

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Theory is an important thing to support an analysis. The analysis used some theories for basic information that can be used for analysis the data. The theories are based contrastive analysis and morphology. The review of related literature here includes previous research, contrastive analysis, morphology rules and noun formation rules.

2.1 Previous Research

The previous study is taken from Jumanto (1992), the student IKIP Semarang, entitled "Contrastive Analysis of English and Indonesian Noun Phrase". The result of this research shows that there are similarities and differences between English and Indonesian Noun Phrase. The writer is trying to answer problems or confusions around the phrases highlighting linguistics corpora.

The study Contrastive Analysis also has been conducted by Ana Krismiyati (2008), the student of Muhamadiyah University of Surakarta, entitled "A Contrastive analysis of Noun Formation between English and Indonesian used in Jakarta post and suaramerdeka newspaper". The result of this research focus on the noun formed between English and Indonesian by derivation. The writer gets the data from Jakarta post and suaramerdeka newspaper.

From both researcher are not requiring for an analyze Noun Formations by suffixes. The result focuses on the contrastive analysis between English Noun Formations with suffix and Their Indonesian Equivalent in English Merriam Webster on-line dictionary, Bilingual printed dictionary by Echols and Shadily (2014), and Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia (KBBI) on-line.

2.2 Contrastive Analysis

A Contrastive Analysis has been defined in many definitions. According to Robert Lado in his book *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957), "a contrastive analysis is possible to identify the areas of difficulty a particular foreign language will present for native speakers of another language by systematically comparing the

two languages and cultures". Fisiak (1971,1981) state that "theoretical and applied Contrastive Analysis is probably not categorical, it provides a useful dichotomy for the characterization of the main objectives pursued by contrastive linguists". Other definition mentioned by Gass and Larry (2001,72) "Contrastive Analysis is a way of comparing languages in order to determine potential errors for the ultimate purpose of isolating what needs to be learning and what does not need to be in a SLL situation".

The objective of Contrastive Analysis is to identify the similarities and the differences between the two languages being compared. This analysis is based on the assumption that the differences may cause learning problems whereas similar elements will not. It is also implicitly taken in traditional grammar writing based on the blueprint of Latin, whose linguistic system has often been superimposed on modern language, thus implying a comparison. Another analysis is called Error Analysis (EA). This analysis is carried out by identify errors analysis such as verb form, articles, preposition, pronouns etc. Similar to what is shown by Ramelan, in Jumanto (2017) about making the best use of value of CA, Error Analysis (EA) can accompany CA in predicting learning problems.

Contrastive Analysis can be broken down to a set of component procedures. The five steps for making a systematic comparison and contrast of any two languages according to Narsin Abdi (2010) are as follow:

- 1) Selection
 - a. It is impossible to compare every sound, word, structure and etc. of two languages, so the analysis should be limited.
 - b. He/she can do the selection through:
 - Personal experience
 - Bilingual intuition
 - Error analysis
 - c. In this step you should decide what is to be compared with what.
 - d. Two elements to be compared in two languages should be similar in

some extent.

2) Description

- a. The selected materials will be linguistically described.
- b. Two languages should be described within the same theory.
- c. For describing the sound systems of two languages we use structural phonology.
- d. For studying and describing syntax and morphology, there is no specific theory.
- e. The focus is on differences not similarities.

3) Comparison

- a. The similarities and differences are compared in three levels:
 - Form
 - Meaning
 - Distribution of items in 2 languages which have been collected
- b. No comparison is possible without a full description.
- c. The basic elements and structures should be compared with each other.

4) Prediction

- a. Now the contrastive analyst can predict for the differences and similarities of two languages.
- b. He / she should judge whether these similarities and differences are problematic or not (deviant structures and interference structures are predicted.)
- c. Sometimes deviants reflect the structures of mother tongue.

5) Verification

- a. It is the final step in a contrastive study.
- b. T
to find out if the predictions made in the forth step (prediction) is true in reality or not.

2.3 Morphology

According to Rochelle Lieber in his book *Introduction Morphology* (2009) “morphology is the study of word formation, including the ways new words are coined in the languages of the world, and the way forms of words are varied depending on how they’re used in sentences”. Other definition mentioned by Merriam-Webster (1928) (www.merriam-webster.com) “morphology is the system of word-forming elements (such as inflection, derivation, and compounding) and processes in a language”.

Fromkin and Rodman (2013) state that “Languages make an important distinction between two kinds of words—content words and function words”. Content words are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. These words denote concepts such as objects, actions, attributes, and ideas that we can think about like *children, build, beautiful, and seldom*. Content words are sometimes called the open class words because we can and regularly do add new words to these classes, such as *Facebook* (noun), *blog* (noun, verb), *frack* (verb), *online* (adjective, adverb), and *blingy* (adjective).

Other classes of words do not have clear lexical meanings or obvious concepts associated with them, including conjunctions such as *and, or, and but*; prepositions such as *in* and *of*; the articles *the* and *a/an*, and pronouns such as *it*. These kinds of words are called function words because they specify grammatical relations and have little or no semantic content. For example, the articles indicate whether a noun is definite or indefinite *the* boy or *a* boy. The preposition *of* indicates possession, as in “the book of yours,” but this word indicates many other kinds of relations too. The *it* in *it’s raining* and *the archbishop found it advisable* are further examples of words whose function is purely grammatical; they are required by the rules of syntax and we can hardly do without them. Function words are sometimes called closed class words. This is because it is difficult to think of any conjunctions, prepositions, or pronouns that have recently entered the language.

Morphology deals with the systematic correspondence between the form and meaning of words. Sometimes it is also referred to in large sense as word formation. The study of these regularities comprises the domains of inflection and word formation. Inflection concerns the expression of morph syntactic properties, sometimes required by a specific syntactic context. Word formation deals with the creation of new (complex) words by various morphological mechanisms such as compounding, affixation, truncation, and segmental and tonal alternations.

It is also possible to define morphological rules of simultaneous affixation and truncation, as well as combinations of any of the simple rule types. A circumfix, for instance, may be defined by a rule which simultaneously attaches a prefix and a suffix. Finally, so-called zero morphemes are captured simply by a rule which copies its input to its output. Typically, a zero morpheme would be only one sub rule of a given rule. Alternatively (as suggested by Anderson 1992), zero morphemes will often not correspond to any affixation process whatsoever, and therefore need not be parsed.

Most words are a pairing of sound and meaning, and the meaning of a sentence is computed on the basis of the meanings of the constituent words, and the way in which they are combined. The relation between sound and meaning may be arbitrary. The word *singer* is therefore a complex word, as opposed to the word *sing*, which has no internal morphological structure and is therefore a simplex word. The morpheme *sing* is classified as a lexical morpheme, as it can occur as a word of its own, whereas the morpheme *-er*, which serves to evoke the meaning 'agent of the action' when combined with verbs, is a bound morpheme of a particular type, a suffix, that is attached at the right edge of a base word.

In morphology, the most common form of word formation is compounding, the combination of two or more lexemes into a complex word, such as the English word *songbook* composed of the nouns *song* and *book*. Many languages make also use of derivation, the process in which bound morphemes (affixes) such as *-er* are attached to a base word. These two mechanisms are instances of concatenative

morphology, in which complex words are created by means of the concatenation or stringing together, of affixes and words.

In addition, languages may also allow for deriving new words from existing ones by only changing the syntactic category of a word. This is referred to as conversion. Examples are the English verbs *to Skype* and *to text* mentioned above which are verbs derived from the nouns *Skype* and *text* respectively, without this derivational relationship being marked overtly by means of an affix. In English, the conversion of nouns to verbs is a very productive process. Conversely, nouns may be derived from verbs in this way, as is illustrated by nouns such as *fall* and *help*.

Word formation can also take place by what is called back formation: a word is reinterpreted as a complex word, and its base word is then created afterwards. A classic example is the verb *to babysit*, back formed from the compound noun *babysitter*. Another example is the formation of the verb *to buttle* 'to do what a butler does', from the noun *butler*, by interpreting its ending *-er* as a suffix *-er*.

Word formation by means of affixation means that an affix is added to a base form. The affix can appear before the base word (prefixation), after the base word (suffixation), or, far more rarely, within the base word. Examples of English prefixes are *un-* and *re-*. The negative prefix *un-* can attach to verbs (*un-do*), adjectives (*un-kind*) and nouns (*un-belief*). The suffix *-ment* attaches to verbs (and may also appear in nouns and adjective derived from such verbs), as in *move-ment*.

2.4 Noun Formations Rules

Noun-formation is a sub-field of word-formation, which is a branch of lexical morphology, defined as "The study of morphological relations among lexemes" (Matthews, 1991: 37). Noun-formation as a sub-process of word-formation is a complex area of research in both Standard English (Indo-European language, henceforth referred to as English).

Noun-formation in English has the same problem of word-formation. Bauer declares that "Unfortunately, there is little agreement on the methodology or basic theoretical background for the study of word-formation that the field is currently a

confused one” (Bauer 1983: 01). Thus, there is no single theory of noun-formation in English, and consequently no definite procedure for compiling the data to be gathered.

The present study is an attempt in contrastive analysis aimed at identifying, analyzing, and contrasting the process of noun-formation and its potential productivity. It also aims at revealing the possible universals of the two languages in the field of noun-formation, and to determine as much as possible the similarities and differences between them.

Noun-formation has not been tackled separately as a subject in itself, but only within the broader subject of „word-formation, and there is no separate methodology to be followed. “There is no one body of accepted doctrine of the subject to be followed, so that researchers are largely having to make up their own theory and procedures as they go along” (Bauer, 1983: 6).

In noun formations, affixes can be classified with reference to the word-class that is produced when they are added to a base; alternatively, they can be classified according to the grammatical class of the base to which they are added. Noun formations with suffixes according to Bauer (1983:6) divided into 19 types, are as follows:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Noun formations with suffix –age | = mile <u>age</u> |
| 2. Noun formations with suffix –ery | = machin <u>ery</u> |
| 3. Noun formations with suffix –dom | = freed <u>om</u> |
| 4. Noun formations with suffix –hood | = brother <u>hood</u> |
| 5. Noun formations with suffix –ism | = human <u>ism</u> |
| 6. Noun formations with suffix –ship | = friend <u>ship</u> |
| 7. Noun formations with suffix –eer | = engineer <u>er</u> |
| 8. Noun formations with suffix –er | = villager <u>er</u> |
| 9. Noun formations with suffix –ess | = lion <u>ess</u> |
| 10. Noun formations with suffix –ette | = leather <u>ette</u> |
| 11. Noun formations with suffix –let | = stream <u>let</u> |
| 12. Noun formations with suffix –ling | = nurs <u>ling</u> |

13. Noun formations with suffix –al	= arrival <u>al</u>
14. Noun formations with suffix –ant	= assist <u>ant</u>
15. Noun formations with suffix –ation	= generat <u>ion</u>
16. Noun formations with suffix –ee	= kisse <u>ee</u>
17. Noun formations with suffix –or	= act <u>or</u>
18. Noun formations with suffix –ment	= movem <u>ent</u>
19. Noun formations with suffix –ure	= closu <u>re</u>

2.5 Indonesian Noun Formations

According to Kridalaksana (2007:25), there are five types of Indonesian affixes. Indonesian affixation is prefiks (prefix), sufiks (suffix), infiks (infix), Cimulfixs, and Confixs.

1. Prefiks (prefix)

Prefiks is an affix that is placed in the front of basic words (free morphemes). According to S. TakdirAlisjahbana (1980 : 40), prefix di-, ke-, ter- has function to declare place and pasif form.

Example: me- (mereproduksi)

di- (diakses)

ke- (kedepan)

ter- (terdeteksi)

per- (perkuda)

se- (sebagai)

ber- (berjalan)

2. Sufiks (suffix)

Sufiks is an affix which is placed in the behind of basic words.

Example: -an (bacaan)

-i (surgawi)

-in (jalanin)

3. Infiks (infix)

Infix is an affix that is placed inside the basic of words.

Example: -el (gelembung)

-em (gemetar)

1. Cimulfixs (simulfik)

Simulfiks is an affix which is manifest by segmental characteristics that melted in the bottom. It functions to form verb.

Example: Soto (nyoto)

Sate (nyate)

2. Confixs (konfik)

Konfiks is an affix which consists of two elements, in front of basic verb and behind the basic verb.

Example: me-kan (merapikan)

pe-an (pelatihan)

per-an (perkuliahan)

ber-an (berkaitan)