CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter is a theoretical review of this research. This chapter consists of several theories that support the research. This research is actually built and accommodated by some theories. In particular, this chapter explains what morphological units and word formation process in hyphenated compound adjectives.

2.1 Morphology

O'Grady (1996:132) states morphology as the system of categories and rules involved in word formation and interpretation. In addition to that, from Language Files in Tawami (2011: 14) morphology is defined as the study of how words are structure and how they are put together from smaller parts. Carstairs in Tawami (2011: 14) adds that morphology is the area of grammar concerned with the structure of words and with relationship between words involving the morphemes that compose them (2002:16). Additionally, Tawami (2011: 14) adds that morphology fundamentally deals with words and its internal structure.

2.2 Morphological Units

Morphological units deal with words and morphemes, Ogonowski (1998:14) stated, a simple morphological unit may have a grammatical category

as well as a subcategory (see Ch.2.3) and it must have at least one graphical form (see Ch.2.2.1).

2.2.1 Words

Larson (1984:55) states, word is a 'bundle' of meaning components. Word in general is a sound or a combination of sounds, or its representation in writing or printing, that symbolizes and communicates a meaning and may consist of a single morpheme or of a combination of morphemes. This means words need to be understood in the term that the word's meaning must be shown in its lexical form and that a word has its own components in building the meaning of word itself. Tawami (2011:27) stated, this will then lead to an understanding that word is not merely about definition of it. But it is about how a word can stimulate our mind to figure out its meaning.

2.2.2 Morphemes

In analyzing hyphenated compound adjective, the identification of morpheme is necessary to show the smallest unit in a word, as Becerra (2000: 2) argues that the smallest units of language that have a meaning or a grammatical function and form words or parts of words are called morphemes. In writing, individual morphemes are usually represented by their graphic form, or spelling; e.g., -es, -er, un-, re-; or by their graphic form between bracers, ; e.g., {-es}, {-er}, {un-}, {non-} {re-}. The branch of linguistics in charge of studying the smallest meaningful units of language (i.e., morphemes), their different forms, the internal

structure of words, and the processes and rules by which words are formed is called morphology.

Depending on the way morphemes occur in an utterance, they are grouped into two large groups: free morphemes and bound morphemes.

2.2.2.1 Free Morphemes

Becerra (2000:4) formulates free or independent morphemes are those morphemes which can occur alone as words and have a meaning or fulfill a grammatical function; e.g., *man*, *run*, and *walk*. There are two types of free morphemes.

a. Lexical (content or referential) Morphemes

Lexical morphemes are free morphemes that have semantic content (or meaning) and usually refer to a thing, quality, state or action. For instance, in a language, these morphemes generally take the forms of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs; e.g., *dog*, *Peter*, *house*, *build*, *stay*, *happy*, *intelligent*, *quickly*, *always*. Actually, lexical morphemes constitute the larger class of morphemes. They form the open class of words (or content words) in a language, i.e., a class of words likely to grow due to the incorporation of new members into it.

b. Functional or Grammatical Morphemes

Functional or grammatical morphemes are free morphemes which have little or no meaning on their own, but which show grammatical relationships in

and between sentences. For instance, in a language, these morphemes are represented by prepositions, conjunctions, articles, demonstratives, auxiliary verbs, pronouns; e.g., *with*, *but*, *the*, *this*, *can*, *who*, *me*. It should be said that function words are almost always used in their unstressed form.

2.2.2.2 Bound Morphemes

Bound (or dependent) morphemes are those morphemes which never occur alone as words but as parts of words; they must be attached to another morpheme (usually a free morpheme) in order to have a distinct meaning; e.g., *-er* in *worker*, *-er* in *taller*, *-s* in *walks*, *-ed* in passed, re- as in reappear, *un-* in *unhappy*, *undo*, *-ness* in *readiness*, *-able* in *adjustable*; *-ceive* in *conceive, receive*, *-tain* in *contain*, *obtain*, etc. There are two types of bound morphemes: bound roots and affixes.

a. Bound Roots

Bound roots are those bound morphemes which have lexical meaning when they are attached to other bound morphemes to form content words; e.g., *-ceive* in *receive*, *conceive*; *-tain* in retain, contain; *plac-* in *implacable*, *placate*; *cran-* in *cranberry*, etc. Notice that bound roots can be prefixed or suffixed to other affixes.

b. Affixes

Affixes are bound morphemes which are usually marginally attached to words and which change the meaning or function of those words; e.g., -ment in

development, *en-* in *enlarge*; *non-* in *non-active's* in *John's*; *-s* in *claps*, *-ing* in *studying*, etc.

By those explanations above, the writer tries to apply to the analysis of word which is formed the hyphenated compound adjective to show the base, root, and other components of word.

2.2.2.3 Morpheme with Internal Changes

Plag (2002) stated, internal changes – a type of word formation process wherein a word changes internally to indicate grammatical information. In other word, it changes sounds inside a root creates a new word. It is also known as alternations. For example, the word, *sang, sung* are the internal changes from the word *sing*.

2.3 Word Formation

Plag (2002:12) states that words are composed by putting together smaller elements to form larger words with more complex meaning. Quirk (1985:1515) adds that based a word-form to which a rule of word formation is applied. It can be affected by three different processes: affixation, conversion, compounding. In some of compound examples, there is a joining of two separate words to produce a single form. Thus, *rain* and *forest* are combined to produce *rainforest*. This combining process, technically known as compounding, is very common in languages such as in English. Common English compounds are *bookcase*, *doorknob*, *fingerprint*, *sunburn*, *textbook*, *wallpaper*, *wastebaske*t and *waterbed*.

All these examples are nouns, but we can also create compound adjectives (*good-looking*, *low-paid*) and compounds of adjective (*fast*) plus noun (*food*) as in a *fast-food* restaurant or *a full-time job*. This means that there would be several word-formation processes in forming compound word which have grammatical functions. The explanation below describes word-formation process occurs in hyphenated compound adjective.

2.3.1 Compounding

Becerra (2000:4) argues compounding consists in the combination of two or more (usually free) roots to form a new word. .For example, the word *blackboard*, *heartfelt*, *brother-in-law* are compound words; they are made up of the roots (at the same time words themselves) *black* and *board*, *heart* and *felt*, *brother*, *in* and *law*, respectively.

In English, for instance, compound words have the following characteristics: a. compounds words behave grammatically and semantically as single words, b. Since compound words behave as units, between their component elements no affixes (whether inflections or derivations) can usually occur; inflectional suffixes can appear only after compound words. For example, *bathrooms*, *school*, *buses*, *water resistant*. Exceptions: *passersby*, *brothers-in-law*, *courts-martial*.

2.3.1.1 Compounding with Endocentric

Fabb (1994:67) Compounds which have a head are called ‘endocentric compounds’. Endocentric compounds, as their name shows, are headed, in that they have their centre. In addition, Bauer (1983) states, the relationship between

the constituents follows a modifier-head pattern, in which the compound functions as a hyponym of the grammatical head; it represents the core meaning of the constituent, and it is of the same word class. For example, in sneak-thief, thief is the head (a sneak-thief is a kind of thief; thief and sneak-thief are both nouns).

2.3.1.2 Compounding with Exocentric

Bauer (1983:1) stated, an exocentric compound, by contrast, is one which is not a hyponym of one of its elements, and thus appears to lack a head or perhaps to have a head (or 'centre') external to the compound itself. Look at the way it defines, exocentric compound might occur the new concept or idea from words combined, English examples such as *flat-foot* is the other of policemen (slang), and *egghead* 'an intellectual; a very studious and academic person.

2.3.2 Compound Word

Becerra (2000:4) stated, a compound is a word or word group that consists of two or more parts that work together as a unit to express a specific concept. A compound word is a combination of two or more words that function as a single unit of meaning. According to the theories, compound words can be written in three different ways:

1) Open Compound Word

An open compound is a combination of words so closely associated that they convey the idea of a single concept but are spelled as unconnected words, For example:

- *White House*
- *Canyon head*

2) Solid (closed) Compound Word

A solid (closed) compound combines two or more words into one solid word (e.g., breakdown).

3) Hyphenated Compound

A hyphenated compound—also called a unit modifier—is simply a combination of words joined by a hyphen or hyphens. Words are hyphenated mainly to express the idea of a unit and to avoid ambiguity. Compound numbers should be hyphenated when words (as opposed to numbers) are used. Also, fractions should be hyphenated when they are spelled out. For example:

shell-like	cloud-to-ground strokes
well-to-do jobs	roof-to-wall construction
two-state	100-meter feet

In this case, the writer focuses on hyphenated compound adjective that will be explain below.

2.3.3 Compound Adjectives

Quirk (1985) stated, compound adjective is two or more words) that act as a single idea to modify a noun e.g. (a *part-time* employee, a *high-speed* chase).

Another interpretation of compound adjective, Plag (2002) states, a compound adjective is formed when two or more adjectives work together to modify the same noun. Looking at the way it defines, compound adjective is a single adjective formed from two or more to modify noun and it shows a variety of combinatory patterns. In analysis, the writer applies this theory to approach the characteristic of compound adjective.

Sometimes, compound adjective is formed by participle preceding its left-hand in constituent, in this analysis, the writer categorizes the participle adjective into two kind, they are *–ing* participial compound adjective and *–ed* participial compound adjective.

2.3.3.1 Participial Compound Adjective

a. *–ing* Participial Compound Adjective

The most of compound adjective is formed by derived form of verb. Conti (2007:138) states, compound is containing present participles preceded by left-hand constituents belonging to the lexical classes of nouns, adjectives and sometimes adverbs. *–ing* participle compound adjectives should be distinguished from inflected forms of compound verbs, such as the word ‘sunbathe’ and ‘chain-smoke’, as in sunbathing and chain-smoking.

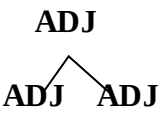
b. *–ed* Participial Compound Adjective

As stated by Conti (2007:139), compound adjective formed by passive participle as left-hand constituents indentifying the passive form of adjective. This pattern, in which an adjective formed by a past participle is to show a passive formed of the derivational of the verb.

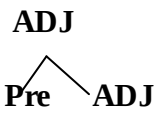
As a general rule, McCarty (2002) argues that the words in a compound adjective are usually hyphenated when they come before a noun (a well-known actor) but not when they come after (The actor is well known). For example:



nation-wide
sky - blue



red - hot
far - fetched



neo-classical
antivirus

1) Hyphenated compound adjectives may have been formed originally by an adjective preceding a noun:
   - "Round table" → "round-table discussion"
   - "Blue sky" → "blue-sky law"
2) Hyphenated are created with an original verb preceding a preposition.
   - "Stick on" → "stick-on label"
   - "Walk on" → "walk-on part"
3) Hyphenated in a past-participle construction, used before a noun:
   - "loud-mouthed hooligan"

- "middle-aged lady"

4) Hyphenated in a present participle construction:
    - "an awe-inspiring personality"
    - "a long-lasting affair"
5) Hyphenated in prefix preceding other class:
    - "post-graduate student"
    - "pre-shared key"

Based on explanations above, hyphenated compound adjective is not only formed by an adjective itself, but it can be formed from other word classes as a combination which modifies noun functionally. The most occurs in hyphenated compound adjective is right-headed that the right-handed word modified by left-handed word.

2.4 Semantics

Semantics is the study that investigates the meaning in human language. (Fromkin, 1993: 173) mentions semantic is the study of the linguistic meaning or morphemes, words, phrases and sentences. Goddard (1998:1) mentions semantic is the study of meaning stand at the very centre of the linguistic quest to understand the nature of language and human language abilities.

Goddard (1998:1) defines semantics as the study of meaning, stands at the very centre of linguistic quest to understand the nature of language and human language abilities. In addition to that, Saeed (1997:3) defines semantic as the study of meaning communicated through language.

Looking at the way it is defined, it can be determined that semantic is the study regarding the analysis of meaning. It leads us to understand the meaning-making process and how the form can directly or indirectly represent the concept or the meaning itself through a systematic way.

In accordance to this study, semantic sub-topic to be discussed here are those that are considered to have the impact to access the meaning of the words under study. The materials cover the description of meaning relation and lexical relation within hyphenated compound adjective.

2.4.1 Meaning Relations

Green (2001:5) argues that the inventory of semantic relationships includes both a closed set of relationships (including mainly hierarchical and equivalence relationships) and an open set of relationships. In a grammatical construction, for example compound, it consists of several words put together in word order implying a meaning or an idea. The idea of the compound is formed through the process of combining meanings of each word to other words. However, combining word is not so easy while there is no clue about relations existed among the words. Yule (2006, p.104) argues words not only as containers of meaning or as fulfilling roles in event, they also have relationship with each other. In this approach, the meaning of a word can be identified by seeing the relationships with other words in the construction. In this research, the writer applies the two lexical relations are synonym, and hyponymy described as follows:

a. Synonym

Two expressions α, β of a language are called synonyms if they mean the same. This notion is typically applied to lexical items, including idioms, but it can be used for larger expressions as well, of course. For example:

* couch ←→sofa,
* homely ←→ domestic;
* large ←→ big ←→ enormous

b. Hyponymy

An expression α is a hyponym (i.e. an "undername") of an expression β if everything that falls under β also falls under α. For example, 'traffic-light' is a hyponym of light, but not a hyponym of traffic. For example:

* Rose is a hyponym of flower
* Spinster is a hyponym of woman

c. Associative relation

Young, (1973:74) reckons, associative relation is a relation which is defined psychologically: that (some) people associate concepts (A is mentally associated with B by somebody). Often are associative relations just unspecified relations. In thesauri are antonyms, for example, usually not specified but may be listed, along with terms representing other kinds of relations, under "related terms". This theory is applied to describe the associative relation or unspecified relatedness between unit morphology in compound adjective. For example, *nurse*, most people automatically associate *nurse* with *woman*.

d. Antonym

Goddard (1998:16) states, antonym is incompatibility of various kinds – where meaning conflict; for instance, by being opposite like up and down (complementary antonyms) or hot and cold (gradable antonyms) or by being in a converse relationship with one another like *buy* or *sell* (relational antonyms) or by belonging to a set of mutuality exclusive words like *red, blue, green* and etc.

e. Meronym

Saeed (2003: 70) states, is a term used to describe a part-whole relationship between lexical items. Meronyms vary in how necessary the part is to the whole. Some are necessary for normal examples, for example *nose* as a meronym of *face*; others are usual but not obligatory, like *collar* as a meronym of *shirt*; still others are optional like *cellar* for *house*.

2.4.2 Measures of Semantic Relatedness

A Budanitsky and Hirst (2003:3) mention that semantic similarity is a kind of relatedness between two words that defines a resemblance. Semantic relatedness covers a broader range of relationships between concepts that includes similarity (or difference) as well other relations.

There are pairs of words that tend to occur together more often. Sometimes this is indicative of a semantic relationship between the words. For example, *paper* and *pencil* much more closely related than *car* and *fork*.

It would be useful to assign a value that characterizes the degree to which two words are related. In this research, semantic relatedness shows how one word

are related to other word in hyphenated compound adjective, for example *breast* and *feeding* are related semantically.

2.5 Lexical Meaning

In Murphy (2010: 40), according to Leech (1981: Ch.2), there exist seven types of meaning in semantics; this study focuses on only one of the types of meaning. Lexical meaning is relatively stable. Lexical meaning has two components in form:

a. Conceptual Meaning

Conceptual meaning is often described as dictionary meaning or literal meaning of a word. It is the core of the meaning of a word. It is relatively constant and stable, because it is the meaning agreed upon by all the members of the same speech community.

b. Associative meaning

Associative meaning is that part of meaning which has been supplemented to the conceptual meaning. It is the meaning which arises of the associations a word acquires. It is open-ended, unstable and indeterminate, because it varies with culture, time, place, class, individual experiences, etc. Associative meaning includes connotative, stylistic, affective and collocative meanings.