: to decompose is not to undo the creative work of a musical composer! Also worth mentioning here is the relationship between the verbs in the left and right columns in (31):

(31) Intransitive :

lie (*past* lay)

rise (*past* rose)

fall (*past* fell)

sit (*past* sat)

Transitive :

lay (*past* laid)

raise (*past* raised)

fell (*past* felled)

set (*past* set)

²⁶Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words...* p.53

Transitive verbs (or verbs used transitively) are ones with an ‘object’ noun phrase, usually indicating the thing or person that is the goal of the action of the verb, as *the book* is the object of *laid* in (32a). *Intransitive* verbs, such as *lay* in (32b), lack such an object.

- (32) a. Jill laid the book on the table.
 b. The book lay on the table.

The transitive verbs in (32) are all *causative*, that is they mean ‘cause to X’, where X stands for the meaning of the corresponding intransitive. Causative–incausative verb-pairs are common in English, but they nearly all involve conversion, as in (33), rather than either affixation or the kind of vowel change seen in (31):

- (33) a. Jill boiled the water.
 b. The water boiled.

The examples in (31) represent a residue of a vowel-change pattern that was more widespread at an earlier stage of the language.

g. Verbs derived from members of other word classes

Verbs derived from nouns and from adjectives are numerous. Some affixes for deriving verbs from nouns are:²⁷

(34) *de-*, e.g. *debug*, *deforest*, *delouse*

(35) *-ise*, e.g. *organise*, *patronise*, *terrorise*

(46) *-(i)fy*, e.g. *beautify*, *gentrify*, *petrify*

²⁷Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words...* p.54

There are also some common verbs that are derived by replacing the final voiceless consonant of a noun with a voiced one, perhaps with some vowel change too (parallel to the relationship between *belief* and *believe*, although there it was the verb that seemed more basic):²⁸

(41) <u>Nouns</u>	<u>Verbs</u>
<i>Bath</i>	<i>bathe</i>
<i>Breath</i>	<i>breathe</i>
<i>house</i> [...s]	<i>house</i> [...z]
<i>wreath</i>	<i>wreathe</i>

A meaning for *de-* at (34) is clearly identifiable, namely ‘remove X from’ (compare its function in deriving verbs from verbs, e.g. *desensitise*). However, neither *-ise* nor *-ify* has a clear cut meaning apart from its verb-forming function (*organise* does not share any obvious element of meaning with *organ*, for example). The suffixes *-ise* and *-ify* can derive verbs from adjectival bases too, as in *nationalize*, *tenderize*, *intensify*, and *purify*. Hence, when the roots to which they are attached are bound (e.g. *cauterize*, *sanitise*, *petrify*, *satisfy*, *magnify*), it is often impossible to decide whether these roots are fundamentally nominal or adjectival. The suffix *-ate* shows the same sort of ambivalence. Words such as *generate*, *rotate*, *replicate*, and *locate* clearly contain a root and a suffix, because the same roots crop up elsewhere (e.g. in *general*, *rotor*, *replica*, *local*).

²⁸Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words...* p.55.

However, because most of the bases to which *-ate* is attached are bound roots, it does not clearly favour either adjectival or nominal bases.

It will be evident by now that suffixes play a larger role than prefixes in English derivational morphology. But there is still one prefix to be mentioned: *en-* (with its allomorph *em-*), which forms verbs meaning ‘cause to become X’ or ‘cause to possess or enter X’ from a few adjectives and nouns: *enfeeble*, *enslave*, *empower*, *enrage*, *enthrone*, *entomb*. With the adjectives *bold* and *live* as bases, the prefix *en-* is combined with a suffix *-en*: *embolden*, *enliven*. This suffix usually occurs without the prefix, however, and does so quite widely (e.g. *tighten*, *loosen*, *stiffen*, *weaken*, *widen*, *redden*, *deepen*, *toughen*). These verbs have either an intransitive meaning, ‘become X’, or a transitive one, ‘cause to become X’. The adjectives that can constitute bases for such verbs share an unusual characteristic, however, which becomes evident when we consider some verbs in *-en* that are imaginable, yet do not occur: **greenen*, **narrowen*, **strongen*, **tallen*, **bluen*, **clearen*. It turns out that the adjectives that can be bases for deriving *-en* verbs are all monosyllabic and all end in plosives (the sounds usually spelled *p*, *b*, *t*, *d*, *(c)k* and *g* in English) or fricatives (including the sounds usually spelled *s*, *th*, *f* and *v*). What is wrong with **greenen* and the other unsuccessful candidates is that their bases end in a sound other than a plosive or a fricative – although with *strong* we get round this restriction (so to

speak) by adding *-en* instead to the corresponding noun, *strength* (which ends in a fricative sound), so as to yield *strengthen*.²⁹

4. Inflectional Morphemes

English has only several inflectional affixes. All inflectional affixes in English are suffixes (none are prefixes, unlike the situation with derivational affixes, which include prefixes and suffixes). They are:³⁰

a. Noun inflectional suffixes

1. Noun plural marker *-s*

Example: girl – girls (The girls are here)

2. Possessive marker 's

Example: Mary – Mary's (Mary's book)

b. Verbal inflectional suffixes

3. Third person present singular markers *-s*

Example: play – plays (He plays football)

4. Past tense marked *-ed*

Example: wait-waited (She waited her friend)

5. Progressive marker *-ing*

Example: sing – singing (They are singing)

6. Past participle marker *-en* or *-ed*

Example: eat – eaten (He has Eaten cake)

²⁹Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, *An Introduction to English Morphology Words...* p.56

³⁰Andrian Akmajian et. al., 2001, *Linguistics an Introduction to Language and Communication*, London : The MIT Press, p.43.

bake – baked (He has baked a cake)

c. Adjective inflectional suffixes

7. Comparative marker *-er*

Example: fast-faster (She is faster than you)

8. Superlative marker *-est*

Example: fast – fastest (She is fastest)

The distinction between inflectional and derivational affixes in English is based on a number of factors.³¹

First, inflectional affixes never change the category (part of speech) of the base morpheme (the morpheme to which they are attached). For example, both *eat* and *eats* are verb; both *girl* and *girls* are nouns. In contrast, derivational affixes often change the part of speech of the base morpheme. Thus, *read* is a verb, meanwhile *readable* is an adjective. As noted, some derivational affixes do not change category. For example, derivational prefixes in English generally do not change the part of speech of the base morpheme to which they are attached. So that, both of *charge* and *recharge*, for instance, are verbs.

Second, derivational and inflectional suffixes occur in a certain relative order within the word; namely, inflectional suffixes follow derivational suffixes. Thus, in *modernize-modernizes* the inflectional *-s* follow the derivational *-ize*. If an inflectional suffix is added to a verb, as *modernizes*, then no further derivational suffixes can be added. English has no form *modernizesable*, with inflectional *-s*,

³¹ Andrian et. al., 2001, "Linguistics an Introduction to Language,... p.44.

followed by derivational *-able*. For the reasons, it is often noted that inflectional affixes mark the “outer” layer of words, whereas derivational affixes mark the “inner” layer.³²

Actually, the function of derivational affixes is used to create new base forms that other derivational or inflectional affixes can be attached to. Certain derivational affixes create new members for given part of speech class, whereas inflectional affixes always attach to already existing member of a given part of speech class.

Finally, inflectional and derivational affixes can be distinguished in term of semantics relation. In the case of inflectional affixes, the relation between the meaning of the base morpheme and the meaning of the base + affix is quite regular. Hence, the meaning difference between *tree* and *trees* is paralleled quite regularly in other similar pairs consisting of a noun and noun + plural affix combination. In opposite, in the case of derivational affixes the relation between the meaning of base morpheme and the meaning of base + affix is sometimes unpredictable. For example, the pair *fix* and *fixable* show a simple meaning relation (“X” and “able to be X”), but there are also pairs such as *read-readable* and *wash-washable* where the *-able* form has undergone *semantic drift* and has accrued new elements of meaning beyond the simple combination of the meaning of the base and the meaning of *-able*. Such semantic drift is generally not found in cases of a base + inflectional affix, so that the word such as *trees* is plural of *tree* and has not accrued any additional meaning.³³

³² Andrian Akmajian et. al., 2001, *Linguistics an Introduction to Language and...* p.44.

³³ *Ibid.*

To sum up, inflectional affixes indicate certain grammatical function of word (such as plurality or tense). They occur in certain order relative to derivational affixes and they are not associated with certain changes that are associated with derivational affixes such as category changes or unpredictable meaning changes. Inflectional affixes are often discussed in term word-set called *paradigms*. For example, the various form that verb can take (bake-bakes-baking) form a set of words known as *verb paradigm*.³⁴

5. Indonesian Language Morphology

Indonesian is a variety of Malay, which belongs to the Austronesian language family. Words in Indonesian are built from the roots by means of a variety of morphological operations such as compounding, affixation, and reduplication. Indonesian concatenation morphology regulates how a stem and affixes glue together, while non-concatenation one combines morphemes in more complex ways.

Affixes in Indonesian language can be classified as four categories.³⁵

- a. Prefixes, its located the left side of the base form, e.g. *men-* (*mendapat, mencuri, melintang, merintis*), *di-* (*dipukul, dilacak*), *pen-* (*pengurus, pencipta, pencipta*), *ber-* (*berjuang, berlari*), *ke-* (*kedua, ketiga*), and *ter-* (*tehanyut, terbuai, terpana*).
- b. Suffixes, its located in the right side of the base form, e.g. *-kan* (*lupakan, lepaskan*), *-an* (*akhiran, tuntutan, tangisan*), and *-nya* (*perannya, larinya*).

³⁴ Andrian et. al., 2001, "Linguistics an Introduction to Language,... p.46.

³⁵J.W.M. Verhaar, 2001, *Asas-Asas Linguistik Umum*, Yogyakarta: Gajah Mada University Press, p.107.

- c. Infixes, inside the base form, e.g. *-el-(gelembung)*, *-em- (gemilang)*, and *-er-(gerigi) –in- (kesinambungan)*.
- d. Circumfixes, wrap around the base form. While circumfixes formally are combination of allowed prefixes and suffixes. e.g. *men-kan, memper-kan, men-i, memper-i, like in the words; mencari-kan, mempermainkan, menduduki, and memperingati*.

The four types of morphological operation above are similar with English. In English there are prefix such as *un-*, *re-* (*unhappy, rebuild*), suffix such as *-ness, -ly, -ion, -ed* (*goodness, slowly, education, wanted*), and circumfixes such as *un-able, re-ment, un-ly* (*unbelievable, redevelopment, ungentlemanly*). But, there are no infix in English.

On the other hand, there are two main function of affixation process. They are:³⁶

- a. Inflectional , the affixation process which form other word from the same lexical.
- b. Derivational, the affixation process which change the word from its lexical category to the certain lexical.

Indonesian non-concatenative morphology refers to reduplicated morpheme form. Reduplicated words based on morpheme regularity are grouped into full reduplication (e.g., the word *buku-buku* is derived from the stem *buku*) and partial reduplication of different kinds. The latter includes reduplicated stems with affixes (e.g. word *buah-buahan* is derived from stem *buah*, *bertingkat-tingkat* is derived

³⁶J.W.M. Verhaar, 2001, *Asas-Asas Linguistik Umum...* p.107.

from stem *bertingkat*) and various (often rather irregular) reduplications (e.g. *sayur-mayur* is derived from *sayur*). Indonesian affixation and reduplication are illustrated in the following example. From the stem *main*, we can derive words like *pemain* (by concatenating the prefix *pen-*), *memainkan* (by concatenating the circumfix *meN-**kan*), and *mainanmainan* (by first concatenating the suffix *-an*, then applying full reduplication). Other examples include *bermain-main*, *memain-mainkan*, and *dimain-mainkan*.

Morphology generally makes a distinction between inflectional and derivational processes. In the previous example, the formation of *memainkan* appears to be ‘inflectional’ as the formation does not change the category of the stem, and the formation of *pemain* and *mainan-mainan* is derivational because the derived words are nouns while the stem *main* is a verb. However, the distinction between inflection and derivation, particularly in Indonesian, is not always clear cut. The formation of verbs such as *memainkan* from *main* is arguably derivational in nature because the new words have quite different lexical properties even though both the new verbs and the stems are of the same category (i.e. ‘verb’).³⁷

³⁷Femphy Pisceldo, Rahmad Mahendra & Ruli Manurung. “A Two-Level Morphological Analyser for the Indonesian Language”. (Taken from) <http://chl.anu.edu.au/linguistics/projects/iwa/IndonParGram/papers/Alta.morpho.pdf> (online July 1, 2013).

6. Morphological Awareness

Morphological awareness is awareness of and access to the meaning and structure of morphemes in relation to words.³⁸ This statement is supported by Charlisle in Chang et al, morphological awareness refers to children's conscious awareness of the morphemic structure of words and their ability to reflect on and manipulate that structure.³⁹ In other words, morphological awareness refers to the learners' knowledge of morphemes and morphemic structure, allowing them to reflect and manipulate morphological structure of words. It should be noted that many people confuse morphology acquisition and morphological awareness. While the concept of morphological awareness implies learners' use of metacognitive strategies of reflecting and manipulating word formation rules to derive the meaning of new words in the absence of communicative context, the concept *morphology acquisition* does not necessarily entail metacognitive strategies. Kuo and Anderson in al-Farisi stated that morphology acquisition means the cognitive abilities to use and comprehend morphological structure in natural speech. So, morphological awareness falls under the umbrella of morphology acquisition.⁴⁰

³⁸McBride-Chang et al. 2005. "The Role of Morphological Awareness in Children's Vocabulary Acquisition in English", *Journal*, Vol.26, Cambridge University Press, p. 417.

³⁹McBride-Chang et al. 2005. "The Role of Morphological Awareness in Children's Vocabulary Acquisition in English", *Journal*, New York: Cambridge University Press. (Taken from <http://www.psy.cuhk.edu.hk/psymedia/Cammiefiles/061.the%20role%20of%20morphological%20awareness%20i%20childrens%20vocabulary%20acquisition%20in%20english.pdf>. (online on November 2, 2012). p.417.

⁴⁰Badriya al Farisi, "Morphological Awareness and Its Relationship to Vocabulary",... p.13.

a. **Morphological Awareness and Its Relationship to Language Skills**

A considerable number of studies have accentuated that morphological awareness is a predictor of some language skills such as, understanding the spelling system and vocabulary growth, single word reading and reading comprehension. The knowledge of morphological units contributes to vocabulary growth that helps developing reading proficiency.

As we know, students need many vocabularies in writing. They should to have wide vocabulary knowledge. Indeed, morphology is a branch of linguistic that study about words formation. It gives significant role in increasing vocabulary size of the students such as the previous studies' result. So, the present study tries to find out the correlation between morphological awareness and writing ability but limited on the students ability in using correct words in their writing based on morphological rules.

b. **Morphological Awareness as a Vocabulary Learning Strategy**

As noted above, morphological awareness refers to the awareness of access to the meaning and structure of morphemes that are part of or related to the word. It includes knowledge of derivational morphology such as prefixes (e.g., the *un-* in *undisciplined* to indicate the antonym of the original, *disciplined*), suffixes (e.g., the *-ion* in *graduation* changes the part of speech of the base word *–graduate* is a verb whereas *graduation* is a noun), and compounding (e.g., *cowboy* to create new word combining the two root morphemes: *cow* and *boy*).

On the other hand, knowledge of inflectional morphology focuses primarily on indicating grammatical changes in words (e.g., the *-s* in *dogs* to indicate the plural form of the base or the *-ed* in *acted* to refer to the action in the past time).⁴¹

Compared to the learners' Indonesian, English is more complicated morphologically. Nunens and Bryant in Nurhemida stated that there are many words in English whose spelling cannot be predicted from phonology, but are entirely regular if analyzed into morphemes.⁴² The word *madness*, for example, ends with a double *s*; this is entirely predictable from the fixed spelling of the suffix *-ness* but not from phonology. Similarly, the word *musician* would be considered highly irregular if it was analyzed in terms of letter-sound correspondences, but its spelling is completely regular considering it was formed by *music* and the suffix *-ian*, a morpheme to indicate 'doer' or 'person who xs' (where *x* refers to the noun the suffix attaches to). They conclude that an awareness of morphology should benefit the development of vocabulary learners.

7. Cross-linguistic influence in studies on second language acquisition

The role of cross-linguistic influence (CLI) or linguistic transfer in second language acquisition has been a field of extensive research in the past few decades,

⁴¹Nurhemida, 2007, "The Relationship between Morphological Awareness and English Vocabulary Knowledge of Indonesian Senior High School Students", *Dissertation, Queensland : Queensland University*, p.9. (Taken from) <http://www.asian-journal.com/Thesis/Thesis-Nurhemida.pdf> (online on October 15, 2012).

⁴²Nurhemida, 2007, "The Relationship between Morphological Awareness and,... p.13.

such as Ellis; Gas and Selinker; Kellerman; Larsen-Freeman and Long; Odlin; Selinker. Transfer is a traditional term from psychology of learning which means imposition of previously learned patterns onto a new learning situation. In second language acquisition, the knowledge of the native language in acquisition of a foreign language can indeed have a facilitation or inhibition effect on the learner's progress in mastering a new language. Traditionally, facilitation effect is known as positive transfer, while inhibition is considered negative transfer. Erroneous performance in foreign language ascribed to certain constraints existing in the native language can be the simplest example of negative transfer. The latter seems to be of concern among scientists working on second language acquisition (SLA).⁴³

The question of what is more likely to be transferred from native language to foreign language and how the mechanism of transfer works has given rise to different linguistic models and hypotheses over the last two decades. One of the earlier hypotheses on CLI, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis tried to predict the likelihood of linguistic transfer in second language acquisition based on the similarities as well as differences between various aspects of native language and foreign language. So that similarities in linguistic structures of two languages will

⁴³Ludmila Isurin, 2005, "Cross Linguistic Transfer in Word Order: Evidence from L1 Forgetting and L2 Acquisition", *Journal*, ISB4: Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism, Somerville : Cascadilla Press, p.1115. (Taken from) <http://www.lingref.com/isb/4/086ISB4.PDF> (online on July 1, 2013).

result in positive transfer, while differences will create an interference which is known as negative transfer.⁴⁴

As we know, Indonesian morphology very complex. Some of them have some similarity form with English morphology especially about affixation. Indonesian morphology there are prefix, suffix, infix, and circumfixes. Meanwhile, in English morphology there are prefix, suffix, and circumfixes. Indeed, derivational and inflectional morpheme exist in Indonesian morphology which as the first language of the subject in the present study. Based on theory above, it assumed that the students seem would be easy in doing morphological awareness test.

C. Writing Ability

1. The nature of writing ability

Writing is a way to end up thinking something you couldn't have started out thinking.⁴⁵ Writing is intellectual and emotional exhibitionism. Regardless the form of a work, it reveals thoughts and values of its creator. Even with lies, exaggerations, and omissions, a writer cannot hide his or her thought process. The moment the first word is recorded, the author becomes both powerful and vulnerable. When people read, they try to guess who an author is.⁴⁶

Writing is the representation of language in a textual medium the use of sign of symbol. Writing began as a consequence of the burgeoning needs of accounting.

⁴⁴Lado,1957; Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, 1965 in Ludmila Isurin, 2005, "Cross Linguistic Transfer,.. p.1115.

⁴⁵H.D Brown, 2001, *Teaching by Principles*, San Fransisco : Pearson education company, p.335.

⁴⁶Tameri, "Guide for writers; the nature of writing", (Taken from) <http://www.tameri.com/> (online on April 5, 2013).

Writing more particularly, refers to things, writing as a noun, the thing that is written, and writing as a verb, which designates the activity of writing. It refers to the inscription of character on a medium, thereby forming words, and longer units of language, known as texts. It also refers to the creation of meaning and information thereby generated.⁴⁷

The concept of ability refers to a general trait of an individual that may facilitate the learning of a variety of specific skills.⁴⁸ Ability is the executive branch of competence, so to speak, and enables us to achieve meaning by putting our knowledge to work.⁴⁹ Based on some definitions above, it can be understood that ability is the power or skill to do something and it can be gotten and mastered by practicing.

2. Types of writing

There are four types of writing, the form of writing to tell or relate is called narration; that used to describe is called description; that used to explain or interpret is called exposition; the form of writing used to persuade or argue is called argumentation.⁵⁰ Furthermore, the four types are explained as follow:

- a. Description. Description reproduces the way things look, smell, taste, feel, or sound; it may also evoke moods, such as happiness, loneliness, or fear. It

⁴⁷Dina Novita Sari, 2007, "Teaching Writing Using Guided Writing and Free Writing Techniques in Making Narration Text by the Second Year Students of SMAN-1 of Sampit" *Thesis*, STAIN Palangka Raya, p. 26.

⁴⁸David L. Sills, 1972, *Internal Encyclopedia the Social Science*,... p. 38.

⁴⁹H.G. Widdowson, 1997, *Linguistics*,... p. 28.

⁵⁰E. Wishon, George, and M. Burks, Julia, 1980, *Let's Write English (Revised Edition)*, Canada: American Book Company, p. 377-378.

is used to create a visual image of people, places, even of units of time-days, times of day, or seasons.⁵¹

- b. Exposition. Exposition is used in giving information, making explanations, and interpreting made or done.⁵²
- c. Narration. Narration is the form of writing used to relate the story of acts or events. Narration places occurrences in time and tells what happened according to natural time sequence. Types of narration include short stories, novels, and news stories, as well as a large part of our everyday social interchange in the form of letter and conversation.⁵³
- d. Argumentation. Argumentation is used in persuading and convincing. It is closely related to exposition and is often found combined with it. Argumentation is used to make a case or to prove or disprove a statement or proposition.

From the four type of writing above, it only used argumentative essay as the instrument of writing ability. It chose argumentative essay because argumentative essay use many morphological form.

⁵¹*Ibid.*, p. 379.

⁵²E. Wishon, George, and M. Burks, Julia, 1980, *Let's Write English...* p. 382.

⁵³*Ibid.*, p. 378.