

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In chapter two the writer will criticise the relationship between morphology and phonology. Morphology and phonology have close interaction. Both of them can apply in tandem. Firstly, the writer will explain some aspects of morphology such as, morpheme, roots, affixes, bases, and derivation. Secondly, the writer will explain the aspects of phonology such as, sound classes, vowels, consonants, parts of speech, and the last word sounds.

2.1 Morpheme

In studying morphology, we deal with word structure. The claim that words have structure might come as a surprise because normally speakers think of words as indivisible units of meaning. This is probably due to the fact that many words are morphologically simple. Morpheme is the smallest significant units of grammar (Todd, 1984:41). There are two kind of morpheme. Some words consist of a single morpheme which is called free morpheme. For example, the word *train* cannot be divided into smaller parts (*tr* and *ain*) that carry information about its meaning or function. Such words are said to be simple. However, words that contain two or more morphemes that must be attached to another element is said to be bound. For example *hunter*, *hunters*, *active*, *activate*, etc. It has proven that many English words are morphologically complex. They can be broken down into smaller units that are meaningful.

2.1.1 Roots

A root is the irreducible core of a word, with absolutely nothing else attached to it. It is the part that is always present, possibly with some modification, in the various manifestations of a lexeme. The root morpheme carries the major component of the word's meaning and belongs to a lexical category (O' Grady, 1996: 135). Many words contain a root standing on its own. Roots which are capable of standing independently are called free morphemes. For example, *walk* is a root and it appears in the set of word forms that instantiate the lexeme *walk* such as *walk*, *walks*, *walking*, and *walked*.

2.1.2 Affixes

An affix is a morpheme that only occurs when attached to some other morpheme or morpheme such as a root or stem or base. Obviously, by definition affixes are bound morphemes. English affixes are mostly known in two types. Firstly, prefixes – a prefix is an affix attached before a root or stem or base like *re-*, *un-*, and *in-*.

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

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

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

There are five suffixes that function as agent those are, *-er, -or, -ist, -ian, and -ant*. The suffix *-er /-or* create agentive nouns with the meaning someone who does whatever is designated by the verb. The fact allows us to conclude that the base with which *-er /-or* combine in the word must be a verb rather than a noun.

dance – dancer

act – actor

sing – singer

direct – director

farm – farmer

operate – operator

employ – employer

translate – translator

The suffix *-ist* can form a very large number of nouns that create as agentive nominal with the meaning ‘advocate of, follower of, supporter of or practitioner of whatever is designated by the input noun’. But do not have an authority to use it with absolutely any noun.

advocate of: calvin - calvinist

★ commune – communist ★

follower of: buddha – buddhist

mohammed - *mohammedist

Practitioner of: piano – pianist

drums – drummer - *drummist

The suffix *-ian* can form from a number of nouns that create as agentive nominal with the meaning ‘adherent to, relating to, citizen of.

adherent to: darwin – darwinian

republic – republican

relating to: elizabeth – elizabethan

shakespeare – shakespearean

Citizen of: indonesia – indonesian

paris – parisian

The suffix *-ant* turns a verbal base into an agentive nominal. It is similar meaning to *-er* but is very fussy. The meaning of words created by suffixing *-ant* is inconsistent. For instance, a *defendant* has the narrow interpretation of a person sued in a law court not just any one who defends oneself; an *accountant* is not merely anyone who renders an account or calculation but a professional who makes up business accounts, and so on. Katamba (1993: 69) says that the element of bound morphemes is affixes. No word may contain only an affix standing on its own, or even a number of affixes strung together. In affixation the chances of a particular affix appearing may crucially depend on characteristics of the base to which it is to be attached or to base through parts of speech and through the last word sounds. Based on the explanation above Kenstowicz stated (1994: 9) that agent is person acting on behalf of another; person or thing producing an effect.

2.1.3. Bases

It might appear that the problems with bases would be very similar to the problems with affixes. Bases are far more idiosyncratic in their behavior and do not show regular patterns of occurrences with affixes. A base is any unit whatsoever to which affixes of any kind can be added, (Katamba, 1993: 45). In many cases, the base is also the root. The affixes attached to a base may be inflectional affixes selected for syntactic reasons or derivational affixes which alter the meaning or grammatical

category of the base. An unadorned root like *boy* can be a base since it can have attached to it inflectional affixes like *-s* to form the plural *boys* or derivational affixes like *-ish* to turn the noun *boy* into the *adjective* *boyish*. In the other words, all roots are bases.

2.2 Derivation

Lexical forms are mapped onto surface forms in a series of steps, each defined by a rule: the sequence of representations thus obtained constitutes a derivation. Sometimes the presence of a derivational affix causes a major grammatical change, involving the base from one word-class into another.

Derivational affixes are used to create new lexemes, which bring about a shift in the grammatical class of a base as well as a possible change in meaning. (Katamba, 1993: 50).

Commonly, derivational is formed from prefixes and suffixes. It will be obvious that in order to determine which morpheme a particular affix morph belongs to, it is often essential to know the base to which it attaches because the same phonological form may represent different morphemes depending on the base with which it co-occurs. Derivation does not usually apply freely to all members of a given category.

2.3 Sound Classes

The sounds of language can be grouped into sound classes based on the phonetic properties that they share. All voiced sounds, for example, form a class, as

do all voiceless sounds. The most basic division among sounds is into two major classes, vowels and consonants.

2.3.1 Vowels

Vowels are produced with little obstruction in the vocal tract and are generally voiced. Vowels are made by voiced air passing through different mouth-shapes. The differences in the shape of the mouth are caused by different positions of the tongue and of the lips. The shape of the cavity can be further altered by protruding the lips to produce rounded vowels, or by lowering the velum to produce a nasal vowel. Finally, vowels may be tense or lax, depending on the degree of vocal tract constriction during their articulation.

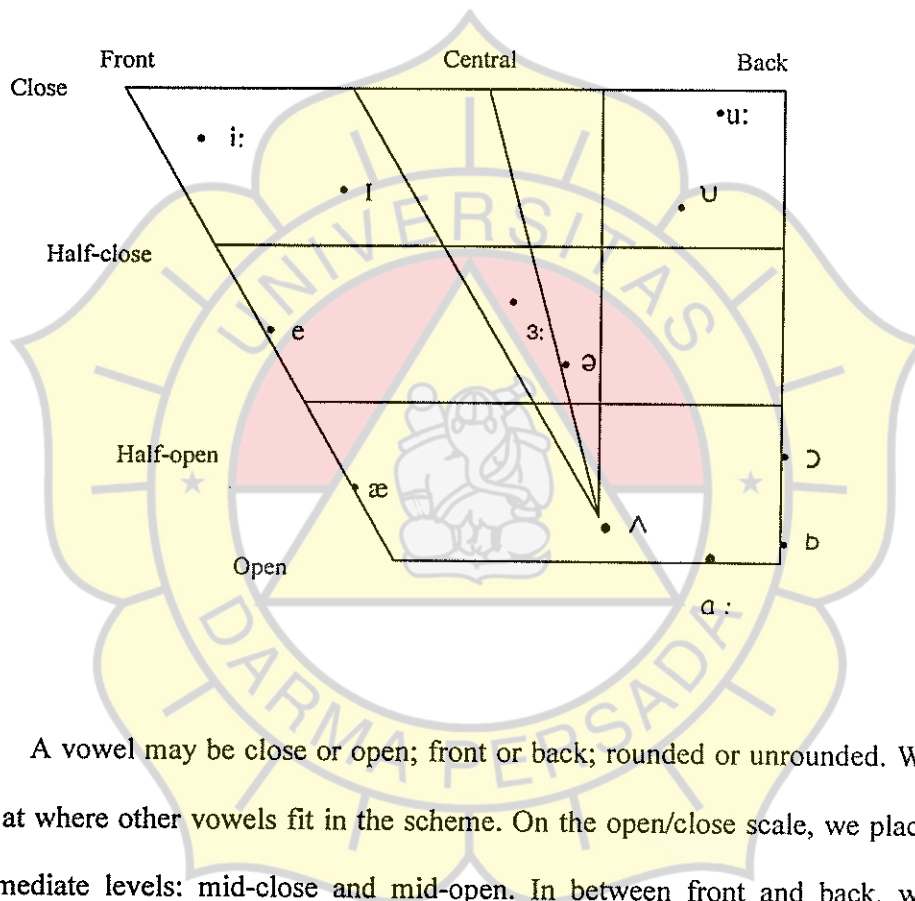
Vowels are distinguished from consonants primarily by a less radical degree of constriction imposed by the lips and tongue on the flow of air through the mouth. (Kenstowicz, 1994: 17).

There is much greater variation in the pronunciation of vowel phonemes than is the case with consonants. There is much greater variation in the pronunciation of vowel phonemes than is the case with consonants. the variety of British English that have chosen to describe has twelve monophthongs and eight diphthongs.. The vowels of monophthongs mean that there is no tongue movement during the production of the vowel sound. A diphthong, however, involves the movement of the tongue from one vowel position to another.

The characteristics of vowel:

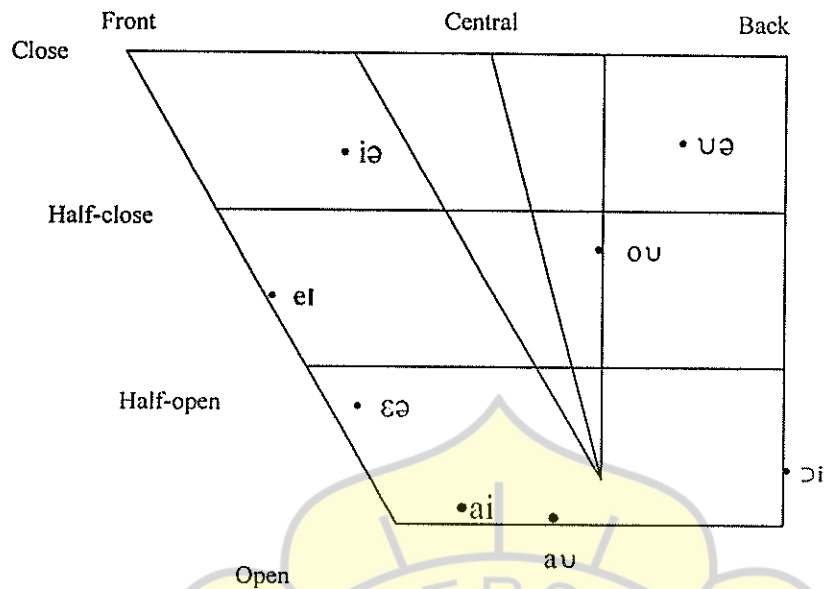
1. No obstruction nor stricture
2. Free air stream in the mouth cavity
3. Quite close vocal cords-vibration
4. Part of the tongue highest, high of the tongue.

ENGLISH VOWELS MONOPHTHONGS DIAGRAMME



A vowel may be close or open; front or back; rounded or unrounded. We can look at where other vowels fit in the scheme. On the open/close scale, we place two intermediate levels: mid-close and mid-open. In between front and back, we put central. At each point on the outside of the diagram we place two symbols: the left-hand item of each pair is unrounded, while the one on the right is rounded.

ENGLISH VOWELS DIPHTHONGS DIAGRAMME



A diphthong involves the movement of the tongue from one vowel position to another. The characteristics of diphthongs are necessarily a gliding sound, the first element is stressed, the second is reached, the first element is going to a higher position, or to the centre, hence closing diphthongs and centering diphthongs.

2.3.2 Consonants

A consonant is formed when the air stream is restricted or stopped at some point between the vocal cords and the lips. Actually consonants contribute more to making English understood than vowels do. And then, consonants are generally made by a definite interference of the vocal organs with the air stream, and so are easier to describe and understand.

The consonants form the bones, the skeleton of English words and give them their basic shape. The consonants are pronounced in very much the same way wherever English is spoken. (O' Connor, 1967: 32)

There are two good reasons for beginning with consonants rather than vowels. Firstly, consonants contribute more to making English understood than vowels do. Secondly, consonants are generally made by a definite interference of the vocal organs with the air stream and so are easier to describe and understand.

The characteristics of consonant:

1. Whether the sound is *voiced* or *voiceless*.
2. The *place of articulation* where the obstruction is made.
3. The *manner of articulation* or type of obstruction.
4. The *air stream* used to make the consonant.

ENGLISH CONSONANTAL DIAGRAMME

Manner Of Arti- Culation	place of Articu- lation	Labials		Dental	Alveolar	Palato Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
		Bila- bial	Labio- Dental						
Plosive	V	b			d			g	
	VL	p			t			k	
Nasal		m			n			ŋ	
Lateral					l				
Affricate	V					dʒ			
	VL					tʃ			
Rolled					r				
Flapped					ɾ				
Fricative	V		v	ð	z	ʒ			h
	VL		f	θ	s	ʃ			
Semi-Vowels	V	w							
	VL						j		

2.3.2.1 Place of Articulation

Each point at which the airstream can be modified to produce a different sound is called a place of articulation. Places of articulation are found at the lips, within the oral cavity, in the pharynx, and at the glottis. The parts of place articulation are *labial*, *dental*, *alveolar*, *palatoalveolar*, *palatal*, *velar*, and *glottal*. All of them will be explained in follow.

- **Labial**

Any sound made with closure or near-closure of the lips is said to be labial. Sounds involving both lips are termed bilabial; sounds involving the lower lip and upper teeth are called labiodentals. English includes the bilabials heard word initially in *peer*, *bin*, and *month*, and the labiodentals heard initially in *fire* and *yow*.

- **Dental**

Some phones are produced with the tongue placed against or near the teeth. Sounds made in this way are called dentals. If the tongue is placed between the teeth, the sound is said to be interdental. Interdentals in English include the initial consonants of the words *this* and *thing*.

- **Alveolar**

Within the oral cavity, a small ridge protrudes from just behind the upper front teeth. This is called the alveolar ridge. The tongue may touch or be brought near this ridge. Alveolar sounds are heard at the beginning of the following English words: *top*, *deer*, *soap*, *zip*, *lip*, and *neck*.

- **Palatoalveolar and Palatal**

Just behind the alveolar ridge, the roof of the mouth rises sharply. This area is known as the palatoalveolar area. The highest part of the roof of the

mouth is called the palate, and sounds produced with the tongue on or near this area are called palatals. Palatoalveolar consonants are heard in the following English words: *show*, *measure*, *chip*, and *judge*. The word initial phone in *yes* as a palatal glide.

- **Velar**

The soft area towards the rear of the roof of the mouth is called the velum. Sounds made with the tongue touching or near this position are called velars. Velars are heard in English at the beginning of the words *call* and *guy*, and at the end of the word *hang*. The glide heard word initially in *wet* is called a labiovelar, since the tongue is raised near the velum and the lips are rounded at the same time.

- **Glottal**

Sounds produced using the vocal folds as primary articulators are called glottals. The sound at the beginning of the English words *heave* and *hog* is made at the glottis.

2.3.2.2 Manner of Articulation

The lips, tongue, velum, and glottis can be positioned in different ways to produce different sound types. These various configurations are called the manner of articulation. The parts of manner articulation are *plosive*, *nasal*, *lateral*, *affricate*, *rolled*, *fricative*, and *semi-vowel*. All of them will be explained in follow.

- **Plosives**

Plosive involve complete closure at some point in the mouth. Pressure builds up behind the closure and when the air is suddenly released a plosive is made. In English, three types of closure occur resulting in three sets of plosives.

The closure can be made by the two lips, producing the bilabial plosive /p/ and /b/; it can be made by the tongue pressing against the alveolar ridge, producing the alveolar plosives /t/ and /d/ and it can be made by the back of the tongue pressing against the soft palate, producing the velar plosives /k/ and /g/.

- **Nasals**

Nasal sounds involve the complete closure of the mouth. The velum is lowered, diverting the air through the nose in English, the vocal cords vibrate in the pronunciation of nasals and so English nasals are voiced. The three nasals in English are /m/ as in *mat*, /n/ as in *no* and /ŋ/ as in *sing*.

- **Laterals**

Varieties of /l/ are called laterals. As laterals are articulated, air escapes through the mouth along the lowered sides of the tongue. When the tongue tip is raised to the dental or alveolar position, the dental or alveolar laterals are produced. Both may be transcribed as [l].

Because laterals are generally voiced, the term lateral used alone usually means 'voiced lateral.' Still, there are instances of voiceless laterals in speech. The voiceless dental or alveolar lateral is written with an additional phonetic symbol, called a diacritic. In this case, the diacritic is a circle beneath the symbol [l]. Voiceless laterals can be heard in the pronunciation of the English words *please* and *clear*.

- **Affricates**

When a stop articulation is released, the tongue moves rapidly away from the point of articulation. Some noncontinuant consonants show a slow release of the closure; these are called affricates. English has only two affricates, both

of which are palatoalveolar. They are heard word initially in *church* and *jump*, and are transcribed as [tʃ] and [dʒ], respectively.

- **Rolled**

Numerous varieties of *r* are also heard in the world's languages. The *r* of English as it is spoken in North America is made either by curling the tongue tip back into the mouth or by bunching the tongue upward and back in the mouth. This *r* is known as a rolled. They are heard word initially in *ride* and *car*. It is transcribed as [r].

- **Fricatives**

Fricatives are consonants produced with a continuous airflow through the mouth. They belong to a large class of sounds called continuants, all of which share this property. The fricatives form a special class of continuants; during their production, they are accompanied by a continuous audible noise because the air used in their production passes through a very narrow opening. English has voiceless and voiced labiodental fricatives at the beginnings of the words *fat* and *vat*, voiceless and voiced interdental fricatives word initially in the words *thin* and *those*, alveolar fricatives word initial in *sing* and *zip*, and a voiceless palatoalveolar fricative word initially in *ship*. The voiced palatoalveolar fricative is rare in English. It is the first consonant in the word *azure*, and is also heard in the words *pleasure* and *rouge*. The voiceless glottal fricative of English is heard in *hotel* and *hat*. Special note must be taken of the alveolar fricatives [s] and [z]. There are two ways that English speakers commonly produce these sounds. Some speakers raise the tongue tip to the alveolar ridge and allow the air to pass through a grooved channel in the tongue. Other

speakers form this same channel using the blade of the tongue; the tip is placed behind the lower front teeth.

- **Semi-Vowels**

Recall that a glide is a very rapidly articulated nonsyllabic segment. The two glides of American English are [j] of yes and boy, and the w-glide [w] of wet and now. The [j] in IPA transcription corresponds to the [y] of North American transcription. The [j] as a palatal glide whose articulation is virtually identical to that of the vowel [i] of see. The glide [w] is made with the tongue raised and pulled back near the velum and with the lips protruding, or rounded. For this reason, it is sometimes called a labiovelar. The [w] corresponds closely in articulation to the vowel [u] of who.

2.4 Parts of Speech

In English, it is always essential to see how a word functions in a particular sentence before assigning it to a word class. Words in English can function in many different ways. There are a number of word classes, namely verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, determiners, conjunctions, and interjections.

The bases which are attached in suffixes of *-er*, *-or*, *-ist*, *-ian*, and *-ant*, generally have two kinds parts of speech, namely verbs and nouns. As stated by Katamba (1993: 68, 71), the suffixes of *-er*, *-or*, and *-ant* majority turn a verbal base into an agentive nominal. And then the suffixes of *-ist*, and *-ian* majority turn a nominal base into an agentive nominal. The bases which are attached in suffixes of *-er*, *-ist*, and *-ian* could be formed from adjectives too, although the amount of this part of speech are limited. A verb is often defined as a doing word, a word that

expresses an action. A noun has often been defined as the name of a person, animal, place, concept or thing. An adjective is a descriptive word that qualities and describes nouns.

2.5 The Last Word Sound

The structure of some words is very simple and regular in the other hand the structure of other words are incredibly complicated and irregular. However, there are always definite patterns of formation. Nida (1949: 5) says that the structure of some languages is amazingly simple and regular and that of other languages is incredibly complicated and irregular. No languages are unorganized jumbles of sounds, as some people have though. We can attach the definite suffixes by means of the last word sounds. A particular sound or string of sounds is to be regarded as a manifestation of a morpheme depending on the word in which it appears.

