

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the researcher would like to put some theories related to the problems of the study to support this thesis and also a glance about novel *Ronggeng Dukuh Paruk*.

#### 2.1 Morphology

Morphology is a branch of linguistics study, this fields is investigates about the word formation of language. The study of compound words is formed by compounding process and it is included into word formation.

Morphology generally known as the type of exercise we have just performed is an example basic forms in language. This term, which literally means ‘ the study of forms’ , was originally used in biology, but since the middle of the nineteenth century, has also been used to describe the type of investigation that analyzes all those basic ‘elements’ used in a language. What we have been describing as ‘elements’ in the form of a linguistics message are technically known as ‘morphemes’. (Yule, 2006:63).

Keraf gives a definition about morphology in his book *Tata Bahasa Indonesia* (1984:51). He says “*bagian dari tata bahasa yang membicarakan bentuk kata disebut morfologi*” ( a part of linguistics study which discuss about word formation is Morphology).

Another definition about morphology come from O’ Grady and Guzman (1996: 132) notes morphology is the system of categories and rules involved in

word formation and interpretation. According to Booij (2005:4) morphology is the sub discipline of linguistics that deals with such patterns.

## 2.2 Words

The definition of word in morphological a word has an internal cohesion and indivisible by other units; a word may be modified only externally by the addition of suffixes and prefixes.(Brinton, 1987:79).

Words are analyzed morphologically with the same terminology used to describe different sentence types:

- A simple word has one free root, e.g., hand;
- A complex word has a free root and one or more bound morphs, or two or more bound morphs, e.g., unhand, handy, handful;
- A compound word has two free roots, e.g., handbook, handrail, handgun;
- A compound-complex word has two free roots and associated bound morphs, e.g., handwriting, handicraft.

## 2.3 Phrase

The nature of syntactic units built around Ns, Vs, As and Ps, such as units are called **phrases**. Phrases are built around a 'skeleton' consisting of two levels, as depicted below. (The symbol P stands for 'phrase')

(NP, VP, AP, PP) phrase level

(N, V, A, P) word level

Each level of phrase structure can be thought of as a sort ‘hook’ (like a hook on a pole) to which elements of different types can be attached. The lowest level is reserved for the word around which the phrase is built an N in the case NPs, a V in the case of Vps and so on. This element is called the **head** of the phrase. Example of phrase which only the head position is filled:

- (he likes) books (NP > N)
- (all animals) eat (VP > V)
- (she is) certain (Ap > A)
- (he went) in (PP > P)

Although phrases can consist of just one word, they often contain other elements as well. For example:

- a. [<sub>NP</sub> the books]
- b. [<sub>VP</sub> never eat]
- c. [<sub>AP</sub> quite certain]
- d. [<sub>PP</sub> almost in]

In addition to a head (the underlined element), each of these phrases includes a second word that has a special semantic and syntactic role. Such words (a determiners such as *the* and *a*, qualifiers such as *never* and *often*, and degree words such as *quite* or *almost*) are said to function as specifiers. Semantically specifiers help to make more precise the meaning of the head. Syntactically, specifiers typically mark a phrase boundary. In English, specifiers occur at the left boundary (the beginning) of their perspective phrases. They are attached to the top

level of phrase, to the left of the head. The syntactic category of the specifier differs depending on the category of the head.

#### Some specifiers

Category	Typical function	Examples
Determiner (Det)	Specifier of N	The, a this, those, no
Qualifier (Qual)	Specifier of V	Never, perhaps, often ,always
Degree word (Deg)	Specifier of A or P	Very, quite, more, almost

Consider now some examples of slightly more complex phrases.

- a. [NP the books about the war]
- b. [VP never eat a hamburger]
- c. [AP quite certain about Mary]
- d. [PP almost in the house]

In addition to a specifier and the underlined head, the phrases also contain a **complement**. These elements, which are themselves phrases, provide information about entities and locations whose existence is implied by the meaning of the head. For example, the meaning of *eat* implies an object that is eaten, the meaning of *in* implies a location, and so on. Complements are attached

to the right of the head in English (but to the left in many other languages).

Example of a VP consisting of a head, a specifier, and a complement

- Never eat (VP) a hamburger (NP)

Never (Qualifier), eat (V), a (determiner), hamburger (complement)

The arrangement of the elements that make up a phrase is regulated by a special type of grammatical mechanism called a **phrase structure rule**. The following phrase structure rules stipulate the position of specifiers, heads, and complements in the various types of phrases.

NP → (Det) N (PP)...

VP → (Qual) V (NP)...

AP → (Deg) A (PP)...

PP → (Deg) P (NP)

The first of these rules states that an NP can consist of a determiner, an N head and a PP complement, the second rule captures the fact a VP can be composed of a qualifier, a V and an NP complement and so on. As the parentheses in our rules indicate both specifiers and complements are optional. Thus, a phrase may consist of a specifier, a head, and a complement; a head and a complement; a specifier and a head; or just a head. For example:

- a. Never drink (VP) the water (NP)

Never (Qual), drink (V)

- b. On(PP) the floor (NP)  
On (P), the floor (NP)
- c. The man (NP)  
The (Det), man (N)
- d. (The boys) arrived (VP>V)

In all four phrases, the specifier is attached at the top level to the left of the head while the complement is attached to the right. Instead of having four separate phrase structure rules to capture the placement of specifiers, heads, and complements, we now can formulate the single general rule.

The XP rule:

XP → (specifier) X (Complement)

With the symbol X standing for N, V, A or P, this rule is an abbreviation for the four separate phrase structure rules. (O'Grady, 1996: 185-190).

## 2.4 Compounds

Compounds are made of from compounding (sometimes called composition) rather loosely as the combination of two words to form a new word. This definition contains two crucial assumptions, the first being that compounds consist of two (and not more) elements, the second being that these elements are words. This is the example of compounds such as power source requirement, engine communication error, and communication technology equipment. This

impression is further enhanced by the fact that there are compounds with four, five or even more members, e.g. university teaching award committee member.

The vast majority of compounds are interpreted in such a way that the left-hand member somehow modifies the right-hand member. Thus, a *film society* is a kind of society (namely one concerned with films), a *parks commissioner* is a commissioner occupied with parks, *to deep-fry* is a verb designating a kind of frying, *knee-deep* in *Shewaded in knee-deep water* tells us something about how deep the water is, and so on. We can thus say that such compounds exhibit what is called a modifier-head structure. The term **head** is generally used to refer to the most important unit in complex linguistic structures. With regard to their head, compounds in English have a very important systematic property: their head always occurs on the right-hand side (the so-called right-hand head rule, Williams 1981a:248). The compound inherits most of its semantic and syntactic information from its head. Thus, if the head is a verb, the compound will be a verb (e.g. *deep-fry*), if the head is a count noun, the compound will be a count noun (e.g. *beer bottle*), if the head has feminine gender, the compound will have feminine gender (e.g. *head waitress*). Another property of the compound head is that if the compound is pluralized the plural marking occurs on the head, not on the non-head.

Thus, *parks commissioner* is not the plural of *park commissioner*; only *park commissioners* can be the plural form of *park commissioner*. In the existing compound *parks commissioners*, the plural interpretation is restricted to the non-head and not inherited by the whole compound. The notion of head there

are words that internally consists of more than one word such as *jack-in-the-box*, *good-for-nothing* and syntactically they behave like other words, be they complex or simplex. For example, *jack-in-the-box* (being a count noun) can take an article, can be modified by an adjective and can be pluralized, hence behaves syntactically like any other noun with similar properties. However, and crucially, such multi-word words do not have the usual internal structure of compounds, but have the internal structure of syntactic phrases.

Thus, they lack a right-hand head, and they do not consist of two elements that meet the criteria of our definition. For example, under a compound analysis *jack-in-the-box* is headless, since a *jack-in-the-box* is neither a kind of box, nor a kind of *jack*. Furthermore, *jack-in-the-box* has a phrase (the so-called prepositional phrase [*in the box*]) as its *right*-hand member, and not as its *left*-hand member, as required for compounds involving syntactic phrases as one member. In addition, *jack-in-the-box* fits perfectly the structure of English noun phrases (cf. *(the) fool on the hill*). In sum, words like *jack-in-the-box* are best regarded as lexicalized phrases and not as compounds.

The structure of English compounds.

a. [ X Y ] Y

b. X = { root, word, phrase }

Y = { root, word }

Y = grammatical properties inherited from Y

The rules above is a template for compounds which shows us that compounds are binary, and which kinds of element may occupy which positions. Furthermore, it tells us that the right-hand member is the head, since this is the member from which the grammatical properties percolate to the compound as a whole.

Compounds tend to have a stress pattern that is different from that of phrases. While phrases tend to be stressed phrase-finally, i.e. on the last word, compounds tend to be stressed on the first element. This systematic difference is captured in the so-called **nuclear stress** rule ('phasal stress is on the last word of the phrase') and the so-called **compound stress** rule ('stress is on the left-hand member of a compound'), formalized in Chomsky and Halle (1986:17). This systematic difference between the stress assignment in noun phrases and in noun compounds can even lead to minimal pairs where it is only the stress pattern that distinguishes between the compound and the phrase and their respective interpretations):

Noun compound

Noun phrase

a. blackboard

a black board

'a board to write on'

'a board that is black'

b. greenhouse

a green house

'a glass building for growing plants'

'a house that is green'

(Plag, 2002:169-177)

## 2.5 Compounding

In many languages, compounding (also called composition) is the most frequently used way of making new lexemes. Its defining property is that it consists of the combination of lexemes into larger words. In simple cases, compounding consists of the combination of two words, in which one word modifies the meaning of the other, the head. (Booij, 2005:75).

Yule (2006:54) also gives his definition about compounding. “In some of those examples we have just considered, there is a joining of two separate words to produce a single form. Thus, *Lehn* and *Wort* are combined to produce *Lehnwort* in German. This combining process, technically known as **compounding**, is very common in languages such as German and English, but much less common in language such as French and Spanish”.

In other words, O’ Grady and Guzman (1996: 151) compounding is the combination of lexical categories (nouns, adjectives, verbs, or preposition). The resulting compound word is a noun, a verb, or an adjective. In these and most other compounds, the rightmost morpheme determines the category of the entire word. Thus, *greenhouse* is an N because its rightmost component is an N, *spoon-feed* is a V because feed also belongs to this category, and *nationwide* is an A just as wide is. The morpheme that determines the category of the entire word is called the **head**.

Some English compounding process that resulting compound words according to O’Grady and Guzman (1996:152) are as follows:

### 1. Noun Compounds

Noun+Noun> Noun for example: fire-engine, oil-well

Adjective+Noun> Noun for example: greenhouse, bluebird

Verb+Noun> Noun for example: pushbutton, jumpsuit

Preposition+Noun> Noun for example: after thought, in-laws

### 2. Verb compounds

Noun+Verb>Verb for example: spoon-feed, steam-roll

Adjective+Verb>Verb for example: whitewash, dry-clean

Preposition+ Verb> Verb for example: overlook, underestimate

Verb+Verb> Verb for example: dropkick, break-dance

### 3. Adjective compounds

Noun+Adjective>Adjective for example: nationwide, sky-blue

Adjective+Adjective>Adjective for example: red-hot, deep blue

Preposition+Adjective>Adjective for example: over-ripe, in-grown

## 2.6 Types of Compounds

### 2.6.1 Endocentric and Exocentric compounds

Compounds are used to express a wide range of semantic relationships in English. In most cases the rightmost component of the compound identifies the general class to which the meaning of the entire word belongs. Thus *dog food* is a type of food; a *cave man* is a type of man, and so on. Such compounds are called **endocentric**.

In a smaller number of cases, however, the meaning of the compound does not follow from the meanings of its parts in this way.

Thus, a *greenbottle* is not a type of bottle; rather, it is a fly of the genus *lucilia*. Similarly, a *redneck* is not a type of neck but an ultra conservative, white working-class person; and a *sugar-daddy* is not a type of sugar-coated father but a woman's lover who is deemed to be both overgenerous and much too old for her. Such compounds are said to be **exocentric**.(O'Grady and Guzman, 1996: 154-155).

## 2.7 Characteristics of Compound words

In English, for instance, According to Becerra (2000) compound words have the following characteristics:

1. Compound words behave grammatically and semantically as single words. "For example, blackboard is Noun and the the meaning of blackboard is board for writing on".(Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002: 59)
2. 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: passerby, brothers-in-law, court-martial.
3. Compound words can be written in three different ways:

**Open**, i.e., with a space between the parts of the compound; e.g., *toy store*, *diving board*, *flower pot*.

Hyphenated, i.e., with a **hyphen** (-) separating the elements of the compound; e.g., *flower-pot*, *air-broke*, *she-pony*.

Solid, i.e., without space or hyphen between the component elements of the compound; e.g., *flowerpot*, *washrooms*, *pickpocket*.

Preference for a particular form of writing the compound words depends largely on lexicographical conventions and the variety of English use. For instance, **hyphenation** (i.e., separating the elements of a compound with a hyphen) is more common in British English than in American English. In American English, the tendency is to write the compounds open or solid (Quirk et al., 1985). However, hyphenation is quite common practice in both varieties of the language when **ad hoc premodifying compounds**<sup>5</sup> are used; e.g., *a muchneeded rest*; *a state-of-the-art report*.

4. The global meaning of the compound word can often be guessed from the individual meaning of each element of the compound. For example, a *boathouse* is ‘a shed in which boats are stored’; a *bookstore* is ‘a store which sells books’; and so on. But there are a few compound words whose global meanings have to be learned as if they were single words because such meanings cannot be guessed from the individual meanings of the component elements of the compounds. For instance, a *Redcoat* is ‘a British soldier’, not ‘a coat that is red’. Similarly, a *flatfoot* is ‘a detective or policeman’, a *turncoat* is ‘a traitor’, a *hot dog* is ‘a kind of fast food’, etc.
5. Compound words usually have the primary stress on the first element of the compound; e.g., "*air-Æcrafts*", "*chewing-Ægum*". This fact differentiates compounds from the phrase that have same elements and order as

compounds. Phrases usually have their primary accent on the second (or nominal) element; e.g., *a "red Æ coat* vs. *a "Red Æcoat*; *a "flat Æ foot* vs. *a "flat Æfoot*; *the "white Æ house* vs. *the "White Æhouse*. Of course, there are a few compounds which have their primary stress on the second element as phrases; e.g., *Æworking "man, Æflying" saucer, woman "writer, Æ fancy "dress*.

6. The second element (or **head word**) of the compound usually determines the grammatical category to which the whole compound belongs. Following are a few possible combinations:

*n + n = n*; e.g., *sunrise, dancing girl, hand-shake, air-conditioning, cigar smoker, windmill*.

*v + n = n*; e.g., *rattlesnake, call-girl, dance-hall*

*adj. + n = n*, e.g., *darkroom, highbrow*

*n + adj. = adj.*; e.g., *airsick, bottle-green*

*pron. + n = n*; e.g., *she-pony, he-goat*

*Prep. + v = v*; e.g., *overtake, undergo*

*Prep. + n = n*; e.g., *onlooker, off-day*

*adj. + adj. = adj.*; e.g., *gray-green, Swedish- American*

However, there are some cases in which the headword does not determine the grammatical class of the compound; for example:

n + v = adj.; e.g., *man-eating*, *ocean-going*, *heartfelt*

adj. / adv. + v = adj. e.g., *hard-working*, *good-looking*, *dry-cleaned*

n + prep. = n; e.g., *passer-by*, *hanger-on*.

v + (adv.) prep. = n; e.g., *show-off*, *holdup*.

v + adv. = n; e.g., *have-not*, *get-together*.

It is important to point out that some compound words are made up of a bound root (or ‘**special**’ **combining form**, as Quirk et al. (1985) call it), e.g., **socio-**, **psycho-**, and a freeroot; e.g., socioeconomic, psychoanalysis, biotechnology. The compound may also consist of two bound roots; e.g., *Laundromat*, *nephrolithotomy*, *pornography*.

7. Compounding is a recursive process; i.e., one compound itself may become a constituent of a larger compound; e.g., *lighthouse keeper*, *living-room furniture*.

## 2.8 Compound Words in *Bahasa Indonesia*

### 2.8.1 Characteristics of Compound words in *Bahasa Indonesia*

- a. Formed a new meaning.
- b. The relation to the outside of the combination formed one unit, which attracts the descriptions of the unity and not of the parts of it.
- c. Commonly consists of basic words.

d. Compound words are often used.

e. Especially, endocentric compounds, formed according to laws of *DM* (*Diterangkan mendahului Menerangkan*). (Keraf, 1984: 126)

### 2.8.2 Types of Compounding in *Bahasa Indonesia* according to Masnur (2008:63).

a. The form of compound the first element is described (D) by the second element (M). There are two kinds of this type of compound that is *karmadharaya* and *tatpursa*. It is mentioned as *karmadharaya* if the second element (as M) is an adjective class. For example, *orang kecil* (= *rakyat jelata*), *hari besar* (= *hari yang diperingati secara nasional*), *meja hijau* (= *pengadilan*). And it is mentioned as *tatpursa* if the second element (as M) is kind of another adjective. For example: (*meja tulis, ruang tamu, kamar mandi*).

b. The form of compound the first element describe (M) to the second element (D). Commonly this type of compound derived from the uptake of element, especially from Sanskrit language. For example; *perdana menteri, bumiputra, purbakala, bala tentara, akil baliq* and etc.

c. The form of the compound of its elements is not mutually explained, but only a combination of parallel (*kopulatif*). This type of the form of this compound is usually called *dwandwa*. When viewed from the relation between the elements of its meaning there is an equivalent, opposite, and synonymous. For example:

Equivalent relation: *kaki tangan, daya juang, tanggung jawab*;

Opposite relation: *jual beli, simpan pinjam, ibu bapak*;

Synonymous relation: *hancur lebur, pucat pasi, sanak saudara*.

d. Based on the number of its elements, compound words can be classified into two types. First, the element of a compound word of two forms; for example *orang tua, anak buah, bini muda, rumah monyet, lembaran hitam* and so on. Secondly, the element of compound words more than two words, for example *senjata makan tuan, sekali tiga uang, apa boleh buat*).

e. “According to Samsuri research in Masnur (2008:63), we can conclude that compound words in *Bahasa Indonesia* can be classified into nine groups based on the construction of the word class that is *kata benda- kata benda (KB- KB), kata benda -kata kerja (KB-KK), kata benda-kata sifat ( KB-KS), kata kerja- kata benda (KK-KB), kata kerja - kata kerja (KK-KK), kata kerja- kata sifat (KK-KS), kata sifat-kata benda (KS-KB), kata sifat-kata kerja (KS-KK), dan kata sifat-kata sifat (KS-KS)*”.

The examples are as follows:

- 1).KB-KB: *tuantanah, kepala batu, matakeraanjang, tanah air*.
- 2).KB -KK: *roti bakar, kursigoyang, kamartidur, ayam sambung*.
- 3).KB -KS: *kursi malas, hidungbelang, kepaladingin, bini muda*.
- 4). KK-KB: *tolak peluru, tusuk jarum, masuk angin, balas budi*.
- 5). KK-KK: *turun minum, temu karya, pukul mundur, pulang pergi*.

- 6). KK-KS: *tertangkap basah, tahu beres, adu untung.*
- 7). KS-KB: *gatal mulut, haus darah, tinggi hati, besar kepala.*
- 8). KS-KK: *salah ambil, salah lihat, buruk sangka.*
- 9). KS-KS: *panjang lebar, tua renta, lemah lembut, kering kerontang.*

### **2.9 Novel *Ronggeng Dukuh Paruk***

Novel *Ronggeng Dukuh Paruk* is one of the three books of the trilogy works of Ahmad Tohari. He is an Indonesian author. This novel published on 1982, and the story is about the struggle of *tayub* dancer in a small village called Dukuh Paruk during communist upheaval. Novel *Ronggeng Dukuh Paruk* edition was published into Japanese, German, Dutch and English. The English version is translated by Rene T.A Lysloff. This novel also has been translated into Javanese version.

### **2.10 Previous Study**

The study of compound words was done by some researchers; some of them are as follows:

Arifin (2009) “*A Morphological Study on English Compound Words Found in Kanguru Radio English Magazine*”. This research is aimed to describe: 1) the forms of compound words, 2) the kinds of compound words. The researcher uses a various perspectives on the Morphology, Word and Compound Words. The

type of this research is descriptive qualitative. The data are taken from *Kangguru Radio English Magazine*.

Hadiati (2011) studied about “A *morphological analysis of English Compound Words in Tolstoy’s God Sees the Truth but Waits*”. The research of Hadiati seeks about endocentric and exocentric compounds. From the endocentric compound the researcher found that it is included from compound verb, compound noun and compound adjective. The data are taken from short story and the title is *God Sees the Truth but Wait*.

Aprilia (2011), she discussed about compound words in her research “A *study On the Compound Word in National Column in The Jakarta Post Newspaper Published December 2010*”. This study is aimed to describe: 1) the forms of compound word, 2) the meaning of the compound words. This research only wants to find out the compound words in The Jakarta Post Newspaper in National column.