**CHAPTER I**

**INTRODUCTION**

This section consists of : (a) the background of the study, (b) the statement of the problem, (c) the objectives of the study, (d) the significance of the study, and (e) the definition of the key terms.

1. **The Background of the Study**

It cannot be denied that English is very urgent in this globalization era. Nowadays English has been one of the international languages that is used in many countries. Therefore, English is very important. English is important for many reasons. Some of which are for (1) traveling, (2) reading, (3) communication, (4) Those who like to travel will find that the ability to speak English makes the experience far more rewarding. Not just in terms of being able to speak to locals, but for interactions with other travelers too.

The ability to speak English increases an individual’s employability. – which is a big plus in these economically gloomy times. The language is vital in a range professions, for example, more than two-thirds of the world’s scientists read in English. A mastery of English provides job opportunities outside of English-speaking countries, as well as in them. Multinational corporations employ English speakers in offices around the world. English is also the first language of organizations such as the European Union, the United Nations, the Commonwealth of Nations, and NATO.

Englishis a West Germanic language that was first spoken in early medieval England and is now the most widely used language in the world. It is spoken as a first language by the majority of populations of several sovereign states, including the United Kingdom, the United State*s*, Canada, Australia, Ireland, New Zealand and a number of Caribbean nations. It is the third-most-common native language in the world, after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish. It is widely learned as a second language and is an official language of the European Union, many Commonwealth countries and the United Nations, as well as in many world organization.

English arose in the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of England and what is now southeast Scotland. Following the extensive influence of Great Britain and the United Kingdom from the 17th century to the mid-20th century, through the British Empire, and also of the United States since the mid-20th century. It has been widely propagated around the world,becoming the leading language of international discourse and the *lingua franca* in many regions.

Historically, English originated from the fusion of closely related dialects, now collectively termed Old English, which were brought to the eastern coast of Great Britain by Germanic settlers (Anglo-Saxons) by the 5th century — with the word *English* being derived from the name of the Angles, and ultimately from their ancestral region of Angles A significant number of English words are constructed on the basis of roots from Latin, because Latin in some form was the *lingua franca* of the Christian Church and of European intellectual life. The language was further influenced by the Old Norse languagebecause of Viking invasions in the 9th and 10th centuries.

The Norman conquest of England in the 11th century gave rise to heavy borrowings from Norman French, and vocabulary and spelling conventions began to give the appearance of a close relationship with Romance languages to what had then become Middle English. The Great Vowel Shift that began in the south of England in the 15th century is one of the historical events that mark the emergence of Modern English from Middle English.

English is a language which has great reach and influence; it is taught all over the world under many different circumstances. In English-speaking countries, English language teaching has essentially evolved in two broad directions: instruction for people who intend to live there and those who do not. These divisions have grown firmer as the instructors of these two industries have used different terminology, followed distinct training qualifications, formed separate professional associations, and so on.

In Indonesia English is the first foreign language. English as a foreign language indicates the teaching of English in a non-English-speaking regions. As a foreign language, English bring a lot of difficulties for learners. Language teaching practice often assumed that most of the difficulties that learners face in the study of English are a consequence of the degree to which their native language differs from English. A native speaker of Chinese, for example, may face many more difficulties than a native speaker of German, because German is more closely related to English than Chinese is. This may be true for anyone of any mother tongue (also called first language, normally abbreviated L1) setting out to learn any other language (called a target language, second language or L2).

Linguistically, English has four aspects that include (1) phonology, (2) morphology, (3) syntax and (4) semantics. In terms of phonology, English has consonants, consonant clusters, vowels, and diphthongs. In addition, it also has suprasegmental phonemes that include (1) pitch, (2) stress, (3) intonation, and (4) juncture. In terms of morphology, English has its own rules of word formation, that might be different or the same with other languages. In terms of syntax,i.e., the arrangements of words to become sentences, English also has its own rules. In terms of semantics, English also has many kinds of meanings.

Language is used for more than one purpose. The man who hits his thumb-nail with a hammer and utters a string of curses is using language for an expressive purpose: he is relieving his feelings and needs no audience but himself. People can often be heard playing with language: children especially like using language as if it were a toy, repeating, distorting, inventing, punning, jingling, and there is a play element in the use of language in some literature. But when philosophers use language to clarify their ideas on a subject, they are using it as an instrument of thought. When two neighbors gossip over the fence, or exchange conventional greetings as they pass one another in the street, language is being used to strengthen the bonds of cohesion between the members of a society. Language, it seems, is a multi-purpose instrument. One function, however, is basic: language enables us to influence it in great detail, and thereby makes human co-operation possible. Other animals co-operate, for example many primates, and social insects like bees and ants, and use communication systems in the process. But human co-operation is more detailed and more diversified than that found elsewhere in the animal kingdom, and non-human animal society has a division of labor or a system of production at all comparable to those of human societies. This human co-operation would be unthinkable without language, and it is obviously this function which has made language so successful and so important; other functions can be looked on as by-products. A language, of course, always belongs to a group of people, not to an individual. The group that uses any given language is called the *speech community.*

Over a billion of people in the world speak more than one language. The language that is used internationally consists of some languages, including English, Spanish, Chinese, and Arabic. But, English is the most popular one. People all over the world learn English and use it for the purpose of communication. The highest frequency of the

Morphology is a branch of linguistics that studies the way of how a complex word is formed. It is sometimes necessary to change a certain word into another form or category. For example, a noun sometimes has to be changed into a verb when such a noun serves as the predicate in a clause or sentence. For example, the noun *government*  can be changed into a verb *govern* when the language user wants to put it in a predicate slot. Conversely, the verb *govern* can be added a suffix *–ment* when the language user wants to put it in a subject or object slot.

Two scholars, Friedrich von Schlegel and August Wilhelm von Schlegel use the base or stem and bound morpheme as the basis of classification. In 1808, Freidrich von Schlegel posed a classification of the world languages into two groups: (1) languages with affixes SprachendurchAffixa), and (2) languages with flection (Sprachendurch Flexion) the term flection at that time means the internal change in the root of the word, like: sing-sang-sung, do-did-done, write-wrote-written, go-went-gone in English or bleiben-bleib-geblieben, sing-sang-gesungen, gehen-ging-gegangen in Germany, and the like. The term inflection that is used now covers internal change as mentioned above and the change that occurs at a verb and noun.(Keraf, 1990: 55).

According to Von Schlegel (in Keraf, 1988:56) , affix is the elements that are incorporated with the base or stem, but it remains transparent. August Wilhem (in Keraf, 1988:56) develops the classification above to become three language classes. They are : (1) language without grammatical structure , (2) language using affixes, and (3) language with flection. Keraf (1988:62) classififies languages into four classes. They are as the following: (1) isolative language, agglutinative language, (3) flection language, and (4) incorporative language.

From the discussion above it can be concluded that there are two elements in a complex word. One is the stem and the other affix. The stem has the lexical meaning and the affix has the grammatical meaning.

In this research the researcher is interested in conducting a research on the morphological process of English that is found in the English textbook entitled *“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti.”* Morphological process is the devices by which the constituent words of a paradigm are differentiated from one another. It deals with how a certain word is formed. A word can be derived from another word pr can be formed from a certain available word.

The researcher is interested in conducting a research in this aspect because textbook is an important part in learning English at schools. Teachers use a textbook to make teaching and learning process run more easily. Students may use the textbook as the source of information of the language. Therefore, the textbook should be appropriate for the students. The teacher should pay attention to the language of the textbook. There are many components of language that a textbook contains. They include phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and discourse. In the aspect of phonology, it deals with segmental and suprasegmental phonemes; in the aspect of morphology, it deals with the formation of words, including morphological process’ in the aspect of syntax, it deals with the external structure of words’ in the aspect of semantics, it deals with meaning; and in the aspect of discourse, it deals with coherence and cohesion.

Dubin and Elite (2000: 148) says that textual analysis is concerned with the description of discourse, one aspect of which is work with written texts. This consists of analysis of how sentences and paragraphs are linked together to form larger texts, what Hallaiday and Hasan (1976) call ‘texture’. Together with textual properties, there are structural features and cohesive relations; in English, for example, there are devices such as linking elements, reference and repetition. Then, too, there are organizational properties of texts.

The material preparer also takes into account differences in cultural background as well as difficulty with the new language. Along with the discourse, attention to syntactic and lexical characteristics of selections is vital. In fact, a number of problematic areas are continually being manipulated: (a) the linguistic competence of learner-readers; (b) the potential for cultural misunderstanding in the thematic content of the selections; (c) the element of personal background knowledge: do learner-readers have the necessary background or experience to understand the content of the selection? And (d) the degree of reading facility learner-readers possess in their native language.

From the discussion above it can be seen that the discussion of language is a broad topic. Due to the broadness of the topics, the researcher wants to limit his study on one aspect, that is, the aspect of morphology. In this research the researcher wants to investigate the morphological process that is found in the textbook entitled *“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti.”*

1. **The Statement of the Problem**

Based on the discussion in the background of the study above, there are three research questions . They are as the followings:

1. What kinds of English affixes are there available in the English textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X” written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti?
2. Are there any zero modification in the English textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X” written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti?
3. 3. Are there any internal changes in the English textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X” written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti?
4. What are the percentage of English morphological process in the English textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X” written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti?
5. **The Objectives of the Study**

In accordance with the research question above, the objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To know kinds of English affixes available in the English textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X” written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti
2. To know if there are zero modifications in the English textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X” written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti.
3. To know if there are internal changes in the English textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X” written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti.
4. To know the percentage of English morphological process in the English textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X” written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti
5. **The Significance of the Study**
6. Theoretical Significance

Theoretically, this research will give contribution to the theory of morphology, especially that deals with affixes, zero modification and internal change.

1. Practical Significance

Practically, the result of this research will be useful for students, teachers, and textbook writers.Students will be aware of the materials of the morphology that are found in the textbook. Consequently, they will study them in order to understand the language of the textbook well. Teachers will be aware of what English materials should be taught to the students so that the students will be able to understand the materials presented in the textbook. Finally , the textbook writers will be able to determine the language of the textbook.

1. Pedagogical Significance

Pedagogical, this research will explain the process of mophology, especially that deals with affixes, zero modification, internal change. Finally, the textbook writers will be able to determine the language of the textbook

1. **The Definition of the Key Terms**
2. Morphological process is the devices by which the constituent words of a paradigm are differentiated from one another. (Block and Trager, in Tarigan, 1992: 237)
3. Textbook is the book used by the students in the classroom as a guide of learning and is suitable with the determined curriculum.

**CHAPTER II**

**REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

1. **Previous Studies**

The study on English textbook has been done by some researchers. They put stress on different point of view. Nur (2012) conducted a research on English textbook. The title of his research is “The Use of English Grammar in English Textbook Used by the Second Grade Students of SMAN 1 Sukodadi in the Academic Year 2011/2012”. But the research problems are kinds of phrases and tenses that are encountered in the textbook. The second research was done by Anwar. The title of his research is “A Study on the English Grammar in the Reading Materials Found in the English Textbook Developing English Competencies for Senior High School (SMA/MA) Grade X”. The research questions asked by him consist of kinds of affixes, phrases, tenses and sentence patterns.

1. **Morphology**

Linguistics has four main branches. They are (1) phonology, (2) morphology, (3) syntax and (4) semantics. Phonology deals with sounds; morphology deals with internal structure of language; syntax deals with the arrangement of words to become sentence; and semantics deals with meanings.Soeparno (2002:91) defines morphology as sub-discipline of linguistics that studies forms and word formation. The lower level studied by morphology is morpheme. The upper level studied by morphology is the complex word.Nida (in Tarigan, 1992:236) defines morphology as the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words.

1. **Morpheme**

Katamba (1993:24) defines morpheme as the smallest difference in the shape of a word that correlates with the smallest difference in word or sentence meaning or in grammatical structure.

A morpheme is not identical with a syllable. The morpheme /streynj/ happens to be a syllable, and so are many English morphemes. But /kәnetikit/ as in Connecticut is a single morpheme, though it contains four syllables. Both /gow/ and /z/ in *goes* are morphemes, though together they are but a single syllables. Morphemes may consist of one or several whole syllables, parts of syllable, or, in fact, any combination of phonemes without regard to their status as syllables.

Gleason (1961:53) says that a morpheme may consist of only a single phoneme. The /z/ in *goes* just cited is a case. But the phoneme /z/ and this morpheme are by no means identical. The phoneme occurs many times where it has nothing to do with this morpheme. Instances are*zoo* and *rose*, both of which contain /z/ but have no meaning in common with the /z/ in *goes.* Most English morphemes are intermediate in size between /z/ and /streynj/, and consist of two to six phonemes.

If the morpheme is to be dscribed as the smallest meaningful unit in the structure of a language, care must be taken not to misconstrue the words “meaningful” or “meaning.” “Meaning” is intended to represent the relationship which exists between morphemes as part of the expression system of a language and comparableunits in the content system of the same language. A morpheme is the smallest unit in the expression system which can be correlated directly with any part of the content system.

Using the term *meaning* its ordinary familiar sense without careful control will in some cases be quite misleading. In many instances, however, it will serve as a workable approximation, if used with caution. For example, *cat* may be said to have a meaning since it refers, among other things, to a specific kind of animal. But it is also used of humans with certain personality characteristics. In a like sense, *go* may be said to have a similar kind of meaning, since it refers to(among other things) to a motion of an object. But it is difficult , even fruitless, to attempt to specify exactly what motions are indicated. Compare *He goes home. John goes with Mary,* and*The watch goes.* Indeed, it may be used of a quite immobile subject as in *This road goes to Weston.* These variations of reference to the outside world can in part be accounted for by the assumption that the speaker of English has learned to structure the content in such a way as to bring these diverse elements of experience together into a single category. The meaning of go rests in the interrelationship between the morpheme /gow/ and the point within the content system where these things are brought together.

Elson & Picket (1969:11) says that each morpheme in a language has various characteristics based on its distributional relationship to other morphemes; and on the basis of these differences, morphemes may be classified in various ways.

1. **Type of Morphemes**

The morphemes are divided into classes. There are two classes of morphemes, a free morpheme (sometimes called a “stem” or “base”) is one which can meaningfully occur alone, e.g. book, pencil. Elephant, love, give, happy, very. There are also morphemes that must always occur alone as s, except in a sentence like the “s” in “books” expresses plurality. Such morphemes are called bound morphemes. Other examples of bound morphemes are the “present tense” morpheme in walk(s), run(s), the “negative” morpheme in (un)happy, (in)attentive and the “quality” morpheme in happy(ness), sincere(ty).

Bound morphemes may be classified as affixes, which are subdivide into prefixes, suffixes and infixes, according to the way they combine with the base or stem. Prefixes occur before the base, e.g. (un)tidy, (pre)school, (dis)like. Suffixes occur after the base, e.g. kind(ness), angry(ly), judge(ment), teach(er). Infixes occur in the middle of the base. English has no infixes.

Bound morphemes or affixes may also be classified as derivational or inflectional affixes are bound morphemes which generally combine with the base to change its “parts of speech” class. For example, teach, build and sweep are verbs, but if we add the derivational affix -er they become the nouns teacher, builder, sweeper. If we add the affix -ly to the adjectives happy, loud, smooth, we get the adverb happily, loudly, smoothly. Another example of derivational affix is can which can change nouns into verbs, e.g. *danger, slave, throne become endanger, enslave,enthrone*. However, the part of speech is sometimes not changed by a derivational affix, e.g. like and dislike are both verb; true and untrue are both adjectives.

Inflectional affixes are bound morphemes which carry grammatical meanings like “plural”, “past tense” or “possessive”. In English the number of inflectional morphemes is small but they combine with many bases. They do not change the part of speech of the base to which they are added, for example, if we add the “plural” morpheme to the nouns bag, tin, church they remain nouns: bags, tins, churches; if we add the “past tense” morpheme to the verbs walk, drown, rinse, they are still verbs: walked, drowned, rinsed.

Both derivational and inflectional affixes may be used to define word classes (or parts of speech). For example, bases that can combine with -er and -est (to express comparison) or with -ness are adjectives, e.g. *tall, kind, happy* and *smooth*; and bases that can occur with “past tense” affixes are verbs, e.g. *walk, jump, cook* and *dance.* English derivational affixes may be either prefixes (dislike, behead, unknown) or suffixes (*judgement, sweetly, creator*). English inflectional affixes, on the other hand, tend to be suffixes, e.g. Tom’s. walked, glasses, talking.

Elson and Pickett (1969:7) says morphemes are the minimum units of the lexicon. Bloomfield (in Elson and Picket, 1969:7), as a matter of fact, defined lexicon as “the total stock of morphemes in a language.”

Various definitions of the morphemes have been suggested by linguists. These seem to vary because they are usually embedded in a series of definitions of linguistic terms, but all are in essential agreement. The definition given by Hockett (in Elson and Pickett, 1969:7) is probably the most useful for our purposes: morphemes are the smallest individually meaningful elements in the utterances of a language.

Morphemes may also be defined negatively in that they are units which are kept apart from all other such units in the language. Bloomfield (1933:161) suggests such a definition: “A linguistic form which bears no partial phonetic-semantic resemblance to any other form is a simple form or morpheme.”

 Morphemes must not be confused with words. Bloomfield (1933:178) defined word as a “minimal free form,”i.e., the smallest unit which may be spoken alone.

A morpheme may be a whole word or a part of a word. In English, for example, the word cat is a single morpheme. It cannot be broken down any further into meaningful parts. The words cats, however, is composed of two morphemes, cat meaning ‘ a domesticated quadruped of the family Felidae” and s meaning ‘plural'. The s is not spoken alone in ordinary speech, and is therefore not a word according to the above definition; yet it is a meaningful part of the words cats, books, cups, and many others, and therefore is a morpheme.

Gleason (1961:51) says morphemes are generally short sequences of phonemes. These sequences are recurrent – but not all recurrent sequences are morphemes. According to Gleason (1961:53), some morphemes can be usefully described as the smallest meaningful units in the structure of the language. a more precise statement would, of course, be in terms of the relationship between expression and content, but for the present purpose a less exact statement is convenient. By “smallest meaningful unit” we mean a unit which cannot be divided without destroying or drastically altering the meaning.

Gleason (1961:53) says that a morpheme may consist of only a single phoneme. The /z/ in *goes* just cited is a case. But the phoneme /z/ and this morpheme are by no means identical. The phoneme occurs many times where it has nothing to do with this morpheme. Instances are*zoo* and *rose*, both of which contain /z/ but have no meaning in common with the /z/ in *goes.* Most English morphemes are intermediate in size between /z/ and /streynj/, and consist of two to six phonemes.

If the morpheme is to be described as the smallest meaningful unit in the structure of a language, care must be taken not to misconstrue the words “meaningful” or “meaning.” “Meaning” is intended to represent the relationship which exists between morphemes as part of the expression system of a language and comparable units in the content system of the same language. A morpheme is the smallest unit in the expression system which can be correlated directly with any part of the content system.

Using the term *meaning* its ordinary familiar sense without careful control will in some cases be quite misleading. In many instances, however, it will serve as a workable approximation, if used with caution. For example, *cat* may be said to have a meaning since it refers, among other things, to a specific kind of animal. But it is also used of humans with certain personality characteristics. In a like sense, *go* may be said to have a similar kind of meaning, since it refers to(among other things) to a motion of an object. But it is difficult , even fruitless, to attempt to specify exactly what motions are indicated. Compare *He goes home. John goes with Mary,* and*The watch goes.* Indeed, it may be used of a quite immobile subject as in *This road goes to Weston.* These variations of reference to the outside world can in part be accounted for by the assumption that the speaker of English has learned to structure the content in such a way as to bring these diverse elements of experience together into a single category. The meaning of go rests in the interrelationship between the morpheme /gow/ and the point within the content system where these things are brought together.

Elson & Picket (1969:11) says that each morpheme in a language has various characteristics based on its distributional relationship to other morphemes; and on the basis of these differences, morphemes may be classified in various ways.

There are two kinds of morphemes, bound and free morphemes. Bound morpheme is the morpheme that cannot stand alone. It is usually attached to a base or stem. Free morpheme, on the other hand, can stand alone.

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Morphology deals with the internal structure of words and syntax with the rules governing their combination of sentence. In the other part of his writing, he also says that such minimal units of grammatical analysis, of which words may compose are customarily referred to as morphemes.Morphemes may also be defined negatively in that they are units which are kept apart from all other such units in the language. Bloomfield (1933:161) suggest such a definition : "A linguistic form which bears no partial phonetic resemblance to any other form is a simple form or morpheme.A morpheme is not identical with a syllable. The morpheme "strange" happens to be a syllable, and so are many English morphemes. But Connecticut is a single morpheme, though it contains four syllables. Both "go" and / s / in "goes"are morphemes, though together they are but a single syllable. Morphemes may consist of one or several whole syllables, parts of syllables, or, in fact, any combination of phonemes without regard to their status as syllables.

Morphemes must not be confused with words. Bloomfield (1933:178) defined word as a "minimal free form", i.e., the smallest unit which may be spoken alone.A morpheme may be a whole word or a part of a word. A free morpheme is one which can meaningfully occur alone, e.g. man, table, cat, take, sad. There are also morphemes that must always occur with a base, e.g. the plural morpheme in “books” expresses plurality. Such morphemes are called bound morphemes. Other examples of bound morphemes are the "present tense" morpheme in makes(s), buys(s), the "negative" morpheme in (un) happy, (in) attentive and the "quality" morpheme in happi(ness), sincerity).

Bound morphemes or affixes may also be classified as derivational or inflectional according to the effect the produce on the base. Derivational affixes are bound morphemes which generally combine with the base to change its parts of speech class. Bound morphemes may be classified as affixes, which are subdivided into prefixes, suffixes and infixes, according to the way they combine with the base or stem. Prefixes occur before the base; suffixes occur after the base.

Inflectional affixes are bound morphemes which carry grammatical meanings like "plural", "past tense" or "possessive".Both derivational and inflection affixes may be used to define word classes or parts of speech. Bloch and Trager (in Tarigan, 1992: 237) says that the way in which morphemes are put together in a complex or a compound word is called a morphological construction. While, the devices by which the constituent words of a paradigm are differentiated from one another are known as morphological process.

Morphological process can be divided into five kinds. (1) affixation, (2) internal change, (3) reduplication, (4) supletion and (5) zero modification.

1. **Words**

Broderick (in Nur, 2012:22) gives three definitions of words. They are as follows:

1. Words are the smallest meaningful units of language which tend to be internally indivisible and externally transportable from one position to another in sentences.
2. Words are the smallest meaningful units of language which possess internal stability and positional mobility.
3. Words are the smallest meaningful units of language having a fixed composition and a free distribution.

Langacker (1972:37) says a word can be partially defines as a phonological form that recurs with constant meaning. One step in the isolation of words therefore consists in finding recurrent phonetic sequences and checking to see if the occurance of these apparent units is correlated with a constant component of meaning. Chaer (2007:162) says traditional grammarians usually define word based on meaning and orthography. According to them, word is a unit of language that has understanding; or word is the sequences of letters that are framed by two spaces, and has one meaning. Chaer (2007:163) says that structuralists, especially Bloomfieldians, no longer talk about word as a lingual unit. They replace it with a unit so-called morpheme.

1. **Parts of Speech**
2. **Noun**

Frank (1972:6) says that the noun is one of the most important parts of speech. Its arrangement with the verb helps to form the sentence core which is essential to every complete sentence. An addition, it may function as the chief or head word in many structures of modification.

**Classified by Meaning**

One noun may belong to more than one of the types given below.

Proper Nouns

A proper noun begins with a capital letter in writing. It includes (a) personal names (Mr. John Smith); (b) names of geographic units such as countries, cities, rivers, etc. (Holland, Paris); (c) names of nationalities and religions (d) Dutchman, Christianity); (d) names of holidays (Easter, Thanksgiving day); (e) names of time units (Saturday, June); (f) words used for personification – a thing or abstraction treated as a person (Nature, Liberty).

Concrete or Abstract Nouns

A concrete noun is a word for a physical object that can be perceived by the senses – we can see, touch, smeel the object (flower, girl). An abstract noun is a word for a concept – it is an idea that exists in our minds only (beauty, justice, mankind).

Countable or Nouncountable Nouns

A countable noun can usually be made plural by the addition of –s (one girl, two girls). A noncountable noun isnot used in the plural. Mass nouns form one type of noncountable noun. They are words for concrete objects stated in an undivided quantity (coffee, iron). Abstract nouns (including names of school subjects and sports) are noncountable.

Collective Nouns

A collective noun is a word for a group of people, animals or objects considered as a single unit. Examples of collective nouns are audience, committee, class, crew, crowd, enemy, faculty, family, flock, government, group, herd, etc.

1. **Verb**

Frank (1972:47) says that verb is the most complex part of speech.its varying arrangement with nouns determine the different kinds of sentences – statements, questions, commands, exclamations. Like the noun, the verb has the grammatical properties of person and number, properties which require agreement with the subject. But the verb also has several other grammatical properties that are shared with no other part of speech. These properties are : (1) tense, (2) voice, (3) mood, and (4) aspect.

Francis (1956:252) says there are five kinds of verb-marking formal criteria: inflections, function words, derivational affixes, positons, and superfixes.

1. There are four verb inflections, which can be morphemically designated as {-s}, {$-ed\_{1}$}, {$-ed\_{2}$}, and {-$ing\_{1}$}. This is the most elaborate set of inflections used with any of the English parts of speech, yet it is exceedingly simple compared with the inflectional system of the verb of languages like Greek and Russian.
2. The second kind of formal marker that distinguishes verbs is a set of function words called auxiliaries, which combine with verbs to make verb-phrases. Auxiliaries are true verb-determiners and might be so called, except that the traditional term is both convenient and unambiguous. Just as most of the noun-determiners also appear as function nouns and some even as full nouns, so auxiliaries may appear by themselves as function verbs or full verbs. Formally the auxiliaries may be divided into four groups on the basis of the forms of the main verb with which they appear. As will be seen, there is some overlapping between the groups.
3. Auxiliaries appearing with te base form of the verb are:

can/could/

may/might

shall/should

will/would/do/does/did

must

dare

need

had better/best

1. Auxiliaries appearing with the present-participle (base + {$-ing\_{1}$} form of the verb are the following two:

am/is/was/were

get/gets/got

1. Auxiliaries appearing with the past-participle (base + {-$ed\_{2}$} form of the verb are the following three:

am/is/was/were

get/gets/got

have/has/had

1. Auxiliaries ppearing with the infinitive form of the verb, which consists of the function word to + base form, are the following.

have/has/had

ought

used

am/is/are/was/were/

get/gets/got

am/is/are/was/were {about going}

1. The third kind of verb-identifying marker is a relatively short list of derivational affixes. Six of these -five suffixes and a prefix – are frequent enough to be noted here.
2. {-ate},phonemically /-yet/, added chiefly to bound stems but also to a few nouns. It is tobe distinguished from {-$ate\_{2}$} which marks adjectives and nouns.
3. {-ize}, added to bound stems, nouns, and adjectives, as in utilize, recognize, idolize, organize, socialize, modernize. In some cases the stem my be both noun and adjectives, as in standardize, moralize, particularize. These verbs have related nouns in {-ism} or {-ation},or both: organism, organization; socialism, socialization, etc.
4. {-ify}, phonemically /-fay/, added to stems, nouns, and adjectives, as in liquefy, countrify, dandify; beautify, simplify.
5. {-ish}, added to bound stems, as in finish, furnish, languish.
6. {-en}, phonemically /-in, -әn/, added to one syllable adjectives, some nouns, and a few bound stems, as in blacken, sharpen, widen, tighten, heighten, hasten, glisten. Verbs of this group are always of two syllables.
7. The prefix {-en}added to nouns primarily, but also to other verbs and to a few adjectives and stems: enfold, enslave, empower, enliven, enlighten; embitter; endure.
8. A few positions serve to mark verbs, though seldom without aid from other formal devices which mark either the verb or other neighboring words.
9. **Adjective**

Francis (1956:268) says that the primary defining quality of adjectives is their exclusive ability to fit into both the environment left blank in a structure such as:

The…man seems very…

To avoid lexical incompability, the noun and noun-determiner in this pattern may be varied without affecting the structure. Likewise, the verb may be replaced by is, becomes, looks, and certain similar verbs from a limited list. Thus ,the framework identifies as adjevctives all of the various italicized words in the following sentences:

 The *strong* man is very *strong*

 This *uncomfortable* position is very *uncomfortable.*

 The *relaxed* spectator looks very *relaxed*.

These two positions may be described as (1) between noun-determiner and noun, and (2) immediately following the function word *very* (or some other qualifiers)

Francis (1956:270) divided adjective into two subclasses. They are base adjectives and derived adjectives. Base adjectives take the inflectional suffixes {-er} and {-est} to form the comparative and superlative degrees. These suffixes are seldom sufficient by themselves to identify adjectives, since the principle allomorph of {-er}, /-әr/, is phonemically identical with the noun-forming derivational suffix {-er}(spelled variously –er, -or, -ar, our), and the principal allomorph of {-est} may be phonemically identical with the noun-forming derivational suffix {-ist}. Thus , in isolation we cannot tell whether *blinder, sharper*, and *cooler*, for instance, are nouns or adjectives.

Derived adjectives are those which are formed by the addition of adjective-forming suffixes to free or bound stems. Some of the more important suffixes which form derived adjectives are the following:

1. {-y}, added to one- and two-syllable nouns and bound stems, as in faulty, leafy, healthy, rickety; holy.
2. {-al}, added to nouns and bound stems: fatal, natural, national, traditional; local, physical, racial.
3. {-able}, added to verbs and bound stems. This very common suffix is a live one which can be added to virtually any verb, thus giving rise to many new coinages and nonce-words. Since it is the descendant of an active derivational suffix in Latin, it also appears as part of many words borrowed from Latin or French. Examples formed from verbs: remarkable, understandable, adaptable, conceivable; examples formed from bound stems: viable,portable, capable, terrible, visible. Many words of both groups have related nouns formed by adding {-ity} to a special allomorph of {-able}: adaptability, capability, visibility.
4. {-ful} and {-less}, added to nouns: hopeful, hopeless; useful, useless; plentiful; penniless.
5. {-ar}, {-ary}, {-ic}, {-$ish\_{2}$}, and {-ous}, added to nouns and bound stems: columnar, popular, regular; legendary,literary; climatic, comic; childish.
6. {-ent} and {-ive}, added to verbs and bound stems: abhorrent, significant, convenient; active, native, impulsive.
7. {-$en\_{2}$}, added to nouns: woolen, waxen, wooden, oaken.
8. {-$ed\_{2}$}, added to verbs, nouns, and some bound stems. This suffix has three allomorphs, /-t, -d, -id/, distributed on the whole like the regular allomorphs of the verb-inflectional suffixes {$ed\_{1}$} and {-$ed\_{2}$}. There are some exceptions, however, noably a group which has /-id/ instead of the expected /-d/ after voiced consonants other than /d/: *ragged, beloved, rugged, aged, learned*. Other examples of {-$ed\_{3}$} added to nouns are garlanded,overcoated, booted, flowered.
9. {-$ing\_{3}$},added to verbs: *interesting, exciting, revealing, tiring, pleasing.*
10. **Adverbs**

Frank (1972:141) says that adverbs range in meaning from words having a strong lexical content (those that describe the action of the verb, or those that indicate such meanings as time and place) to those that are used merely for emphasis. They range in function from close to loose modifiers of the verb; from close modifiers of single words, prepositional phrases or clauses, to loose modifiers of the entire sentence. They range in form from words clearly marked as adverbs to those that have the form of other parts of speech. For these reasons the dividing lines between the classification adverb and that of other parts of speech are not clearcut.

Adverbs make up a rather complicated group of words, varying widely in form and distribution. Their primary identifying characteristic is their ability to fill certain position in utterances, the chief of which is illustrated in the following sentences:

1. **Textbook**

Teaching materials are a key component in most language programs. Whether the teacher uses a textbook, institutionally prepared materials, or his or her own materials, instructional materials generally serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. In the case of inexperienced teachers, materials may also serve as a form of teacher training – they provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons as well as formats that teacher can use. Much of the language teaching that occurs throughout the world today could not take place without the extensive use of commercial materials. These may take form of (a) printed materials such as books, workbooks, worksheet, or readers; (b) nonprint materials such as cassette or audio materials, videos, or computer-based materials that comprise both print and nonprint sources such as self-access materials and materials on the internet. In addition, materials not designed for instructional use such as magazines, newspaper, and TV materials may also play a role in the curriculum.

Greene and Petty (in Tarigan, 1986:20) argues that a book is said to have a high quality if the book: 1) interesting; 2) can give motivation to learners who use it; 3) makes interesting illustration; 4) considers language aspects that fit learners’ ability; 5) the contents are closely related to other subject matters; 6) stimulates learners’ activities; 7) avoid ambiguous concepts consciously; 8) has a clear point of view; 9) can give stress on values; and 10) can appreciate learners’ personal differences.

Some teachers use instructional materials as their primary teaching resource. The materials provide the basis for the content of lessons, the balance of skill taught, and the kinds of language practice students take part in. in other situations, materials serve primarily to supplement the teacher’s instruction. For learners, materials may provide the major source of contact they have with the language apart from the teacher. Hence, the role and uses of materials in a language program are a significant aspect of language curriculum development.

English textbook contains a lot of materials suited with the curriculum used. In English textbook used at the level of senior high school, four language skills are taught. They are as follows: 1) listening, 2) speaking, 3) reading and 4) writing. Therefore, each skill has its own materials provided by a textbook writer.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) in his book *Approach Methods in Language Teaching* says that the last component within the level of design concerns the role of instructional materials within the instructional system. What is specified with respect to objectives, content (i.e., the syllabus), learning activities, and learner and teacher roles suggests the function for materials within the system. The syllabus defines linguistic content in terms of language elements – structures, topics, notions, functions – or some cases in terms of learning tasks. It also defines the goals for language learning in terms of speaking, listening, reading, or writing skills.

Dubin and Elite (2000: 29) says that in surveying the exiting materials, it is necessary to develop questions as n aid for evaluating them. The following questions are suggested as a minimal set:

1. By whom and where the materials developed: by a team of materials developers who are familiar with this particular educational system and student population, or where they produced for international market which at best is concerned with the broadest possible definition of the target population? If the latter is the case regarding all or most of the existing materials, this may be the central drawback in their design
2. Are the materials compatible with the syllabus? Compatibility should be evidenced for all the points specified within the syllabus. Similarly, the procedures, techniques, and presentations of items must be in harmony with the specifications given in the syllabus.
3. Do most of the materials provide alternatives for teachers and learners? Alternatives may be provided in terms of learner-tasks, learning styles, presentation techniques, expected outcome, etc. this is a significant feature of effective materials since not all types of learning routes are suitable for all learners. When there are no built-in alternatives which allow teachers and learners to choose what suits them in their particular situations, then the materials might be impossible and restricting rather than allowing for expansion and enrichment. Ideal materials should present teachers and learners with a jumping off place, a stimulus for the learning process t each point. Effective materials should enable experienced teachers and autonomous learners to develop their own alternatives according to their needs and personal preferences.
4. Which language skills do the materials cover? Are they presented separately or are they well integrated. Materials often reflect the developers preferences for some language skills at the expense of others. If this is compatible with the overall goals, for instance such general goals might specify the fact that learners do not require any proficiency in the writing skill, then this would be a suitable realization of the syllabus. If, however, there is a lack of integration which is independent of the specified goals, the this might be a very serious drawback of the materials.
5. How authentic are the text types included in the materials? This might be a very crucial question especially in case where texts might have been adapted for a variety of purposes. Thus, a spoken dialogue which is only read by the students in written form without an aural version might be greatly deficient. Similarly, if a textbook contains only rewritten, watered-down stories that were adapted for the particular text, students using that material may never have the opportunity of countering authentic text. Furthermore, variety of text types might be very significant in exposing students to the types of texts they will most probably encounter beyond and outside the course.
6. How do learners and teachers who have used the materials feel about them?In addition to the previously stated objective questions, it is necessary to gather subjective information in order to gain additional insights into how teachable or learnable the materials really are.

**CHAPTER III**

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

In this part of the paper the research methodology will be presented .It includes (1) research design, (2) data and source of the data, (3) data collection technique, and (4) data analysis technique.

1. **Research Design**

The study will use descriptive qualitative research. Qualitative method is the research method that produces descriptive data as written or spoken and act which can be observed. This research method focuses on describing, understanding, and clarifying a human experience. Research design are the specific procedures involved the research process: data collection, and data analysis, and the report writing (Creswell, 2012: 20). In addition, research designs are plans and the procedures for research than span the decision from board assumption to detailed method of data collection and analysis.Descriptive research is used in literal sense of describing situations or events. It is the accumulation of a data base that is solely descriptive- it does not necessarily seek or explain relationship, test hypothesis, make predictions, or get at meanings and implications, although research aimed at these more powerful purposes may incorporate descriptive methods. One of the purposes of the descriptive research is to collect detailed factual information that describes existing phenomena. The descriptive method is a method used to describe and interpret what is observed by the researcher.

1. **Data and Source of Data**

The data of this research are the English morphological processes that consist of prefixes, infixes, suffixes, zero modification, and internal change. The sources of the data are English textbook entitled *“Forward an English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti*” becomes the source of the data for the research.

1. **Data Collection Technique**

To collect the data for the research, the researcher uses the document. In this research the document is the English textbook entitled*“Forward an English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti*”

1. **Data Analysis Technique**

To analyze the data the researcher uses the model suggested by Mile and Huberman(in Sugiyono, 2010:336). The model suggested by Miles and Huberman is called interactive model. This model has three steps. They are as follows: (1) data reduction, (2) data display, and (3) conclusion drawing.

* 1. Data Reduction

There are a lot of data in the source of data. Not all of the data will be taken. The data that are to be taken in this research are those that deal with the morphological process. They are: affixes, zero modification and internal change.

* 1. Data Display

After the data are reduced, the next step is to display the data. According to Miles and Huberman (in Sugiyono, 2010:341), “the most frequent form of data display for qualitative research data in the past has been narrative text”.

* 1. Conclusion Drawing/verification

The third step in analyzing qualitative data is drawing conclusion and verification.

**CHAPTER IV**

**FINDING AND DISCUSSION**

In this section of the paper the finding of the research and data analysis will be presented

1. **Finding of the Research**

This research deals with the morphological process that is found in the English textbook entitled the textbook entitled *“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti.”*. There are four research questions that have been formulated in chapter one. They consist of kinds of English affixes, zero modification, internal change and percentage of the English morphological process found in the textbook.

* 1. **English Affixes Found in the textbook entitled *“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by ShylaK. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti.”***

Morphology is the study of words and their structure. Words are meaningful units that can be combined to form phrases and sentences. As has been mentioned above, morphology is the study of words and their structure.The affixation is the process of the attachment of affixes to the stem. The bound morphemes that are attached can be in the left or right of the stem. The morpheme that is put at the initial position of the word is called prefix; while the bound morpheme put at the right position of the word is called suffix.

The following will be the presentation of the data of English affixes available in the source of the data.

* 1. **English Prefixes the textbook entitled *“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by ShylaK. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti.”***

Prefixes are the affixes attached at the beginning of a word. Here are the prefixes that are found in the textbook as the source of the data.

* 1. The English Prefix *in-*

The prefix *in-* that is found in the source of the data is:

Table 1

The English Prefix *in-*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Prefix in- | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 1. | inexpensive | p.103 | in- | expensive |
| 2. | independence | p.74 | in- | dependence |
| 3. | indefinite | p.103 | in- | definite |

In the data (1), (2), and (3) above, the prefix –in is used. The prefix –in is attached to the words *expensive, dependence*, and *definite*. The addition of the prefix –in will change the meaning of the words. The prefix –in means negation.

* 1. The English Prefix *un-*

The prefix *un-* can be found in the following data:

Table 2

The English Prefix un-

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Prefix in- | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 4. | unexpectedly | p.6 | un- | expected |
| 5. | unstructured | p.87 | un- | structured |
| 6. | uncomfortably | p.132 | un- | comfort |
| 7. | unpleasant | p.136 | un- | pleasant |
| 8. | unbelievable | p.138 | un- | believe |

In the data (4), (5), (6), (7), and (8) above, the prefix –un is used. The prefix –un is attached to the following data: *expectedly, structured, comfortably, pleasant, and believable.* The grammatical meaning of the prefix –un is negation.

* 1. The English Prefix *mis-*

Look at the following table in which there are data of English prefix *mis-*.

Table 3

The English Prefix *mis-*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Prefix in- | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 9. | misunderstood | p.19 | mis- | understood |
| 10. | misaddressed | p.26 | mis- | addressed |

The prefix –*mis* is obtained from the data (9) and (10). The prefix *mis*- is attached to the stem *understood* and *addressed*. The prefix *mis*- has the grammatical meaning negation. The base is the past verb. The addition of the prefix mis- to the base does not change the part of speech of the verb.

* 1. The English Prefix *extra-*

Look at the table below.

Table 4

The English Prefix *extra-*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Prefix in- | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 11. | extraordinary | p.68 | extra- | ordinary |

 The data (11) shows that the prefix extra- is used. The stem is ordinary.; the prefix is extra.

* 1. The English Prefix *inter-*

The data of English prefix *inter*- can be seen in the following table.

Table 5

The English Prefix *inter-*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Prefix in- | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 12. | international | p.88 | inter- | national |

The datum (12) makes use of the prefix *inter*-. It is attached to the base *national.* The addition of the prefix *inter* to the base national does not change the part of speech of the word. However, the meaning does change. The grammatical meaning of the prefix *inter*- is place.

* 1. The English Prefix *over-*

The data of English prefix *over*- can be seen in the following table.

Table 6

The English Prefix *over-*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Prefix in- | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 13. | overshadowed | p.104 | over- | shadowed |
| 14. | overwrite | p.125 | over- | write |
| 15. | overwritten | p.125 | over- | written |

The data (13), (14), and (15) are the data in which the prefix *over*- is used. The prefix *over-* is attached to the *base shadowed, write,* and *written*.

* 1. The English Prefix *dis-*

The data of English prefix *dis*- can be seen in the following table.

Table 7

The English Prefix dis-

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Prefix in- | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 16. | disappointment | p.111 | dis- | appoint |

The data (16) has the prefix *dis-*. The prefix *dis-* is attached to *appointment*. Actually, the word *appointment* itself is the result of the combination of the base *appoint* and the suffix –*ment.*The addition of the prefix *dis-* does not change the part of speech of the word.

* 1. The English Prefix *re-*

The English prefix *re*- can be seen in the following table.

Table 8

The English Prefix *re-*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Prefix in- | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 17. | recount | p.114 | re- | count |
| 18. | retelling | p.114 | re- | tell |
| 19. | retell | p.114 | re- | tell |
| 20. | reconstruct | p.114 | re- | construct |
| 21. | reaction | p.114 | re- | act |
| 22. | rewrite | p.145 | re- | write |

In the data (17), (18), (19), (20), (21) and (22), the prefix *re-* is used. The prefix *re-* is attached to the base, *count, telling, tell, construct, action* and *write.* The use of the prefix *re-* as the prefix to the bases above does not change the part of speech. The grammatical meaning of the prefix *re-* is ‘again’. *Retell* means *tell again*.

* 1. The English Prefix *ir-*

The English prefix *ir*- can be seen in the following table.

Table 9

The English Prefix *ir-*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Prefix in- | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 23. | irregular | p.125 | ir- | regular |

The datum (23) displays the use of the prefix *ir-*. The use of such a prefix does not change the part of speech of the word. The base regular is a noun. It stays the same after the prefix *ir*- is added. The grammatical meaning of the prefix is negation.

* 1. The English Prefix *under-*

In the table below are the data of English prefix *under-.*

Table 10

The English Prefix *under-*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Prefix in- | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 24. | undergo | p.125 | under- | go |
| 25. | underwent | p.125 | under- | went |
| 26. | underground | p.138 | under- | ground |
| 27. | underlined | p.138 | under- | lined |

The data (24), (25), (260 and (27) are the data in which the prefix *under*- is used. The word *undergo, underwent, underground*, and *underlined* consist of under +go, under + went, under + ground, and under + lined.

1. **English Suffixes the textbook entitled *“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti.”***

Suffix is the affix that is added at the initial position of the base or stem. Here are the English suffixes that are found in the source of the data*“ForwardAn English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti.”*

1. The English Suffix *–ment*

Table 11

The English Suffix -*ment*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 28. | achievement | p.15 | -ment | achieve |
| 29. | statement | p.25 | -ment | state |
| 30. | announcement | p.48 | -ment | announce |
| 31. | improvement | p.84 | -ment | improve |
| 32. | replacement | p.86 | -ment | replace |
| 33. | adjustment | p.88 | -ment | adjust |
| 34. | retirement | p.89 | -ment | retire |
| 35. | disappointment | p.111 | -ment | appoint |
| 36. | punishment | p.131 | -ment | punish |
| 37. | advertisement | p.147 | -ment | advertise |
| 38. | employment | p.153 | -ment | employ |
| 39. | requirement | p.154 | -ment | require |
| 40. | equipment | p.154 | -ment | equip |
| 41. | management | p.161 | -ment | manage |
| 42. | appointment | p.163 | -ment | appoint |
| 43. | movement | p.200 | -ment | move |

In the data (28), (29), (30), (31), (32), (33), (34), (35), (36), (37), (38), (39), (40), (41), (42) and (43), the suffix *ment-* is used. The suffix *ment-* is added to the base (verb) *achieve, state, announce, improve, replace, adjust, retire, disappoint, punish, advertise, employ, require, equip, manage,* and *move.* The addition of the suffix *ment-* causes the change in part of speech. The verb changes into a noun. Consequently, the position of the word in a sentence will be in the position of subject and object.

1. The English Suffix –*ion*

Table 12

The English Suffix *-ion*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 44. | information | p.3 | -ion | inform |
| 45. | pronunciation | p.3 | -ion | pronounce |
| 46. | conversation | p.5 | -ion | converse |
| 47. | expression | p.6 | -ion | express |
| 48. | instruction | p.9 | -ion | instruct |
| 49. | congratulation | p.17 | -ion | congratulate |
| 50. | pronunciation | p.17 | -ion | pronounce |
| 51. | communication | p.20 | -ion | communicate |
| 52. | operation | p.21 | -ion | operate |
| 53. | graduation | p.20 | -ion | graduate |
| 54. | promotion | p.22 | -ion | promote |
| 55. | election | p.23 | -ion | elect |
| 56. | interaction | p.23 | -ion | interact |
| 57. | competition | p.26 | -ion | compete |
| 58. | announcement | p.28 | -ion | announce |
| 59. | presentation | p.29 | -ion | present |
| 60. | decoration | p.31 | -ion | decorate |
| 61. | reduction | p.47 | -ion | reduce |
| 62. | prediction | p.53 | -ion | predict |
| 63. | description | p.61 | -ion | describe |
| 64. | examination | p.76 | -ion | examine |
| 65. | regulation | p.77 | -ion | regulate |
| 66. | possession | p.79 | -ion | possess |
| 67. | contraction | p.79 | -ion | contract |
| 68. | demonstration | p.85 | -ion | demonstrate |
| 69. | participation | p.85 | -ion | participate |
| 70. | completion | p.88 | -ion | complete |
| 71. | contribution | p.88 | -ion | contribute |
| 72. | collection | p.104 | -ion | collect |
| 73. | restoration | p.104 | -ion | restorate |
| 74. | attraction | p.105 | -ion | attract |
| 75. | transportation | p.112 | -ion | transport |
| 76. | consultation | p.112 | -ion | consult |
| 77. | proclamation | p.112 | -ion | proclaim |
| 78. | justification | p.113 | -ion | justify |
| 79. | reaction | p.115 | -ion | react |
| 80. | production | p.118 | -ion | produce |
| 81. | adaptation | p.118 | -ion | adapt |
| 82. | description | p.120 | -ion | describe |
| 83. | hesitation | p.135 | -ion | hesitate |
| 84. | decision | p.169 | -ion | decide |
| 85. | comparison | p.169 | -ion | compare |
| 86. | explanation | p.174 | -ion | explain |
| 87. | acquisition | p.193 | -ion | acquire |
| 88. | digestion | p.193 | -ion | digest |
| 89. | conclusion | p.193 | -ion | conclude |
| 90. | education | p.193 | -ion | educate |
| 91. | action | p.193 | -ion | act |
| 92. | presentation | p.193 | -ion | present |
| 93. | population | p.193 | -ion | populate |
| 94. | addition | p.193 | -ion | add |
| 95. | celebration | p.193 | -ion | celebrate |
| 96. | decoration | p.193 | -ion | decorate |
| 97. | devastation | p.193 | -ion | devastate |
| 98. | devotion | p.193 | -ion | devote |
| 99. | promotion | p.193 | -ion | promote |
| 100. | admission | p.193 | -ion | admit |
| 101. | permission | p.194 | -ion | permit |

The data (44) – (101) are the data in which the suffix *–ion* is used. The bases of the data are: *inform, pronounce, converse, express, instruct, congratulate, communicate, operate, graduate, promote, elect, interact, compete, announce present, decorate, reduce, predict, describe, examine, regulate, possess, contract, demonstrate, participate, complete, contribute, collect, restore, attract, transport, consult, proclaim, justify, react, produce, adapt, describe, hesitate, decide, compare, acquire, digest, conclude, educate, act, present, populate, add, celebrate, decorate, define, devote, promote, admit and permit.* The data of the bases show that they are categorized as verbs. The addition of the bound morpheme *–ion* changes the part of speech of the verbs.

1. The English Suffix –*er*

Table 13

The English Suffix -*er*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 102. | teacher | p.9 | -er | teach |
| 103. | speaker | p.9 | -er | speak |
| 104. | reader | p.35 | -er | read |
| 105. | listener | p.35 | -er | listen |
| 106. | prayer | p.73 | -er | pray |
| 107. | designer | p.76 | -er | design |
| 108. | recruiters | p.99 | -er | recruit |
| 109. | keeper | p.106 | -er | keep |
| 110. | officer | p.111 | -er | office |
| 111. | publisher | p.126 | -er | publish |
| 112. | seller | p.181 | -er | sell |
| 113. | buyer | p.181 | -er | buy |
| 114. | programmer | p.211 | -er | program |

The data (102),(103), (104), (105), (106), (107), (108), (109), (110), (111), (112), (113) and (114) are the data in which the suffix –*er* is used. The use of the suffix –er changes the part of speech. Verb becomes noun. Semantically, the suffix –*er* means “one who does….” A teacher is someone who teaches; A speaker is someone who speaks; A reader is someone who reads: etc;

1. The English Suffix -or

Table 14

The English Suffix -or

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 115. | visitor | p.84 | -or | visit |
| 116. | supervisor | p.89 | -or | supervise |
| 117. | distributor | p.99 | -or | distribute |
| 118. | surveyor | p.104 | -or | survey |
| 119. | governor | p.117 | -or | govern |
| 120. | coordinator | p.154 | -or | coordinate |

 The data (115), (116), (117), (118), (119) and (120) are the data in which the suffix *–or* is used. The addition of the suffix –or changes the part of speech. The bases *visit, supervise, distribute, survey, govern and coordinate,* are verbs; *visitors, supervisor, distributor, surveyor, governor and coordinator are* the persons who do the act. For example, *visitor is someone who visits*.

1. The English Suffix –*ence*

Table 15

The English Suffix -*ence*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 121. | difference | p.6 | -ence | differ |
| 122. | reference | p.47 | -ence | refer |
| 123. | intelligence | p.69 | -ence | intelligent |

The data (121), (122) and (123) are the data in which the suffix –*ence* is used.

1. The English Suffix –*ful*

Table 16

The English Suffix -*ful*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 124. | beautiful | p.31 | -ful | beauty |
| 125. | bashful | p.31 | -ful | bash |
| 126. | helpful | p.31 | -ful | help |
| 127. | harmful | p.31 | -ful | harm |
| 128. | Colorful | p.41 | -ful | color |
| 129. | graceful | p.70 | -ful | grace |
| 130. | successful | p.119 | -ful | success |

The data (124), (125), (126), (127), (128), (129) and (130) display the use of the suffix –*ful.* The bases are: *beauty, harm, color, grace and success*

1. The English Suffix –ent

Table 17

The English Suffix -ent

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 131. | different | p.2 | -ent | differ |

The datum (131) is displaying the use of the suffix –*ent.* The stem is *differ*. The stem is categorized as the verb. The addition of the suffix makes the verb change into an adjective.

1. The English Suffix –*en*

Table 18

The English Suffix -*en*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 132. | sharpen | p.19 | -en | sharp |

The datum (132) is the use of the suffix –*en*. This suffix is added to the adjective *sharp*. The part of speech changes.The adjective changes to become a verb.

1. The English Suffix –*al*

Table 19

The English Suffix -*al*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 133. | personal | p.3 | -al | person |
| 134. | formal | p.4 | -al | form |
| 135. | mathematical | p.31 | -al | mathematics |
| 136. | functional | p.31 | -al | function |
| 137. | influential | p.31 | -al | influence |
| 138. | chemical | p.31 | -al | chemistry |
| 139. | magical | p.31 | -al | magic |
| 140. | essential | p.32 | -al | essence |
| 141. | physical | p.42 | -al | physics |
| 142. | historical | p.57 | -al | history |
| 143. | hierarchical | p.57 | -al | hierarchy |
| 144. | financial | p.74 | -al | finance |
| 145. | professional | p.103 | -al | profession |
| 146. | original | p.104 | -al | origin |
| 147. | archaeological | p.105 | -al | archaeology |
| 148. | ceremonial | p.113 | -al | ceremony |
| 149. | chronological | p.113 | -al | chronology |
| 150. | factual | p.114 | -al | fact |
| 151. | additional | p.155 | -al | addition |
| 152. | industrial | p.174 | -al | industry |
| 153. | practical | p.179 | -al | practice |

The data (133) – (153) are the data in which the suffix –*al* is used. The bases are :*person*,*form, mathematic, function,etc.*

1. The English Suffix –*ant*

Table 20

The English Suffix -*ant*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 154. | participant | p.9 | -ant | participate |

The datum (154) uses the suffix –*ant.* This suffix is attached to the base *partipate.* The suffix –ant means someone who participates.

1. The English Suffix –ity

Table 21

The English Suffix -ity

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 154. | personality | p.11 | -ity | person |
| 155. | formality | p.23 | -ity | formal |
| 156. | activity | p.36 | -ity | active |
| 157. | activities | p.93 | -ity | active |

 The data (154), (155), (156) and (157) are the data in which the suffix –*ity* is used. The bases are: *personal,formal, active.*

1. The English Suffix –*ly*

Table 22

The English Suffix -*ly*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 158. | personally | p.12 | -ly | person |
| 159. | fluently | p.13 | -ly | fluent |
| 160. | really | p.13 | -ly | real |
| 161. | generally | p.19 | -ly | general |
| 162. | absolutely | p.21 | -ly | absolute |
| 163. | probably | p.26 | -ly | probable |
| 164. | freshly | p.27 | -ly | fresh |
| 165. | usually | p.35 | -ly | usual |
| 166. | quickly | p.35 | -ly | quick |
| 167. | confidently | p.35 | -ly | confident |
| 168. | basically | p.35 | -ly | basic |
| 169. | actually | p.35 | -ly | actual |
| 170. | clearly | p.35 | -ly | clear |
| 171. | surely | p.35 | -ly | sure |
| 172. | ideally | p.35 | -ly | ideal |
| 173. | honestly | p.35 | -ly | honest |
| 174. | theoretically | p.35 | -ly | theoretical |
| 175. | securely | p.35 | -ly | secure |
| 176. | carefully | p.36 | -ly | careful |
| 177. | correctly | p.36 | -ly | correct |
| 178. | accordingly | p.37 | -ly | according |
| 179. | correctly | p.44 | -ly | correct |
| 180. | certainly | p.47 | -ly | certain |
| 181. | strongly | p.39 | -ly | strong |
| 182. | regionally | p.39 | -ly | region |
| 183. | spontaneously | p.51 | -ly | spontaneous |
| 184. | carefully | p.56 | -ly | careful |
| 185. | extraordinarily | p.68 | -ly | extraordinary |
| 186. | beautifully | p.69 | -ly | beautiful |
| 187. | proficiently | p. 70 | -ly | proficient |
| 188. | highly | p.69 | -ly | high |
| 189. | proficiently | p.70 | -ly | proficient |
| 190. | beautifully | p.69 | -ly | beautiful |
| 191. | officially | p.74 | -ly | official |
| 192. | immediately | p.77 | -ly | immediate |
| 193. | adequately | p.86 | -ly | adequate |
| 194. | perfectly | p.8 | -ly | perfect |
| 195. | monthly | p.90 | -ly | month |
| 196. | effectively | p.90 | -ly | effective |
| 197. | weekly | p.96 | -ly | week |
| 198. | correctly | p.100 | -ly | correct |
| 199. | absolutely | p.101 | -ly | absolute |
| 200. | recently | p.106 | -ly | recent |
| 201. | extensively | p.106 | -ly | extensive |
| 202. | leasurely | p.106 | -ly | leisure |
| 203. | jaggedly | p.106 | -ly | jagged |
| 204. | accurately | p.111 | -ly | accurate |
| 205. | eventually | p.112 | -ly | eventual |
| 206. | immediately | p.112 | -ly | immediate |
| 207. | roughly | p.112 | -ly | rough |
| 208. | historically | p.132 | -ly | historical |
| 209. | carefully | p.132 | -ly | careful |
| 210. | naturally | p.134 | -ly | natural |

The data (158) – (210) are the data in which the suffix *–ly* is used. The use of this suffix is intended to make adverbs of manner that describe how an act is done.

1. The English Suffix –*ship*

Table 23

The English Suffix -*ship*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 218. | championship | p.21 | -ship | champion |
| 219. | scholarship | p.21 | -ship | scholar |
| 220. | relationship | p.68 | -ship | relation |

The data (218), (219) and (220) indicate the use of the suffix –*ship.* There are three base found where the suffix –ship is attached. They are *champion, scholar* and *relation.* The bases are categorized as nouns. The addition of the suffix –*ship* does not change the part of speech of the base.

1. The English Suffix –*ance*

Table 24

The English Suffix -ance

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 221. | performance | p.29 | -ance | perform |
| 222. | appearance | p.63 | -ance | appear |
| 223. | assistance | p.91 | -ance | assist |
| 224. | utterance | p.120 | -ance | utter |
| 225. | arrogance | p.140 | -ance | arrogant |

The data (221), (222), (223), (224) and (225) are the data in which there is the suffic –*ance.* The suffix –*ance* is added to the bases:*perform, appear, assist, utter, arrogant.*

1. The English Suffix –*able/-ible*

Table 25

The English Suffix –*able/ible*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 226. | understandable | p.31 | -able | understand |
| 227. | readable | p.31 | -able | read |
| 228. | readable | p.31 | -able | read |
| 229. | incredible | p.31 | -ible | credit |
| 230. | enjoyable | p.31 | -able | enjoy |
| 231. | uncountable | p.32 | -able | count |
| 232. | remarkable | p.69 | -able | remark |
| 233. | unforgettable | p.72 | -able | forget |
| 234. | countable | p.73 | -able | count |
| 235. | acceptable | p.76 | -able | accept |
| 236. | admirable | p.119 | -able | admire |
| 237. | fashionable | p.126 | -able | fashion |
| 238. | deporable | p.136 | -able | depore |

The data (226), (227), (228), (229), (230), (231), (232), (233), (234), (235), (236), (237) and (238) are the data in which the suffix –*able* is used.

1. The English Suffix –*ic*

Table 26

The English Suffix *-ic*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 239. | artistic | p.31 | -ic | art |
| 240. | manic | p.31 | -ic | mania |
| 241. | rustic | p.31 | -ic | rust |
| 242. | terrific | p.31 | -ic | terrify |
| 243. | fantastic | p.31 | -ic | fantasy |

The data in (239), (240), (241), (242), and (243) are using the suffix –*ic.*

1. The English Suffix –ive

Table 27

The English Suffix -ive

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 244. | submissive | p.31 | -ive | submit |
| 245. | intuitive | p.31 | -ive | intuition |
| 246. | inventive | p.31 | -ive | invent |
| 247. | attractive | p.31 | -ive | attract |
| 248. | descriptive | p.7 | -ive | describe |
| 249. | narrative | p.133 | -ive | narrate |
| 250. | comparative | p.178 | -ive | compare |

The data in (244), (245), (246), (247), (248), (249) and (250) use the suffix –ive.

1. The English Suffix –*ous*

Table 28

The English Suffix -*ous*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 251. | gorgeous | p.31 | -ous | gorge |
| 252. | dangerous | p.31 | -ous | danger |
| 253. | adventurous | p.31 | -ous | adventure |
| 254. | fabulous | p.31 | -ous | fable |

The data (251), (252), (253) and (254) have the suffix –*ous*. The suffix changes noun into adjective.

1. The English Suffix –*ure*

Table 29

The English Suffix *-ure*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 255. | pleasure | p.32 | -ure | please |
| 256. | creature | p.31 | -ure | create |

The data (255) and (256) have the suffix –*ure.* The suffix –*ure* changes verb into noun.

1. The English Suffix -*ness*

Table 30

The English Suffix -*ness*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 257. | willingness | p.42 | -ness | willing |

The datum (257) uses the suffix –*ness*. This suffix changes adjective into a noun.

1. The English Suffix –*an*

Table 31

The English Suffix -*an*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 258. | politician | p.69 | -an | politic |
| 259. | comedian | p.76 | -an | comedy |
| 260. | technician | p.91 | -an | technic |

The data (258), (259), and (260) use the suffix *–an*. The use of such a suffix does not change the part of speech.

1. The English Suffix –*ary*

Table 32

The English Suffix -*ary*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Suffix | Page of the Data | Bound Morpheme | Free Morpheme |
| 261. | temporary | p.89 | -ary | tempo |
| 263. | elementary | p.89 | -ary | element |
| 273. | documentary | p.93 | -ary | document |

The data (261), (262) and (263) use the suffix –*ary.*

* 1. **Zero Modification in the textbook entitled *“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti.”***

The second research question deals with the availability of zero modification in the English textbook that becomes the source of the data. The research shows that there are data of zero modification in the source of the data. The following are the data of zero modification which are found in the textbook “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti”:

Table 33

The English Zero Modification

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Zero Modification |
| 264. | lost |
| 265. | put |
| 266. | let |
| 267 | rent |
| 268. | cost |
| 269. | read |
| 270. | Cut |
| 271. | quit |

The data (264) –(271) above are the data of zero modification. It means that the verb in the data above remain the same in infinitive, past tense and past participle.

* 1. **Internal Change the textbook entitled *“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X Written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti.”***

The third research question deals withthe availability of internal change in the source of the data. The following are the data of internal change which are found in the source of the data:

Table 34

The English Internal Change

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Number | Data of English Internal Change |
| 272. | get |
| 273. | know |
| 274. | meet |
| 275. | see |
| 276. | write |
| 277. | told |

1. **Discussion**

In accordance with the research questions in chapter one, the discussion consists of English affixes that consist of prefixes and suffixes, zero modification, internal change and percentage of the English morphological process that are found in the English textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti”.

1. **Prefixes**

From the data in the source of the data it is found that there are ten English prefixes available in the textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti”. The prefixes are: *in-,-un-, mis-, extra-, inter-, over-,dis-, re-, ir-,* and *under.*

The prefix –*in* like in *indefinite, independence, inexpensive* do not change the part of speech. Both *definite* and *indefinite* belong to the category of adjective;Both*dependence* and *independence* belong the category of noun. The prefix –in has the grammatical meaning negation*. Indefinite* means *not definite*; *independence* means *not dependent.* There are 3 data of the prefix –*in* found.

The prefix *un-*like in *unstructured, unpleasant*, and *unbelievable* does not change the part of speech of base. Both *structured* and *unstructured* here are adjective. The context of the word can be seen on page 87 of the textbook as the source of the data. The word *structured* and *unstructured* are used in the phrases: *unstructured announcement* and *structured announcement.* There are 5 data of the prefix –*un* in the source of the data.

The prefix *mis-*like in *misunderstood* and *misaddressed* does not change the part of speech. *Understood* and *misunderstood* are verbs. There are 2 data of the prefix *mis-.*

The prefix *extra-* is found in the datum *extraordinarily*. The prefix *extra-* does not change the part of speech. There is only 1 datum of such a prefix in the source of the data.

The prefix *inter-* is found in the word *international.* The prefix *inter-* does not change the part of speech. Both *national* and *international*are noun. There is 1 datum.

The prefix *over-* is found in the data like *overshadowed, overwrite*. There are 3 data of the prefix *over-* that are found in the source of the data.

The prefix *dis-* is found in the word *disappointment.* This prefix does not change the part of speech. There is only 1 datum in the source of the data.

The prefix *re-* is found in the source of the data. The data are like *recount*, *retelling*, etc. There are 6 data of the prefix *re-* found in the source of the data.

The prefix *ir-* is also available in the source of the data. The prefiks*ir*- is found in the word irregular. There is only 1 datum.

The prefix *under-* is found in the words like *undergo, underwent, undergone*. There are 4 data of such a prefix.

The following is the number of each prefix found in the source of the data;

**Table 35**

**The Frequency and Percentage of Kinds of Prefixes in**

**“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X”**

**written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti”.**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Kinds of Prefixes | The Frequency | Percentage |
| 1. | in- | 3 | 0.91% |
| 2. | un- | 5 | 1.52% |
| 3. | mis- | 2 | 0.61% |
| 4. | extra | 1 | 0.30% |
| 5. | inter | 1 | 0.30% |
| 6. | over | 3 | 0.91% |
| 7. | dis- | 1 | 0.30% |
| 8. | re- | 6 | 2.53% |
| 9. | ir- | 1 | 0.30% |
| 10. | under- | 4 | 1.69% |

1. **Suffixes**

Suffix is the affix that is attached to the right of the stem. There are 22 kinds of suffixes found in “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X” written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti”. They are as follows:-*ment, -ion, -er, -or,-ence, ful, -ent, -en, -al,-ant, -ity, -ly, ship,-ance, -able, -ic, -ive,-ous,-ure, -ness,-an, -ary.*

**Table 36**

**The Frequency and Percentage of Kinds of Suffixes in**

**“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X”**

**written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti”.**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Kinds of Suffixes | The Frequency | Percentage |
| 1. | -ment | 16 | 6.75% |
| 2. | -ion | 59 | 24.92% |
| 3. | -er | 13 | 5.48% |
| 4. | -or | 6 | 2.53% |
| 5. | -ence | 3 | 0.91% |
| 6. | -ful | 7 | 2.14% |
| 7. | -ent | 1 | 0.30% |
| 8. | -en | 1 | 0.30% |
| 9. | -al | 21 | 6.42% |
| 10. | -ant | 1 | 0.30% |
| 11. | -ity | 4 | 1.22% |
| 12. | -ly | 53 | 16.20% |
| 13. | -ship | 3 | 0.91% |
| 14. | -ance | 5 | 1.52% |
| 15. | -able | 13 | 3.97% |
| 16. | -ic | 5 | 1.52% |
| 17. | -ive | 7 | 2.14% |
| 18. | -ous | 4 | 1.22% |
| 19. | -ure | 2 | 0.61% |
| 20. | -ness | 1 | 0.30% |
| 21. | -an | 3 | 0.91% |
| 22. | -ary | 3 | 0.91% |

1. **Zero Modification**

**Table 37**

**The Frequency and Percentage of Zero Modification in**

**“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X”**

**written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti”**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Zero Modification | The Frequency | Percentage |
| 1. |  | 8 | 2.75% |

1. **Internal Change**

**Table 38**

**The Frequency and Percentage of Internal Change in**

**“Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X”**

**written by Shyla K. Lande and Eka Mulya Astuti”**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Number | Internal Change | The Frequency | Percentage |
| 1. |  | 61 | 18.65% |

**CHAPTER V**

**CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION**

 In this section of the paper, conclusion and suggestion will be presented.

1. **Conclusion**

The research questions in this research deal with kinds of English affixes, zero modification, internal change, and the percentage of them in in the English textbook entitled “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade X” written by Shyla K. Lande and EkaMulyaAstuti. The results of the research show that there are affixes, zero modification and internal change in the source of the data. The Affixes are of two kinds: prefixes and suffixes.

The English prefixes consist of: in- (0.91%), un- (1.52%), mis- (0.61%), extra- (0.30%), inter- (0.30%), over- (0.91%), dis- (0.30%), re- (2.53%), ir- (0.30%), and under- (1.69%).

The English suffixes found in the source of the data are as follows: -ment (6.75%), -ion (24.92%), -er (5.48%), -or (2.53%), -ence (0.91%), -ful (2.14%), -ent (0.30%), -en (0.30%), -al (6.42%), -ant (0.30%), -ity (1.22%), -ly (16.20%), -ship (0.91%), -ance (1.52%), -able (3.97%), -ic (1.52%), -ive (2.14%), -ous (1.22%), -ure (0.61%), -ness (0.30%), -an (0.91%), and –ary (0.91%).

The other kinds of morphological process are zero modification and internal change. The percentage of zero modification is 2.75% and the percentage of internal change is 18.65%.

1. **Suggestion**

The researcher suggests that teachers and those who get involved in language teaching should pay attention to morphological process because it is the structure of words. one must know the structure of words as well as the structure of sentences or clauses. It is not always easy to understand words because words are also difficult. Morphology is the internal study of words. In the aspect of affixes, there are grammatical meanings that emerge as the consequence of the combination of stem and prefix or suffix. in the aspects of zero modification and internal change, one must be careful that there are words that change and don’t change in past and past participle. By knowing the morphological process, one will be able to understand words exactly.

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