CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Previous Studies

Some literatures related to the study are reviewed as means to clarify the present study. There were some related studies that were found. The first, Nurwati conducted the study about *the relationship between morphological awareness and writing ability of English educational study program students of STAIN Palangka Raya*. This research focused on quantitative research using correlation design. The results from this research, there is positive correlation between morphological awareness and writing ability of the sixth semester students of TBI of Palangka Raya. The coefficient correlation between morphological awareness and writing ability of sixth semester students TBI of STAIN Palangka Raya is 0.712. The interpretation of "r_{table}": df = N–nr = 50–2 = 48. Third is done by checking the value "r" product moment. It shown as column 48, 0.242 at significant level 5% and 0.338 at significant level 1%. As the result, r_{xy}= 0.712 is higher than r_{table} in significant level 5%. So that, null hypothesis (H_o) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H_a) is accept. The conclusion, there is positive correlation between X variable and Y variable; it means that the increasing of morphological awareness will be followed by the increasing of writing ability.[14]

The second, study is conducted by Rosihani about *the students' mastery of prefixes and suffixes achieved by the English education students of the eight semesters at STAIN Palangka Raya*. This research focuses on analytical research.

---

[14]Deni Nurwati, *The Relationship between Morphological Awareness and Writing Ability of English Educational Study Program Students of STAIN Palangka Raya,* Unpublished Thesis, Palangka Raya: State Islamic College of Palangka Raya, 2013.

The purpose of the study just wants to investigate how are the students' mastery level on prefixes *de-* and *dis-* and suffixes *al-* and *ize-* in English text. The main research findings were as follows: there were 17 students (60.71%) had good mastery level and were 11 students (39.29%) had enough mastery level. There were 16 students (57.14%) difficult in identifying prefix *de-* in English text, were 6 students (21.42%) difficult in identifying prefix *dis-* in English text, were 10 students (35.71%) difficult in identifying suffix *al-* in English text, were 4 students (14.29%) difficult in identifying suffix *ize-* in English text, there were 4 students (14.29%) difficult in matching prefix *de-* with its meaning, were 2 students (7.14%) difficult in matching prefix *dis-* with its meaning, were 6 students (14.29%) difficult in matching suffix *al-* with its meaning, were 2 students (7.14%) difficult in matching suffix *ize-* with its meaning. There were 18 students (64.29%) difficult in finding out prefix *de-* in English text, 14 students (50.00%) difficult in finding out prefix *dis-* in English text, 16 students (57.14%) difficult in finding out suffix *al-* in English text, were 6 students (21.43%) difficult in finding out suffix *ize-* in English text. There were 6 students (21.42%) were difficult in making a sentence about prefix *de-,* were students (21.42%) difficult in making a sentence about prefix *dis-,* were 12 students (42.86%) difficult in making a sentence about suffix *al-,* were 6 students (21.42%) difficult in making a sentence about suffix *ize-*.[15]

The third, study is conducted by Yunita about *the effect of derivational suffixes process using flash cards on vocabulary mastery of the eight grade*

---

[15]Emilda Rosihani, *The Students' Mastery Of Perfixes And Suffixes Achieved By The English Education Students Of The Eight Semesters At STAIN Palangka Raya*, Unpublished Thesis, Palangka Raya: State Islamic College of Palangka Raya, 2008.

students at SMPN-9 palangka Raya. This research focuses on quantitative approach using quasi experimental design. In this research was found the result of $t_{observed}$ was 2,620 and the t_{table} was 2,000 at 5% significance level with the degree of freedom (df) was 60. In addition, the writer also calculated the effect size of the treatment given to experiment group and from the calculation was found 0,606. It meant, the effect size was enough to recommend. Furthermore, the result of testing hypothesis determined that the alternative hypothesis (H_a) stated that students who are taught English derivational suffixes process using flash cards show better improvement of vocabulary mastery than those taught by conventional strategy was accepted and the null hypothesis (H_0) students who are given English derivational suffixes process using flash cards do not show better improvement of vocabulary mastery than those taught by conventional strategy was rejected.[16]

Based on the previous study above, there were common differences what they researched. Nurwati studied about the relationship between morphological awareness and writing ability. Rosihani studied about the students' mastery of prefixes and suffixes achieved by the English education students of the eight semesters at STAIN Palangka Raya. And Yunita studied about the effect of derivational suffixes process using flash cards on vocabulary mastery of the eight grade students at SMPN-9 Palangka Raya. While in the present research, it was studied about problems of derivational change processes in essay faced by TBI students at STAIN of Palangka Raya, because each language has its own system

[16]Siti NurviaYanita, *The Effect of Derivational Suffixes Process Using Flash Cards on Vocabulary Mastery of the Eight Grade Students at SMPN-9 Palangka Raya*, Unpublished Thesis, Palangka Raya: State Islamic College of Palangka Raya, 2012.

which is different from that in the students' native language. Richard and Schmidt in Richards state that the differences are found because each language has its own system or code; that is, its own characteristic of putting sounds together in order to talk about situations or events in the present, the past, or the future.[17] The differences in the system of the language may bring about learning problems for the foreign language learners. This study focuses on quantitative approach by using deductive content analysis.

B. The Nature of Essay

1. Definition of Essay

When we start writing, we should know about the paragraph, its form its structure, its body, and its qualities, because most writing is divided into paragraphs. A paragraph is defined as a group of sentences that develops one main idea; in other words, a paragraph develops a topic.[18]

According to Leggett, et al in Siahaan, a paragraph is a of piece writing consisting of several sentences about a main topic and a central idea. According to Oshima and Hogue in Siahaan, a paragraph is the miniature of an essay. It means that it is a smaller text than an essay, but both of them resemble to each other in their formal features. Further, Oshima and Hogue, Reid and Leggett, et al in Siahaan study that similarly state that a paragraph as a piece of text containing several sentences and the miniature of an essay and the length of that paragraph is relative, but this definition implicitly

---

[17] Jack C Richards, *A Non-contrastive Approach to Error Analysis*, San Fransisco:t.n p., 1983, p. 3.
[18]Reginal L.Smalley, Mary K. Ruetten, Joann Rishel Kozyrey, *Refining Composition Skills: Rhetoric and Grammar*, p. 13.

indicates to a moderate or reasonably number of sentences that depend on the necessity of the data to elaborate the man topic and the controlling idea in the number of sentences.[19] So a paragraph is a piece of writing possessing several sentences about a certain main a topic and a certain controlling idea.

The essay like the paragraph controlled one central idea. In the essay, the sentence containing the central idea is called the thesis statement. The thesis statements is similar to the topic sentence in that, it contains an expression of an attitude, opinion or idea about a topic sentence, however, the thesis statement is broader and expresses the controlling idea for the entire essay. An essay is a collection of paragraphs that presents facts, opinions and idea on a topic.[20] An essay can be as short as three or four paragraphs or as long as ten or more typed pages that include many paragraphs. Essays are similar to paragraphs in a number of ways:[21]

a) They both discuss one topic.

b) They both use similar organizational elements to help the reader understand the information.

c) Essay has supporting and concluding paragraphs, just as paragraphs have supporting and concluding sentences.

d) Both paragraphs and essays have and introduction (topic sentence), a body (supporting information) and a conclusion.

[19] Sanggam Siahaan, *Issues in Linguistics,* Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu, 2008. p. 214-215.
[20]Keith S. Folse, April Muchmore-Vokoun, Elena Vestri Solomon, *Great Writing 2: Great Paragraphs*, United States of America: Heinle Cengage Learning, 2010, p. 199.
[21]*Ibid*., p.200.

2. Types of Essays

There are four types of essays, 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.[22] Furthermore, the four types are explained as follows:

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 is used to create a visual image of people, places, even of units of time-days, times of day, or seasons.[23]

b. Exposition. Exposition is used in giving information, making explanations, and interpreting made or done.[24]

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.[25]

d. Argumentation. Argumentation is used in persuading and convincing. It is closely related to exposition and is often found

---

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

[23] *Ibid.*, p. 379.

[24] *Ibid.,* p. 382.

[25] *Ibid.,* p. 378.

combined with it. Argumentation is used to make a case or to prove or disprove a statement or proposition.

Meanwhile, Kane Stated that the most common is prose that informs, which, depending on what it is about, is called exposition, description, or narration.[26] Exposition explains how things work-an internal combustion engine. Ideas -a theory of economics. Exposition is constructed logically. It organizes around cause/effect, true/false, less/more, positive/ negative, general/particular, and assertion/denial. Its movement is signaled by connectives like therefore, however, and so, besides, but, not only, more important, in fact, for example.

Description reproduces the way things look, smell, taste, feel, or sound; it may also evoke moods, such as happiness, loneliness, or fear. It is used to create a visual image of people, places, even of units of time-days, times of day, or seasons.

Best on the definitions above, it conclude be concluded that descriptive essay is a text which aims to describe particular things, such as people, place, even unit of days, times of day, or season. It may be used to describe more about the appearance of people, their character or personality. Descriptive essay reproduces the way things look, smell, taste, feel, or sound.

Description deals with perceptions-most commonly visual perceptions. Its central problem is to arrange what we see into a significant pattern. Unlike the logic of exposition, the pattern is spatial: above/below,

---

[26] Thomas S. kane, *Essential Guide to Writing,* New York : The Brekley publishing group, 2000, P. 6-7.

before/behind, right/left, and so on. The subject of narration is a series of related events—a story. Its problem is twofold: to arrange the events in a sequence of time and to reveal their significance.

Persuasion seeks to alter how readers think or believe. It is usually about controversial topics and often appeals to reason in the form of argument, offering evidence or logical proof. Another form of persuasion is satire, which ridicules folly or evil, sometimes subtly, sometimes crudely and coarsely. Finally, persuasion may be in the form of eloquence, appealing to ideals and noble sentiments.[27]

All in all, writing that is primarily entertaining includes fiction, personal essays and sketches. Such prose will receive less attention here. It is certainly important, but it is more remote from everyday needs than exposition.

C. The Nature of Morphology

1. Definition of Morphology

According Aronoff and Fudeman Morphology is a distinct component of languages or grammars.[28] Morphology is the study of systematic variation in the form and meaning of words. Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words. Somewhat paradoxically, morphology is both the oldest and one of the youngest sub disciplines of grammar. It is the oldest because, as far as we know, the first linguists were primarily morphologists.

---

[27]*Ibid,* p. 6-7.
[28]Mark Aronoff and Kirsten Fudeman, *What Is Morphology? 2ⁿᵈ ed*, p. 11.

Morphological analysis typically consists of the identification of parts of words, or, more technically, constituents of words. We can say that the word *nuts* consists of two constituents: the element *nut* and the element *s*. In accordance with a widespread typographical convention, we will often separate word constituents by a hyphen: *nut-s*. It is often suggested that morphological analysis primarily consists in breaking up words into their parts and establishing the rules that govern the co-occurrence of these parts. The smallest meaningful constituents of words that can be identified are called morphemes.[29] Linguists sometimes use the terms analytic and synthetic to describe the degree to which morphology is made use of in a language.[30]

Morphology is most simply defined as the study of the combination of morphemes to yield words, but a somewhat more abstract definition (as the study of systematic variation in the form and meaning of words) will turn out to be more satisfactory. Different languages vary strikingly in the extent to which they make use of morphology. The goals of morphological research are (on the descriptive level) elegant and cognitively realistic description of morphological structures, plus (on the theoretical level) system-external explanation and the discovery of a restrictive architecture for description.[31]

---

[29]Martin Haspelmath and Andrea D. Sims, *Understanding Morphology 2nd ed*, London: Hodder Education an Hachette UK Company, 2010, p. 3.
[30]*Ibid*, p. 4.
[31]*Ibid*, p. 11.

The field of linguistics that examines the internal structure of words and processes of word formation is known as morphology. This term, which literally means 'the study of forms', was originally used in biology, but since the middle of the nineteenth century, has also been used in a language. What we have been describing as 'elements' in the form of a linguistic message are technically known as 'morphemes'. Morpheme is minimal unit of grammatical structure (the morpheme is often defined as the minimal meaningful unit of language).[32]

2. **Morphemes**

A morpheme is the minimal linguistic unit which has a meaning or grammatical function.[33] Morphemes can be classified into categories: free morphemes and 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.[34]

To make clarification, Bound morphemes are two types: inflectional and derivational. Inflections are one type of grammatical morpheme,[35] for instance, the –s morpheme on *likes* marks the tense as present and the subject

---

[32] Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy, *An Introduction to English Morphology: words and Their Structure*, p. 144.

[33] Virginia P.Clark, Paul A.Eschholz and Alfred F Rosa, *Language Introductory Readings 3th ed*, p. 308.

[34] FC Strok and JDA Widowson, *Learning about Linguistics*, London: Hutchinson Publishing Group, 1983. p. 79.

[35] *Ibid.*, p. 153.

as singular. The *-s* on the noun *girls* marks the noun as plural. Some free morphemes are also grammatical. While the *-s* on *child's* indicates possession, so does the preposition *of* in *the roof of the building* or *some friends of mine*. The comparative and superlative inflections are typically used on adjectives that are one or two syllables long (e.g. *happy*, *happier and happiest*). However, lengthier adjectives require *more* and *most* (e.g. *beautiful*, *more beautiful and most beautiful*). Free grammatical morphemes include the articles (*a*, *an*, *the*), auxiliary verbs (*be*, *have*), and coordinating conjunctions (*and*, *or*, *but*).

On the contrary, inflectional morphemes form a small class in English; derivational morphemes are a much larger class. Derivational morphemes exhibit other differences from inflectional morphemes as well. Derivational morphemes can be either prefixes or suffixes, whereas inflectional morphemes can be only suffixes.[36] Unlike inflectional morphemes, derivational morphemes can change the meaning of a word or its part of speech: adding *dis-* to the base *like* results in a word – *dislike* – with a completely opposite meaning; adding *-able* to *like* changes *like* from a verb to an adjective: *likeable*. Adding *–ed* to a verb such as *walk* changes neither the meaning of *walk* nor its part of speech.

Moreover, affixation is the process of adding derivational morphemes to a word – is a major source of new words in English.[37] Word in English have a particular structure: all have a base to which various kinds of prefixes and

---

[36]Charles F. Meyer, *Introducing English Linguistics,* New York: Cambridge University Press, 2009, p.154.
[37] *Ibid,* p.154 .

suffixes can be attached.[38] Prefixes (such as, de-, re-, etc), suffixes (such as, -ize, -er, -ness, etc), and in fixation, especially for infixes most morphologies usually agree that English has no infixes.

In particular Derivational Suffix is a word part placed at the end of a word or base word that signals how a word is being used in a sentence and identifies its part of speech. Furthermore, derivational suffixes can be divided into nominal suffix, adjectival suffixes, adverbial and verbal suffixes. As a result, attaching different suffixes onto the base of a word, they change the word's part of speech. For example, the word "sterilize" is a verb meaning to sanitize. As in adjective, it takes the suffix "–ile" becomes sterile. As a noun, it takes the suffix "-tion" and becomes sterilization. The suffixes change the word's job in a sentence and it also helps to give a clue to the unfamiliar word. Therefore, in this study the writer considered suffixes than prefixes since the students at eighth grade often find some difficulties to decide which one a noun, an adjective, a verb and an adverb in sequence. In addition, the suffixes can also change the part of speech of a word and to varying degrees the meaning of the resultant word as well.[39] It means, suffixes have many function to ease the students retain new vocabulary items and to enlarge their vocabulary size.

3. **Word classes**

There are two word classes that would be analyzed in the present study, function words and content words.

---

[38] *Ibid,* p.192.
[39] *Ibid,* p. 155.

a. Function Words

Function words are sometimes called closed class words.[40] Function words are words that have little lexical meaning or have ambiguous meaning, but instead serve to express grammatical relationship with other words within a sentence, or specific attitude or mood of the speaker. They signal the structural relationships that words have to one another and are the glue that holds sentences together. Thus, they serve as important elements to the structures of sentence. Function words might be preposition, pronoun, and auxiliary verbs. All of which belong to group of closed-class words as follow:[41]

1) Preposition

The preposition is classified as a part of speech in traditional grammar; however prepositions as well as conjunctions differ from other part of speech in that, each is composed of a small class of words that have no formal characteristic ending and each signal syntactic structures that function as one of the other part of speech. For these reason modern linguists prefer to classify prepositions as structure words rather that as part of speech. [42]

Preposition range in meaning from such definite semantic nation as time, place, etc., to such purely structural meanings as those shape by the subject-verb-complement relationship. The types of preposition are,

---

[40] Victoria Fromkin, Robert Rodman, Nina Hyams, *An Introduction to Language 7th ed,* , p. 74.

[41] *Ibid,* p. 74.

[42] Marcella Frank, *Modern English a practical reference guide*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, New York University, 1972, p. 163.

preposition of time using on, in, and at. Then the preposition of extended time to starting at one point and ending at another (duration) using since, by, from-to (or until, till), for, during, and in or within. Next, the preposition of sequence of time, events that follow one another is using word before and another.

2) Pronouns

Pronouns make up a small class of words of a very high frequency. The definition of preposition as a words that takes the place of noun, is applicable to some types of pronouns but to others those pronouns that are actual substitutes may refer not only to preceding noun-its antecedent-but not a larger part of a discourse that precedes. Those pronouns that are not substitutes may simply have indefinite reference or express indefinite quantity.[43] Pronouns can be classified according to their meanings and uses.[44]

(a) Personal pronouns are words such as I, he, she, you, they… which are generally used to refer to people, and it and its, which are to refer to an animal, a thing, a place or an abstract idea.

(b) Emphatic and reflexive pronouns are different from each other in the ways they are used. An emphatic pronoun is spelt in the same way as its corresponding reflexive pronoun: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves and themselves.

---

[43]*Ibid*, p. 20
[44]KamChuanAik, Kam Kai Hui, *Dictionary Of Grammar And Usage*, p. 199-202.

(c) This, these, that and those are demonstrative pronouns. A demonstrative pronoun points to a specific person, or a specific group of people or things.

(d) Who, whom, what, which and whose are called interrogative pronouns or question words when they are used to ask question.

(e) Who, whom, whose, which and that are relative pronouns when they are used not only as pronouns but also as conjunctions to join two sentences or clauses.

3) Auxiliary verb

Auxiliary verbs are also called anomalous verbs.[45]An auxiliary verb is functioning auxiliary verb assists the role of it is (the jobs activity). In English, verb functioning as a predicate in the sentence can be change according the tenses form. They are, be it words used to make progressive and passive form), does (it used to make negative sentences, interrogative sentences, and command sentences.

b. Content Words

Content words are words that have meaning. They can be compared to grammatical words, which are structural verbs, nouns, adjective, and adverbs. They are;[46]

---

[45]Marcella Frank, *Modern English a practical reference guide*, p.94.
[46]*Ibid,* p.6.

1) Noun

Nouns are one of the most important parts of speech. Nouns are that indicate people, thing, place, animal, etc. Some nouns may belong to more than one of types given below:

a) **Proper nouns.** Proper noun begins with a capital letter in writing. It includes personal names (Mr. John Smith), names of geographic units (countries, cities, and rivers), names of nationalities and religions (Christianity), names of holidays (Easter, Thanksgiving Day), and words used for personification- a thing or abstraction treated as a person (nature, library).

b) **Concrete and abstract nouns.** Concrete nouns is a word a physical object that can be perceived by the sense-we can touch, smell the object as like a flower, girl. An abstract noun is a word for concept – it is an idea that exists in our minds only for example; beauty, bad and naughty.

c) **Countable and no countable nouns.** A countable noun can usually be made plural by the addition of –s, one girl, two girls. A no countable is not used the plural. Some non-countable nouns may also be used in a countable sense and therefore have a plural. In addition, a non-countable may be used in the plural with the special meaning.

2) Verbs

Verbs are words that indicate the name of action that is done of the subject or may be indicate the situation. The types of verbs described here differ according to the kind of complement they may have. Because that types may cut across each other, a verbs may belong to more than one type. They are;[47] transitive and intransitive verbs. Transitive verbs is takes a direct object, for example; he is reading a book. The second is intransitive verbs is does not require an object, for example; he is working in the park.

3) Adjective

The adjective is modifier that has the grammatical property of comparison. It is often identified by special derivational endings or by special adverbial modifiers that precede it. Its most usual position is before the noun it modifies, but it fills other positions as well. [48]

4) Adverbs

Adverbs are the words that clarify verbs, adjective, noun phrase and another adjective or whole sentence. Adverbs rage the meaning from words having a strong lexical content (those that describe the action of the verb, or those indicate such meaning as time and place) to those that are uses merely for emphasis. They range in function from close to lose modifiers of the verbs.[49]

---

[47] Ibid, p. 49.
[48] Ibid, p.109.
[49] Ibid, p. 141.

a) Adverb of manner

Adverb of manner is adverb that explaining as something happened or has done. Adverb of manner is to answer the question "how". Example; easily, fluently, happily, etc.

b) Adverb of place

Adverb of place is adverb that explaining about where something case that happened. It is usually put after direct object. For example; at home, here, in Jakarta, etc.

c) Adverb of time

Adverb of time is adverb that explaining about when or whenever the case that happened. It is can put on first or the last sentence. For example; in December, now, today, etc.

d) Adverb of degree

Adverb of degree is adverb that explaining the level of something has done. It is usually put before adjective or adverb. For example: little, rather, very, etc.

e) Adverb of frequency

Adverb of frequency is adverb that explaining about how often or not something case that happened. For example; always, usually, never, etc.

f) Interrogative adverb

Interrogative adverb is adverb to ask something that happened. For example; what, which, when, etc.

4. **Kind of Derivational**

a. **Prefixes**

The prefixes of English can be classified semantically into the following groups.[50] First, there is a large group that quantify over their base words meaning, for example, 'one' (*uni-, unilateral, unification*), 'twice or two' (*bi-, bilateral, bifurcation* and *di-,disyllabic, ditransitive*), 'many' (*multi-, multi-purpose, multi-lateral* and *poly-, polysyllabic, polyclinic*).

Second, there are numerous locative prefixes such as *circum-* 'around' (*circumnavigate, circumscribe*), *counter-* 'against' (*cuonterbalance, counterexample*), *inter-,* 'between' (*interbreed, intergalactic*). Third, there are temporal prefixes expressing notions like 'before' (*ante-, pre-* and *fore-,* as in *antechamber, antedate, preconcert, predetermine, premedical, forefather, foresee*), 'after' (*post-, postsructuralism, postmodify, postmodern*). A fourth group consists of prefixes expressing negation (*a(n)-,de-, dis-, in-, non-,un-*).

Numerous prefixes do not fit into any of the four groups, however, and express diverse notions, such as 'wrong, evil' (*mal, malfunction,malnutrition*), 'badly, wrongly' (*mis-, misinterpret, mistrial*). The vast majority of prefixes do not change the syntactic category of their base words, they merely act as modifiers. Furthermore, it can be observed that they generally attach to more than one kind of

---

[50]Ingo Plag, *Word Formationn in English,* University Siegen: Cambridge University Press, p. 123-124.

syntactic category (verb, adjective or noun) and do not influence the stress pattern of their bases.[51]

a) *a(n)-*

This prefix only occurs in Latinate adjectives. With denominal adjectives, the meaning can either be paraphrased as 'without color', *asexual* without sex', or can be paraphrased as 'not X', as in *ahistorical, asymmetrical.* Opposites formed by *a (n)-* are mostly contraries.

b) *anti-*

This polysemous prefix can express two different, but related notions. In words like *anti-war, anti-capitalistic, anti-scientific, anti-freeze, anti-glare* it can be paraphrased as 'against, opposing', with denominal, de-adjectival and deverbal derivatives behaving like adjectives (cf. *Anti-war movement, Are you pro-abortion or anti-abortion?, an anti-freeze liquid).* Another type of denominal *anti-* derivatives are nouns denothing something like 'the opposite of an X' or 'not having the proper characteristics of an X', as in *anti-hero, anti-particle, anti-professor.*

c) *de-*

This prefix attaches to verbs and nouns to form reversative or privative verb: *decolonize, decaffeinate, deflea, depollute, dethrone, deselect.* Very often, *de-* verbs are parasynthetic

---

[51]*Ibid.* p.124-127.

formations, as evidenced by, for example, *decaffeinate,* for which no verb **caffeinate* is attested.

d) dis-

Closely related semantically to *un-* and *de-,* the prefix *dis-* forms reversative verbs from foreign verbal bases: *disassemble, disassociate, discharge, disconnect, disproof, disqualify.* Apart from deriving reversative verbs, this suffix uniquely offers the possibility to negate the base verb in much the same way as clausal negation does: *disagree* 'not agree', *disobey* 'not obey', *dislike* 'not like'.

Dis- is also found inside nouns and nominalizations, but it is often unclear whether *dis-* is prefixed to the nominalization (cf. [*dis-*[*organization*]]) or to verb before the nominalizing suffix was attached (cf. [[*disorganiz*]-*ation*]). However, a few forms that suggest that prefixation to nouns is possible, conveying the meaning 'absence of X' or 'faulty X': *disanalogy, disfluency, disinormation.* Finally, *dis-* also occurs in lexicalized adjectives with the meaning 'not X': *dishonest, disspassionate, disproportional.*

e) in-

This negtive prefix is exclusively found with Latinate adjectives and the general negative meaning 'not':

incromprehensible, inactive, intolerable, implausible, illegal and irregular.

f) ***mis-***

Modifying verbs and nouns (with similar bracketing problems as those mentioned above for *dis-*), *mis-* conveys the meaning 'inaccurate(ly), wrong(ly)': *misalign, mispronounce, misreport, misstate, misjoinder, misdemeanor, mistrial.* The prefix is usually either unstressed or secondarily stressed. Exceptions with primary stress on the prefix are either lexicalizations (e.g. *mischief*) or some nouns that are segmentally homophonous with verbs: *miscount* (noun) vs. *miscount* (verb), *mísmatch*vs. *Mismátch, místprint*vs. *Misprínt.*

g) ***non-***

When attached to adjectives this prefix has the general meaning of 'not X': *non-biological, non- commercial, non-returnable.* In contrast to *un-* and *in-,* negation with *non-* does not carry evaluative force, as can be seen from the pairs *unscientific* vs. *non-scientific, irrational* vs. non-rational.

Noun prefixed with *non-* can either mean 'absence of X' or 'not having the character of X': *non-delivery, non-member, non-profit, non-stop.* The latter meaning has been extended to 'being X, but not having the proper characteristics of an X': *non-issue, non-answer.*

h) ***un-***

Un-can attach to verbs and sometimes nouns (mostly o native stock) to yield a reversative or privative ('remove X') meaning: *unbind, uncork, unleash, unsaddle, unwind, unwrap.* The prefix is also used to negate simple and derived adjectives: *uncomplicated, unhappy, unsuccessful and unreadable.*

b. Suffixes

According to Plag derivational suffixes can be divided into nominal suffix, adjectival suffixes, verbal suffixes and adverbial suffixes in the following explanations:[52]

1) Nominal Suffixes

Nominal suffixes are often employed to derive abstract nouns from verbs, adjectives and nouns. Such abstract nouns can denote actions, results of actions, or other related concepts, but also properties, qualities and the like. Another large group of nominal suffixes derives person nouns of various sorts.

a) ***–age***

This suffix derives nouns that express an activity (or its result) as in *coverage*, *leakage*, *spillage*, and denotes a collective entity or quantity, as in *acreage, voltage, yardage*. Furthermore, base words may be verbal or nominal words.

---

[52]*Ibid.,* p. 109-127.

b) **–al**

It denotes a number of verbs to form abstract nouns such an action or the result of an action, such as *arrival*, *overthrowal, recital,referral, renewal*, and base words for nominal *-al* all have their main stress on the last syllable.

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

Attaching mostly to verbs, *-ance*creates action nouns such as *absorbance*, *riddance*, *retardance*. This suffix is closely related to *-cy/-ce*, which attaches productively to adjectives ending in the suffix *-ant/-ent*.

d) **–ant**

This suffix forms count nouns referring to persons (often in technical or legal discourse, for example: *applicant, defendant, disclaimant*) or to substances involved in biological, chemical, or physical processes (*attractant, dispersant, etchant, suppressant*).

e) **-cy/-ce**

This suffix attaches productively to adjectives in *-ant/-ent* (e.g. *convergence, efficiency, emergence*), but also to nouns ending in this string, as is the case with *agency, presidency, regency*. Furthermore, adjectives in *-ate* are eligible bases (*adequacy, animacy, intimacy*). It can also denote states,

properties, qualities or facts (*convergence* can, for example, be paraphrased as 'the fact that something converges').

f) –dom

The suffix *-dom* is semantically closely related to *-hood,* and *-ship*, which express similar concepts. *-dom* attaches to nouns to form nominals which can be paraphrased as 'state of being X' as in *apedom, clerkdom, slumdom, yuppiedom*, or which refer to collective entities, such as *professordom*, *studentdom,* or denote domains, realms or territories as in *kingdom, cameldom, maoridom.*

g) –ee

It derives nouns denoting sentient entities that are involved in an event as non-volitional participants Thus, *employee* denotes someone who is employed, a *biographee* is someone who is the subject of a biography, and a *standee* is someone who is forced to stand (on a bus, for example), moreover, verbal bases are most frequent, but nominal bases are not uncommon (e.g. *festschriftee, pickpocketee*).

h) –eer

This suffix meaning can be paraphrased as 'person who deals in, is concerned with, or has to do with X', as evidenced in forms such as *auctioneer, budgeteer, cameleer, mountaineer, pamphleteer.*

i) *–er* (and its orthographic variant *-or*)

The suffix *–er* can be seen as closely related to *-ee*, as its derivatives frequently signify entities that are active or participants in an event (e.g. *teacher, singer, writer* etc.). This is, however, only a sub-class of *–er* derivatives, and there is a wide range of forms with quite heterogeneous meanings. Apart from performers of actions for 31 instrument nouns such as *blender, mixer, steamer, toaster*, nouns denoting entities associated with an activity such as *diner, lounger, trainer, etc*. Furthermore, *-er* is used to create person nouns indicating place of origin or residence (e.g. *Londoner*, *New Yorker, Highlander, New Englander*). This heterogeneity suggests that the semantics of *–er* should be described as rather underspecified, simply meaning something like 'person or thing having to do with X'.

j) *–Er*

It is often described as a deverbal suffix, but there are numerous forms (not only inhabitant names) that are derived on the basis of nouns (e.g. *sealer, whaler, noser, souther*), numerals (e.g. *fiver, tenner*), or even phrases (*four-wheeler, fourthgrader*) in addition, other words such as *conductor, oscillator, compressor*.

k) -(e)ry

Formations in *-(e)ry*refer to locations which stand in some kind of connection to what is denoted by the base. More specific meanings such as 'place where a specific activity is carried out' or 'place where a specific article or service is available' could be postulated (for example, *bakery, brewery, fishery, pottery* or *cakery, carwashery, eatery*), but examples such as *mousery, cannery, rabbitry* speak for an underspecified meaning, which is then fleshed out for each derivative on the basis of the meaning of the base. In addition to the locations, *-(e)ry* derivatives can also denote collectivities (as in *confectionery, cutlery, machinery, pottery*), or activities (as in *summitry* 'having many political summits', *crookery* 'foul deeds').

l) –ess

This suffix derives a comparatively small number of mostly established nouns referring exclusively to female humans and animals (for examples; *princess, stewardess, lioness,tigress, waitress*).

m) –ful

The nominal suffix *–ful* derives measure partitive nouns (similar to expressions such as *a lot of*, *a bunch of*) from

nominal base words that can be construed as containers: *bootful, cupful, handful, tumblerful, stickful*.

n) -hood

Similar in meaning to *-dom*, *-hood* derivatives express concepts such as 'state' (as in *adulthood, childhood, farmerhood),* and 'collectivity' (as in *beggarhood, Christianhood, companionhood*).

o) -an (and its variants -ian, -ean)

Nouns denoting persons and places can take the suffix *-an*. Derivatives seem to have the general meaning 'person having to do with X' (as in *technician, historian, Utopian*), which, where   appropriate, can be more specifically interpreted as 'being from X' or 'being of X origin' (e.g. *Bostonian, Lancastrian, Mongolian, Scandinavian*), or 'being the follower or supporter of X': *Anglican, Chomskyan, Smithsonian*.

p) –ing

Derivatives with this deverbal suffix denote processes (*begging, running, sleeping*) or results (*building*, *wrapping*, *stuffing*). The suffix is somewhat peculiar among derivational suffixes in that it is primarily used as a verbal inflectional suffix forming present participles. Examples of pertinent

derivatives are abundant since *–ing* can attach to practically any verb.

q) *–ion*

Derivatives in *-ion* denote events or results of processes. As such, verbal bases are by far the most frequent, but there is also a comparatively large number of forms where *–ation* is directly attached to nouns without any intervening verb in *–ate*. These forms are found primarily in scientific discourse with words denoting chemical or other substances as bases (e.g. *expoxide - epoxidation*, *sediment - sedimentation*).

r) *–ism*

Forming abstract nouns from other nouns and adjectives, derivatives belonging to this category denote the related concepts state, condition, attitude, system of beliefs or theory, as in *blondism, Parkinsonism, conservatism, revisionism, Marxism*, etc.

s) *-ist*

This suffix derives nouns denoting persons, mostly from nominal and adjectival bases (*ballonist, careerist, fantasist, minimalist*). All nouns in *-ism* which denote attitudes, beliefs or theories have potential counterparts in *-ist*. The semantics of *–ist* can be considered underspecified 'person having to do with X', with the exact meaning of the derivative being a

function of the meaning of the base and further inferencing. Thus, a balloonist is someone who ascends in a balloon, a careerist is someone who is chiefly interested in her/his career, while a fundamentalist is a supporter or follower of fundamentalism.

t) *–ity*

Words belonging to this morphological category are nouns denoting qualities, states or properties usually derived from Latinate adjectives (e.g. *curiosity, productivity, profundity, solidity*). Apart from the compositional meaning just described, many *–ity* derivatives are **lexicalized,** i.e. they have become permanently incorporated into the mental lexicons of speakers, thereby often adopting idiosyncratic meanings, such as *antiquity* 'state of being antique' or 'ancient time', *curiosity* 'quality of being curious' and 'curious thing'. All adjectives ending in the suffixes *-able, -al* and *–ic* or in the phonetic string [Id] can take *–ity* as a nominalizing suffix (*readability, formality,erraticity, solidity*).

u) *–ment*

This suffix derives action nouns denoting processes or results from (mainly) verbs, for example (e.g. *assessment, endorsement, involvement, treatment*).

v) *–ness*

Forming *-ness* is perhaps the most productive suffix of English. With regard to potential base words, *-ness* is much less restrictive than its close semantic relative *-ity*. The suffix can attach to practically any adjective, for example *thingness*, etc.

w) *–ship*

This suffix *-ship* forms nouns denoting 'state' or 'condition', similar in meaning to derivatives in *-age, -hood* and *-dom*. Base words are mostly person nouns as in *apprenticeship, clerkship, friendship, membership, statesmanship, vicarship*. Extensions of the basic senses occur, for example 'office', as in *postmastership*, or 'activity', as in *courtship* 'courting' or *censorship* 'censoring'.

2) Adjectival Suffixes

The adjectival suffixes of English can be subdivided into two major groups. A large proportion of derived adjectives are **relational adjectives**, whose role is simply to relate the noun to the adjective qualifies to the base word of the derived adjective. These suffixes have a lot form, they are:

a) *–able*

This suffix chiefly combines with transitive and intransitive verbal bases, as in *deterrable* and *perishable*, respectively, as well as with nouns, as in *serviceable*, *fashionable*. The semantics of deverbal *-able* forms seem to involve two different cases, which have been described as 'capable of being X' (cf. *breakable, deterrable, readable*), and 'liable or disposed to X' (cf. *agreeable*, *perishable*, *variable; changeable* can have both meanings). There are also some lexicalized denominal forms with the meaning 'characterized by X', as in *fashionable* (but cf. the concurrent compositional meaning 'that can be fashioned')*, knowledgeable, reasonable*.

b) *–al*

This relational suffix attaches almost exclusively to Latinate bases (*accidental, colonial, cultural, federal, institutional, and modal*). All derivatives have stress either on their penultimate or antepenultimate syllable.

c) *–ary*

This suffix usually attaches to nouns, as in *complementary, legendary, revolutionary, etc*.

d) *–ed*

This suffix derives adjectives with the general meaning 'having X, being provided with X', as in *broad-minded, pig-headed, wooded*. The majority of derivatives are based on compounds or phrases (*empty-headed, pig-headed, air-minded, fair-minded*).

e) *–esque*

This suffix *–esque* is attached to both common and proper nouns to convey the notion of 'in the manner or style of X': *Chaplinesque, Hemingwayesque, picturesque, Kafkaesque.*

f) *–ful*

Adjectival *–ful* has the general meaning 'having X, being characterized by X' and is typically attached to abstract nouns, as in *beautiful, insightful, purposeful, tactful*, but verbal bases are not uncommon (e.g. *forgetful, mournful, resentful*).

g) *–ic*

It attaches to foreign bases (nouns and bound roots). Quite a number of *–ic* derivatives have variant forms in *–ical* (*electric - electrical, economic - economomical, historic - historical, magic - magical* etc.).

h) –ish

This suffix can attach to adjectives (e.g. *clearish, freeish, sharpish*), numerals (*fourteenish,*) and syntactic phrases (e.g. *stick- in-the-muddish, out-of-the-wayish, silly-little-me-late-again-ish*) to convey the concept of 'somewhat X, vaguely X'. When attached to nouns referring to human beings the derivatives can be paraphrased as 'of the character of X, like X', which is obviously closely related to the meaning of the non-denominal derivatives. Examples of the latter kind are *James-Deanish, monsterish, summerish, townish, vampirish.* Some forms have a pejorative meaning, e.g. *childish*.

i) –ive

This suffix forms adjectives mostly from Latinate verbs and bound roots that end in[t] or [s]: *connective, explosive, fricative, offensive, passive, preventive, primitive, receptive, speculative*. Some nominal bases are also attested, as in *instinctive, massive, etc*.

j) –less

Semantically, *-less* can be seen as antonymic to *-ful*, with the meaning being paraphrasable as 'without X': *expressionless, hopeless, speechless, thankless*.

k) *–ly*

This suffix is appended to nouns and adjectives. With base nouns denoting persons, - *ly* usually conveys the notion of 'in the manner of X' or 'like an X', as in *brotherly, daughterly, fatherly, womanly*. Other common types of derivative have bases denoting temporal concepts (e.g. *half-hourly, daily, monthly*) or directions (*easterly, southwesterly*).

l) *–ous*

This suffix derives adjectives from nouns and bound roots, the vast majority being of Latinate origin (*curious, barbarous, famous, synonymous, tremendous*).

3) Verbal suffixes

There are four verbal suffixes which derive verbs from other categories (mostly adjectives and nouns), *-ate, -en, -ify* and *-ize*. Here the followings explanation:

a) *–ate*

The forms ending in this suffix represent a rather heterogeneous group. There is a class of derivatives with chemical substances as bases, which systematically exhibit so-called ornative and resultative meanings. These can be paraphrased as 'provide with X' (ornative), as in *fluorinate*, or 'make into X' (resultative), as in *methanate*, fomations (*formate< formation*), local analogies (*stereoregular*

:stereoregulate :: regular : regulate) conversion (*citrate*), *nitrosyl - nitrosate, mercury -mercurate*.

b) **–en**

The suffix *-en* attaches to monosyllables that end in a plosive, fricative or affricate. Most bases are adjectives (e.g. *blacken, broaden, quicken, ripen*), but a few nouns can also be found (e.g. *strengthen, lengthen*). The meaning of *-en* formations can be described as causative 'make (more) X'.

c) **–ify**

This suffix attaches to base words that are either monosyllabic, stressed on the final syllable or end in unstressed /I/. These restrictions have the effect that *-ify*is in (almost) complementary distribution with the suffix *-ize*.

d) **–ize**

Both *–ize* and *–ify* are polysemous suffixes, which can express a whole range of relatedconcepts such as locative, ornative, causative/factitive, resultative, inchoative, performative, similative. Locatives can be paraphrased as 'put into X', as in *computerize*, *hospitalize*, *tubify*. *Patinatize*, *fluoridize*, *youthify*are ornative examples ('provide with X'), *randomize*, *functionalize*, *humidify* are causative ('make (more) X'), *carbonize*, *itemize*, *trustify* and *Nazify* are resultative ('make into X'), *aerosolize* and *mucify* are

inchoative ('become X'), *anthropologize* and *speechify* are performative ('perform X'), *cannibalize*, *vampirize* can be analyzed as similative ('act like X').The other examples as in *feminine - feminize* and *emphasis - emphasize*.

4) **Adverbial Suffixes**

The presence of this exclusively de-adjectival suffix is for the most part syntactically triggered and obligatory, and it can therefore be considered inflectional. However, in some formations there is a difference in meaning between the adjective and the adverb derived by *–ly* attachment: *shortly, hardly* and *dryly* are semantically distinct from their base words and *hotly, coldly* and *darkly* can only have metaphorical senses. Such changes of meaning are unexpected for inflectional suffix, which speaks against the classification of adverbial *–ly* as inflectional. And then, **-wise,** this suffix derives adverbs from nouns, with two distinguishable sub-groups: manner/dimension adverbs, and so-called view-point adverbs. The former adverb type has the meaning 'in the manner of X, like X' as in *the towel wound sarong wise about his middle*, or indicates a spatial arrangement or movement, as in *the cone can be sliced lengthwise*.

5. **Problems of Derivational Affixes**

Morphological research aims to describe and explain the morphological patterns of human languages. Languages make an important distinction between two kind of words-content words and function words. Nouns, verbs,

adjectives and adverbs are the content words. Different languages may express the same concept using words of different grammatical classes.[53]

Derivational affixes in English include prefixes and suffixes. Most of the derivational suffixes and a few prefixes change the part of speech of the word they are added to (happy (adjective) / happ*iness* (noun); able (adjective) / *en*able (verb)). Some of the affixes, especially prefixes, also alter the meaning of the word in a substantial way (judge/*pre*judge; happy/*un*happy; care/care*less*). Words which contain affixes are sometimes called complex words.

First of all, learners of English Language have a difficulty about the meaning of the prefixes and suffixes. That is to say, some prefixes and suffixes change the meaning of the word they are attached to in parallel with their own meaning. For example, the prefix *sub-* means *under*, and it changes the meaning of the word it is attached to in the same way like submarine and subtitle. [54] However, the situation is not the same every time. The suffix –*less* means *without*, but in the word *priceless* the meaning changes. It means *very valuable*. So, the learners may experience a kind of confusion. This is problem area. This problem can be solved only by working on such exceptional situations.

---

[53] Victoria Fromkin, Robert Rodman, Nina Hyams, *An Introduction to Language 7th ed,* p. 73.

[54] Ismail Firat Altay, *Ways of Creating Prefixes and Suffixes and Foreign Language Teaching*, (Online), 2006, p. 13-14. URL: http://www.turkofoni.org/files/ways_of_creating_prefixes_and_suffixes_and_foreign_language_te aching__.firat_altay-h._-2006.pdf. (Accessed on Monday, March 3th 2015).

Secondly, learners may have some problems about suffixes but not prefixes, because suffixes may change the part of speech of a word. For example, the words establish is a verb. When the noun forming suffix *–ment* is added to this word the verb changes into a noun as *establishment*. The change in the part of speech of the word may cause problems for some learners. The reason is that, they may have difficulty in classifying this noun forming, verb forming, adjective forming and adverb forming suffixes. This is true for learners of all kind. However, as much practice is carried out, and as these suffixes are learned cognitively, this difficulty begins to disappear. In sum, learners may easily differentiate different kinds of suffixes and their meanings.

Another difficulty for learners of English Language in learning prefixes and suffixes is that which allomorph or form of the same prefix or suffix to use. For example, new learners of English may say *in* instead of *un*, or *inforgetible* instead of *unforgettable*. This is partially related with the spelling system of English; however, different forms of prefixes and suffixes should be accepted as the main reason of this confusion. So, the solution must be looked for in this respect. The only way out seems practice again. It does not only provide familiarization with the vocabulary items, but also helps the learners understand the logic of such changes. As a result, exposure to the target language has many positive effects.

To sum up, in comprehending prefixes and suffixes, learners may come by with some difficulties as a natural outcome of learning a foreign language. However, none of these problems are unsolvable.