

**AFFIXATION IN THE CHAOS POEM BY CHARIVAMUS
(G. NOSTL TRENITF)**

THESIS

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ABSTRACT

Siregar, Rizki Oktaviani, 1302050066 ‘‘Affixation in The Chaos Poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf). English Program Faculty of Teacher Training and Education University Muhammadiyah of Sumatera Utara. Medan 2017.

This study deals with affixation in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf). The objectives of this study were to find out the types of an affixation and the most dominant type of affixation in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf). Descriptive qualitative method was carried out to analyze the data. The source of the data was taken from pronunciation's book and web page <https://www.hep.wisc.edu/~jnb/charivarius.html> and this research was carried out at library of UMSU on Jl. Kapten Muchtar Basri No.53 Medan. The data collected were analyzed based on the types of affixation they were prefixes, suffixes, infixes, circumfixes, but in The Chaos poem there were only two types such as prefixes and suffixes. Identifying types of affixation in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf) and calculating the percentage of the types which are the most dominant type of affixation. The percentage of affixation in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf) They were 72 items namely prefixes 9 items (12.5%) and suffixes 63 items (87.5%) and suffixes inflexional affixes that the most dominant between another suffixes was 18 items (25%). The most dominantly type of affixation in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf) is suffixes (63) it meant suffixes was the dominant types. By understanding and categorizing the types of affixation the readers are able to use affixation accurately.

Key Words : Affixation, Prefixes, Suffixes, Poem, The Chaos.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. The Background of the study

Language is very important for human beings to communicate with each other. People use language to express their idea, thoughts and feelings. There are so many functions of language, some of them are to: give information, deliver message, express feeling, persuade people, entertain people and share opinion.

Language is representation of thought, feeling, objectives, action and destination. People use language to communicate their thoughts to others. But language is not only limited to the act of communication of one's thought. People do many other things with language. People use language to show their characteristics. Language serves many functions. Therefore, language function is one of people most important necessities that cannot be separated from the people themselves. There are so many function of language, some of them are to give information, deliver message, express feeling, persuade people, entertain people and share opinion.

Grammar is the systematic study and description of a language. In grammar we are exploring language not as sound, as writing but as wording. Grammar is related to how to construct a sentence correctly. Grammar also is a set of rules and example dealing with syntax and word structure.

Morphology is the study of words formation, such as root and affixes. Aronoff (2011:2) In linguistics stated that morphology refers to the mental

system involved in *word* formation or to the branch of linguistics that deal with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed. As we know morphology is structure of word, if we know about morphology, we understand and know how the words are formed, relationship between word and another word, the way forms of words are varied depending on how they are used in sentences, on what basic the part of speech of a particular language are formed, how the system of gender, number, plural, etc. And also how the form of from old ones.

According to M. Haspelmath and Andrea D. Sims (2010:19) said word-forms in an inflectional paradigm generally share (at least) one longer morpheme with a concrete meaning and are distinguished from each other in that they additionally contain different shorter morphemes, called *affixes*. Affixation processes usually make it easy to find the different morphemes and determine their meaning and form. Affixes are part of morphological study that belongs to grammar. An affix is a letter or group of letters which is added to a word and which changes the meaning or the function of the word. Affix is very important part of English because affixes are part of language. Doing affixes to use in media namely literature writing such as a text speech and text reading.

A poem is made of words, and whatever is said in a poem is said in words. The words are organized in lines and stanzas. There are not just convenient ways of writing a poem but the very manner in which a poem exists. A poem is a collection of spoken or written words that expresses ideas or emotions in a powerfully vivid and imaginative style, comprising of a particular rhythmic and

metrical pattern. The chaos poem this is a classic English poem containing about the worst irregularities in English spelling and pronunciation. This is a fun poem about the chaos of the English language, but you will want to pull your hair out in frustration by the end of it.

We can find the affixes such as in the text, newspaper, magazine, poetry, novel, comic, and also in poem. Everything about word it usually used an affixes, because both of them it has relationship. So, the researcher hope that the readers can understand about an affixes and the readers know to classified types of affixation into prefix, infix or suffix especially in poem. The researcher was decided to choose “The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf)” as the source of information or text to be analyze base on the following reason such as There were some types of affixation in the poem and the readers still confuse and difficult to classifying types of affixation.

Based on the reason above, the researcher interested in analyzing this case and presented it as a proposal entitled “Affixation in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf)”.

B. The Identification of the Problem

Based on the background previously stated, the problems can be identified as the following.

1. The types of affixation in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf).

2. The most dominant one of an affixation in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf)
3. Classifying type of affixation into derivational affixes or inflectional affixes.

C. The Scope and Limitation

The scope of this research was related about morphology especially an analysis of affixation found in The Chaos poem (G. Noslt Trenitf).

D. The Formulation of the problem

The problems of the study were formulated as the following.

1. What are types of affixation that is used in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf)?
2. What is dominantly types of affixation that is used in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf)?

E. The Objectives of the problem

In view of the problems of the study, the objectives of the study were:

1. To find out the types of affixation that is used in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Noslt Trenitf).

2. To find out the dominant types of affixation that is used in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Nosl Trenitf).

F. The Significance of the study

The findings of this research were expected to give some relevant contribution for theoretical and practical benefits to the following.

a. Theoretically:

The research was expected to enrich knowledge of the language user about affixation and give easier way in understanding types of affixation in the poem.

b. Practically:

1. For the students, to enlarge their knowledge about affixation.
2. For teachers, to be reference in teaching and learning of morphology especially affixation.
3. For the readers or other researcher, to increase their knowledge in affixation.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Theoretical Framework

Theoretical framework serving anything theory which considered can be explained more than structure kind of theories which is arranged by the researcher. The theoretical framework was presented in the early section of a dissertation and provides the rationale for conducting your research to investigate a particular research problem.

1. Morphology

According to M. Aronoff and K. Fudeman (2011:1-2) said that the term morphology is generally attributed to the German poet, novelist, playwright, and philosopher Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749–1832), who coined it early in the nineteenth century in a biological context. Its etymology is Greek: *morph-* means ‘shape, form’, and *morphology* is the study of form or forms. In biology *morphology* refers to the study of the form and structure of organisms, and in geology it refers to the study of the configuration and evolution of land forms. In linguistics *morphology* refers to the mental system involved in word formation or to the branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed.

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words. Somewhat paradoxically, morphology is both the oldest and one of the youngest

subdisciplines of grammar. It is the oldest because, as far as we know, the first linguists were primarily morphologists. Morphology was also prominent in the writings of the greatest grammarian of Antiquity, the Indian Panini (fifth century bce), and in the Greek and Roman grammatical tradition. Until the nineteenth century, Western linguists often thought of grammar as consisting primarily of word structure, perhaps because the classical languages Greek and Latin had fairly rich morphological patterns that were difficult for speakers of the modern European languages. Morphology is the study of the combination of morphemes to yield words.

Morphological analysis typically consists of the identification of parts of words, or, more technically, constituents of words. We can say that the word *nuts* consists of two constituents: the element *nut* and the element *s*. In accordance with a widespread typographical convention, we will often separate word constituents by a hyphen: *nut-s*. It is often suggested that morphological analysis primarily consists in breaking up words into their parts and establishing the rules that govern the co-occurrence of these parts. Morphology is not equally prominent in all (spoken) languages. What one language expresses morphologically may be expressed by a separate word or left implicit in another language. For example, English expresses the plural of nouns by means of morphology (*nut/nuts*, *night/nights*, and so on), but Yoruba uses a separate word for expressing the same meaning. (M. Haspelmath and Andrea. D Sims 2010:1).

So we can see from the definition of morphology above that morphology is the study of word formation. And also morphology is a distinct component of

language or grammars. Morphology is most simply defined as the study of the combination of morphemes to yield words, but a somewhat more abstract definition (as the study of systematic covariation in the form and meaning of words) will turn out to be more satisfactory. Different languages vary strikingly in the extent to which they make use of morphology.

2. Morpheme

We do not actually have to go to other languages such as Swahili to discover that ‘word forms’ may consist of a number of elements. We can recognize that English word forms such as *talks*, *talker*, *talked* and *talking* must consist of one element *talk*, and a number of other elements such as *-s*, *-er*, *-ed* and *-ing*. All these elements are described as morphemes. The definition of a morpheme is “a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function”. Units of grammatical function include forms used to indicate past tense or plural, for example. In the sentence *The police reopened the investigation*, the word *reopened* consists of three morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is *open*, another minimal unit of meaning is *re-* (meaning ‘again’) and a minimal unit of grammatical function is *-ed* (indicating past tense). The word *tourists* also contains three morphemes. There is one minimal unit of meaning *tour*, another minimal unit of meaning *-ist* (marking ‘person who does something’), and a minimal unit of grammatical function *-s* (indicating plural). (G. Yule 2006:63).

According to M. Aronoff and K. Fudeman (2011:2) stated that a major way in which morphologists investigate words, their internal structure, and how they are

formed is through the identification and study of morphemes, often defined as the smallest linguistic pieces with a grammatical function. This definition is not meant to include all morphemes, but it is the usual one and a good starting point. A morpheme may consist of a word, such as *hand*, or a meaningful piece of a word, such as the *-ed* of *looked*, that cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts. Another way in which morphemes have been defined is as a pairing between sound and meaning. We have purposely chosen not to use this definition. Some morphemes have no concrete form or no continuous form, as we will see, and some do not have meanings in the conventional sense of the term.

Returning now to *reconsideration*, *re-* and *-ation* are both affixes, which means that they are attached to the stem. Affixes like *re-* that go before the stem are prefixes, and those like *-ation* that go after are suffixes. Some readers may wonder why we have not broken *-ation* down further into two pieces, *-ate* and *-ion*, which function independently elsewhere. In this particular word they do not do so (cf. **reconsiderate*), and hence we treat *-ation* as a single morpheme. It is important to take seriously the idea that the grammatical function of a morpheme, which may include its meaning, must be constant.

2.1 Bound Morpheme

Bound morphemes, which are those forms that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form, exemplified as *re-*, *-ist*, *-ed*, *-s*. This last set is familiar from chapter 6, where they were identified as affixes. So, we can say that all affixes (prefixes and suffixes) in English are bound morphemes.

The free morphemes can generally be identified as the set of separate English word forms such as basic nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. When they are used with bound morphemes attached, the basic word forms are technically known as stems.

For example:

undressed

un- dress -ed

prefix stem suffix

(bound) (free) (bound)

We should note that this type of description is a partial simplification of the morphological facts of English. There are a number of English words in which the element treated as the stem is not, in fact, a free morpheme. In words such as *receive*, *reduce* and *repeat*, we can identify the bound morpheme *re-* at the beginning, but the elements *-ceive*, *-duce* and *-peat* are not separate word forms and hence cannot be free morphemes. These types of forms are sometime described as ‘bound stems’ to keep them distinct from ‘free stems’ such as *dress* and *care*. (G. Yule 2006:63).

2.2 Free Morpheme

A. Carstairs-McCarthy (2002:19) stated that morphemes that can stand on their own are called free, A salient characteristic of English – a respect in which English differs from many other languages – is that a high proportion of complex words are like *helpfulness* and *un-Clintonish* in that they have a free morpheme

(like *help* and *Clinton*) at their core. Compare the two columns of words listed at (1), all of which consist uncontroverial of two morphemes, separated by a hyphen:

- | | | | | |
|-----|----|--------------|----|------------|
| (1) | a. | read-able | b. | leg-ible |
| | | hear-ing | | audi-ence |
| | | en-large | | magn-ify |
| | | perform-ance | | rend-ition |
| | | white-ness | | clar-ity |
| | | dark-en | | obfusc-ate |
| | | seek-er | | applic-ant |

The rationale for the division is that the words in column a all contain a free morpheme, respectively *read*, *hear*, *large*, *perform*, *white* and *dark*. By contrast, in the words in column b, though they are similar in meaning to their counterparts in a, both the morphemes are bound. If the readers know something about the history of the English language, or if the readers know some French, Spanish or Latin, the readers may know already that most of the free morphemes in (1a) belong to that part of the vocabulary of English that has been inherited directly through the Germanic branch of the Indo-European language family to which English belongs, whereas all the morphemes in (1b) have been introduced, or borrowed, from Latin, either directly or via French. Even without such historical knowledge, it may strike you that the words in (1b) are on the whole somewhat less common, or more bookish, than those in (1a). This reflects the fact that,

among the most widely used words, the Germanic element still predominates. It is thus fair to say that, in English, there is still a strong tendency for complex words to contain a free morpheme at their core.

2. Root

Mark Twain (2013:42) stated that morphologically complex words consist of a morpheme root and one or more affixes. Some examples of English roots are *paint* in *painter*, *read* in *reread*, *ceive* in *conceive*, and *ling* in *linguist*. A root may or may not stand alone as a word (*paint* and *read* do; *ceive* and *ling* don't). In languages that have circumfixes, the root is the form around which the circumfix attaches, for example, the Chickasaw root *chokm* in *ikchokmo* ('he is not good').

A stem is a base unit to which another morphological piece is attached. The stem can be *simple*, made up of only one part, or *complex*, itself made up of more than one piece. Here it is best to consider *consider* a simple stem. Although it consists historically of more than one part, most present-day speakers would treat it as an unanalyzable form. We could also call *consider* the root. A *root* is like a stem in constituting the core of the word to which other pieces attach, but the term refers only to morphologically simple units. For example, *disagree* is the stem of *disagreement*, because it is the base to which *-ment* attaches, but *agree* is the root. Taking *disagree* now, *agree* is both the stem to which *dis-* attaches and the root of the entire word. (M. Aronoff and K. Fudeman 2011: 2)

Bases or stems can be complex themselves. For instance, in *activity*, *-ity* is a suffix that combines with the base *active*, which itself consists of the suffix *-ive*

and the base *act*. A base that cannot be analyzed any further into constituent morphemes is called a root. In *readability*, *read* is the root (and the base for *readable*), and *readable* is the base for *readability*, but it is not a root. Thus, the base is a relative notion that is defined with respect to the notion 'affix'. (M. Haspelmath and Andrea. D 2010:21)

So we can see the definition about root above that root, stem or base it's the same because they have the same function and usually root, stem or base are attached with affixes. But they can stand alone without affixes whereas affixes it should be followed the root, stem or base to make completed the word and has a meaning.

3. Affixation

Stela Manova (2014) stated that Affixation is a morphological process whereby a bound morpheme, an affix, is attached to a morphological base. Diachronically, the English word *affix* was first used as a verb and has its origin in Latin: *affixus*, past participle of the verb *affigere*, *ad-* 'to' + *figere* 'to fix'. Affixation falls in the scope of Morphology where bound morphemes are either roots or affixes. Prefixes (affixes that precede the root) and suffixes (affixes that follow the root) are the most common types of affixes cross-linguistically. Affixes mark derivational (*-er* in *teach-er*) and inflectional (*-s* in *teacher-s*) changes, and affixation is the most common strategy that human languages employ for derivation of new words and word forms. However, languages vary in the ways they express the same semantics, and if in English the noun *biolog-ist* is derived from *biology* through the addition of the suffix *-ist*, in Russian (and other Slavic

languages) the same derivation does not involve the addition of an affix but subtraction of form: *biolog-ija* ‘biology’ → *biolog* ‘biologist’. Most languages make an extensive use of affixes (most European, African, Australian, and Amerindian languages are of this type), whereas others (e.g. Vietnamese), hardly do. In languages that use affixes, there is a general preference for suffixes over prefixes.

Word-forms in an inflectional paradigm generally share (at least) one longer morpheme with a concrete meaning and are distinguished from each other in that they additionally contain different shorter morphemes, called affixes. An affix attaches to a word or a main part of a word. It usually has an abstract meaning, and an affix cannot occur by itself. Affixes are introduced by the derivational rule. There is thus no differences between the representation of affixes and the rules that introduce them. The set affixes can be divided into two subsets, prefixes and suffixes, depending, among other things, on the position in which they are attached. the former precede the element to which they are added, while the latter follow it. It should be noted that prefixes are different from stems (which we have seen are sometimes also referred as prefixes); while prefixes are uniquely attached to the left of their base element, stems exhibit a variety of combinatorial possibilities. (S.Scalise 1986: 79)

Meanwhile according to M. Haspelmath and Andrea.D (2010:20) that there are still other kinds of affixes, besides prefixes and suffixes they are:

1. Suffix: follows the base Russian *-a* in *ruk-a* ‘hand’ English *-ful* in *event-ful*

2. Prefix: precedes the base Classical Nahunta *no-* in *no-cal* ‘my house’
English *un-* in *unhappy*
3. Infix: occurs inside the base Arabic *-t-* in *(i)š-t-ag-ala* ‘be occupied’ (base: *šag-ala*) Tagalog *-um-* in *s-um-ulat* ‘write’ (base: *sulat*)
4. Circumfix: occurs on both sides German *ge-...-en*, e.g. *ge-fahr-en* ‘driven’ of the base (base: *fahr*)

3.1 Prefixes

We know whether an affix precedes or follows other morphemes, for example that *un-*, *pre-* (*premeditate*, *prejudge*), and *bi-* (*bipolar*, *bisexual*) are prefixes. They occur before other morphemes. Prefixes, in contrast with suffixes, do not always rigidly select their syntactic category of the base to which they are attached. Thus, while negative prefix *in-* always selects adjective example; *incapable*, *in-probable* and the prefix *en* selects verb example; *en-trust*, *en-close*, the prefix *super* can attach to nouns, adjectives and verbs example; *super-man*, *super-intelligent*, *super-saturate*. (S. Scalise 1986:80)

The prefix *un-* attaches to adjectives (where it means ‘not’) and to verbs (where it means ‘reverse action’), but not to nouns:

- a. *un-* on adjectives: *unhappy*, *uncommon*, *unkind*, *unserious*
- b. *un-* on verbs: *untie*, *untwist*, *undress*, *unsnap*
- c. *un-* on nouns: *unchair*, *unidea*, *ungiraffe*. (R. Lieber 2009:35)

Example of prefixes:

Table 2.1

Prefix	Root	Example
Co	Operation	Cooperation
Dis	Appear	Disappear
Re-	Vile	Revile

Base on an example above we know that prefix is kind of affixes that replace in the beginning of the word or before root.

3. 2 Infixes

George Yule (2006:58) stated There is a third type of affix, not normally used in English, but found in some other languages. This is called an infix and, as the term suggests, it is an affix that is incorporated inside another word. It is possible to see the general principle at work in certain expressions, occasionally used in fortuitous or aggravating circumstances by emotionally aroused English speakers: *Hallebloodylujah!*, *Absogoddamlutely!* and *Unfuckinbelievable!*. In the film *Wish You Were Here*, the main character expresses her aggravation (at another character who keeps trying to contact her) by screaming *Tell him I've gone to Singabloodypore!* The expletive may even have an infixed element, as in *godtripleddammit!* We could view these 'inserted' forms as a special version of

infixing in English. However, a much better set of examples can be provided from Kamhmu, a language spoken in South-East Asia.

	Verb	Noun
('to drill')	<i>see</i>	<i>srnee</i> ('a drill')
('to chisel')	<i>toh</i>	<i>trnoh</i> ('a chisel')
('to eat with a spoon')	<i>hiip</i>	<i>hrniip</i> ('a spoon')
('to tie')	<i>hoom</i>	<i>hrnoom</i> ('a thing with which to tie')

From these examples, we can see that there is a regular pattern whereby the infix *-rn-* is added to verbs to form corresponding nouns. If this pattern is generally found in the language and we know that the form *krnap* is the Kamhmu noun for 'tongs', then we can work out the corresponding verb 'to grasp with tongs'.

3.3 Suffixes

Some morphemes occur only as suffixes, following other morphemes. English examples of suffix morphemes are *-ing* (*sleeping, eating, running, climbing*), *-er* (*singer, performer, reader*), *-ist* (*typist, pianist, novelist, linguist*), and *-ly* (*manly, sickly, friendly*), to mention only a few.

However, if we were speaking Indonesian or Japanese, we would say the equivalent of *two melon* (*three melon, four melon*, etc.) because these languages don't use morphological plurals in sentences like this.

Indonesian:

Saiga makan dua buah semangka (se) tiaphari

I eat two fruit melon every day

‘I eat two melons every day.’

Japanese:

mainichi futatsu-no meron-o tabemasu

every.day two- GEN melon-OBJ eat.IMP

‘I eat two melons every day.’

The morphological grammar of English tells us that we have to put an *-s* on *melon* whenever we are talking about more than one. This fact of English is so transparent that native speakers don’t notice it. If we happen to be speakers of a language without obligatory plural marking, however, we will notice and may have trouble with it. We have now observed something about English morphology. If a word is plural, it takes the suffix *-s*. (M. Aronoff and K.Fudeman 2011: 6).

Many verbs that end in *-ize* can also end in *-ise* (such as *finalize/finalise* or *realize/realise*); both endings are acceptable, although *-ise* is more common in British English.

Example of suffixes:

Table 2.2

Root	Suffix	Example
Dear	-est	Dearest

Combine	-ing	Combining
Create	-ion	Creation
Study	-ing	Studying
Sound	-s	Sounds
Pray	-er	Prayer

3.4 Circumfixes

Circumfixes are affixes that come in two part. One attaches to the front of the word and other to the back. Some languages have circumfixes, morphemes that are attached to a base morpheme both initially and finally. These are sometimes called discontinuous morphemes. In Chickasaw, a Muskogean language spoken in Oklahoma, the negative is formed by surrounding the affirmative form with both a preceding *ik-* and a following *-o* working together as a single negative morpheme. The final vowel of the affirmative is dropped before the negative part *-o* is added.

Examples of this circumfixing are:

Affirmative

chokma ‘he is good’

lakna ‘it is yellow’

palli ‘it is hot’

tiwwi ‘he opens (it)’

Negative

ik + chokm + o ‘he is not good’

ik + lakn + o ‘it is not yellow’

ik + pall + o ‘it is not hot’

ik + tiww + o ‘he does not open (it)’

An example of a more familiar circumfixing language is German. The past participle of regular verbs is formed by tacking on *ge-* to the beginning and *-t* to the end of the verb root. This circumfix added to the verb root *lieb* ‘love’ produces *geliebt*, ‘loved’ (or ‘beloved,’ when used as an adjective). (M. Twain 2013:41)

4. The Classifying in Affixes

According to the function affixes fulfill in the language, affixes are classified into derivational affixes (derivational morpheme or derivations) and inflectional affixes (inflectional morpheme or inflections).

4.1 Derivational Affixes

According to H.Jackson and E. Ze Amvela (2000:74) stated that derivations have a ‘low functional load’, in the sense that each single derivation occur rarely and is limited to a few specific combinations with particular stems. In other words, they tend not to be paradigms which apply to sets of words as a whole. Event thought derivational affixes do have characteristics which may enable us to distinguish them from inflectional suffixes, it should be noted that the distinction between the two types of affixes is not always clear-cut, e.g the ‘past participle’ suffix *-ed* is used to form adjective of the red-haired type.

Derivational affixes can change the word class of the item they are added to and establish words as members of the various word classes. They are inner with respect to inflections, so that if derivations and inflections co-occur, derivations

are inner, closer to the stem, and inflections are outers, furthest from the stem, as shown in the table below.

Example	Base form	Derivational	Inflection
Payments	pay	-ment	-s
Frightened	fright	-en	-ed
Activating	active	-ate	-ing
Resignations	resign	-ation	-s

Derivational affixes are two of two kinds class-changing and class-maintaining. Class-changing derivational affixes change the word class of the word to which they are added. Thus, resign a verb + -ation gives resignation, a noun. Class- maintaining derivational affixes do not change the word class of the word but change the meaning of the derivative (i.e. the word which results from the derivation). Thus child, a noun + -hood gives childhood, still a noun, but now an 'abstract' rather than a 'concrete' noun.

Class changing derivations are affixes once added to a stem, form a derivative which is automatically marked by that affix as noun, verb, adjective or verb. The derivations are said to determine or govern the word class of the stem. We shall discuss in turn noun, verb, adjective and adverb derivational affixes. Each of them has two distinct patterns of derivation depending on the word class with which the affix is associated.

Verb derivational affixes, also known as ‘verbalizers’, are used to form verb from other stems. When compared with other derivational affixes they are rather rare. This may be accounted for by the fact that verbs are the most basic forms in English: while they are used to derive other words, they themselves are not readily derived from other forms. Most English verbalizers are characterized by the fact that they are causatives.

4.2 Inflectional Affixes

According to H. Jackson and E. Ze Amvela (2000:71) stated that inflectional affixes may be described as ‘relation markers’ that fit words for use in syntax. This means that once the inflectional or relation marker is added to a stem, that stem does not change classes, but its distribution is then limited in the syntactic structure. For example, the addition of the possessive suffix first the inflected noun for use in syntax as noun modifier (i.e. like an adjective). The noun with the possessive marker can only be used as a modifier of another noun, never as a head or main element in a given structure. Thus, john + possessive become john’s as in john’s book. However, the word class of the noun has not changed. Note that although john’s does function like an adjective, it is still not an adjective; it cannot take the affixes (-er) ‘comparative’ and (-est) ‘superlative’ which are characteristic of many monosyllabic members of class.

One of the most important characteristics of inflectional suffixes is that they tend to lend themselves to paradigms which apply to the language as a whole. The paradigm of a major word class consists of a single stem of that class with the inflectional suffixes which the stem may take.

Inflectional suffixes of nouns, adjectives and verbs may be tabulated and illustrated as follows

Nouns show the following inflection contrasts:

Base form	stem+plural	stem+possessive	stem+plural+possessive
Child	children	child's	children's
Student	student	student's	students'

Adjectives (that are gradable and mono or di-syllabic) show the following inflectional contrasts:

Base form	stem+comparative	stem+superlative	stem+plural+possessive
Dear	dearer	dearest	children's
Happy	happier	happiest	students'

Verb (except the verb be and modals) show the following inflectional contrasts:

Base form	stem+3 rd personal singular	stem+past tense	stem+past participle	stem+present participle
write	writes	wrote	written	writing

work	works	worked	worked	working
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Finally, under inflections, the distinction between ‘regular’ and irregular’ inflection need to be pointed out. Regular inflection are those that are formed according to a common pattern, e.g –s for the plural of nouns, -ed for the past tense and past participle of verbs, -er for the comparative of adjective. Irregular inflections are those that do not follow this pattern and which usually apply to only one or small number of members of the word class concerned. For example, the following nouns their plurals irregularly: child – children, man – men. Mouse – mice, sheep – sheep, tooth – teeth. The number of verb that form their past tense and past participle irregularly is much greater, e.g. begin- began – begun, buy – bough, give – gave – given etc. Even the regular inflections may show some variation in spelling and more usually in pronunciation: compare the pronunciation of plural –(e)s in cats, dogs and the past tense –ed walked, jogged, glided.

5. Poem

A poem is made of words, and whatever is said in a poem is said in word. The words are organized in lines and stanzas. A piece of writing in which the expression of feelings and ideas is given intensity by particular attention to diction (sometimes involving rhyme), rhythm, and imagery. A poem is a collection of spoken or written words that expresses ideas or emotions in a powerfully vivid and imaginative style, comprising of a particular rhythmic and metrical pattern. In

fact, it is a literary technique, which is different from prose or ordinary speech, as it is either in metrical pattern or in free verse. Writers or poets express their emotions through this medium more easily, as they face difficulty when expressing through some other medium. It serves the purpose of a light to take the readers towards the right path. Also, sometimes it teaches them a moral lesson through sugar-coated language. Carol an duffy said that a poem is the attire of feeling: the literary form where words seem tailor made from memory or desire.

The poem is a large metaphor-announced by the short title and if we confine to an analysis of that figure, attempt to amplify its meaning, and make some reference.

B. Previous of the study

Numerous studies that related to this research had been conducted before. One of them was conducted in this research from Qiyat Alfianto with entitle “A Morphological Study of Affixes Found in *Campus English Magazine*” University Muhammadiyah of SURAKARTA 2014 this research aims to identify the kinds of affixes, and to explain the forms and meaning of each affixes in *Campus English Magazine*. The study used descriptive qualitative research to study words which contain prefixes and suffixes. The data are taken from *Campus English Magazine* volume 52/XII/2012. The data are studied by using Katamba’s morphological analysis (1994) and Katamba’s word formation (1994). Based on the research finding, the researcher finds that in derivational affixes, first, the researcher finds seven noun indicators which have a form as a suffix such as {-

er), {-ment}, {-ness}, {-ity}, {-ist}, {-ion/ -ation}, and {-ship}. The researcher also finds five adjective indicators which have a form as a suffix such as {-ive}, {-able}, {-al}, {-est}, and {-ful} and a form of prefix, namely prefix {in-}. The researcher only finds an adverb indicator, namely suffix {-ly} and only finds a verb indicator, namely suffix {-ize}. Moreover, inflectional affixes, the researcher only finds a noun indicator, namely suffix {-s} and an adjective indicator, namely suffix {-ing}. The researcher also finds two adjective indicators, namely suffix {-ed} and {-ing}. The writer finds a prefix (prefix -in) which can be attached to adjective. Prefixes {-in} form adjective from which originally has a form of adjective. Meanwhile, there are sixteen kinds of suffixes and each suffix can only be attached to noun, verb, adverb and adjective. Suffixes have seven form, namely to form adverb from adjective, noun from verb, noun from adjective, adjective from verb, adjective from noun, verb from noun, adverb from noun, and verb from adjective. Second, the meaning of the the affixes that is used Campus English Magazine show the indicators of changing the class of category.

C. Conceptual Framework

The type of investigation the analysis basic element used in language is called morphology. The term of literary means the study of form. It refers to the morpheme. Morpheme is the smallest meaningful part of language which has meaning and is arranged grammatically. And a number of other divided into two kinds, they are free morpheme and bound morpheme. Free morpheme is morpheme that can be stand alone and bound morpheme is morpheme that cannot

stand alone. Classifying of affixes divided into two types such as derivational affixes and inflectional affixes. Derivational affixes can change the word class of the item they are added to and establish words as members of the various word classes meanwhile the inflectional or relation marker is added to a stem, that stem does not change classes, but its distribution is then limited in the syntactic structure. Before you know the affixation of the word, you must know what is root or stem. Root is like a stem in constituting the core of the word to which other pieces attach. Affixes are process of bound morpheme, affixes are formed from bound morpheme, and it is rare free morpheme. By forming affixes, it can make a word is different of the class word from its root.

The affixation process is one of the ways to form the others or to change the word class. Knowing affixation, it can make us have many vocabularies. It indicates aspect of the grammatical function of word especially in using affixes in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G. Nosl Trenitf). There are four types of affixes, they are prefix, suffix, infix, circumfix. But in English the common affix that used in English story is prefix, suffix and circumfix.

CHAPTER III

METHOD OF RESEARCH

A. The Research Design

This study analyzed affixation in The Chaos poem. The data was collected by used descriptive qualitative in order to find out the type of affixation in The Chaos poem. The researcher focused on prefix and suffix.

Descriptive qualitative method was used in this research. Descriptive method used to determine existence of phenomenon in giving or describe indication of languages. Creswell (2008: 46) said “Qualitative research is a type of educational research in which the researcher relies on the views of participants, asks broad, general questions; collects data consisting largely of words (or text) from participants; describes and analyzes these words for themes; and conducts the inquiry in a subjective, biased manner.

B. The Source of Data

The source of data in research was obtained from pronunciation’s book. The data was taken from The Chaos of Poem by Charivamus (G, Noslt Trenitf).

C. The Technique for collecting Data

Creswell (2008: 213) said “Qualitative data collection consists of collecting data using forms with general, emerging questions to permit the participant to

generate responses; gathering word (text) or image (picture) data; collecting information from a small number of individuals or sites”.

There were some steps in collecting the data:

1. Reading “The Chaos” poem by Charivamus (G, Noslt Trenitf).
2. Underlining the words that consisted of affixation in The Chaos poem by Charivamus (G, Noslt Trenitf).
3. Identifying affixation into prefix and suffix.
4. Tabulating the data into the table based on the types of affixation, they are prefix and suffix.

D. The Technique for Analyzing Data

In analyzing the data, the researcher was use theory proposed by Miles and Huberman (2014:8) said that the qualitative data analysis consist of three procedures. The procedures were analyzed base on the following steps:

1. Data Reduction

Data reduction means the process of sorting, focusing, identifying, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that are considered important. In the conducting research, the researcher will select data that will give valuable information in research: the data is chosen by identifying and classifying the kinds of figure of speech.

2. Data Display

Data display means the process to simplify the data in the form of sentences, narrative, or table. In displaying data, the researcher describes data by tabulating of the kinds of figures of speech into table.

3. Drawing and Verifying Conclusion

The last step after doing the data display is drawn of the conclusion and verification. It is used to describe all of the data, so that it would be come clearly. The conclusion can be able to answer the formulation of the problem that formulated from the beginning.

CHAPTER IV

DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS

A. DATA

The data was taken from The Chaos Poem by Charivamus (G. Nosl Trenitf). Types of affixation there were prefixes, suffixes, infixes, and circumfixes. The data that was used affixation was 72 items. They were prefixes 9 items, suffixes 63 items, infixes 0, circumfixes 0. Only two types that was used affixation in The Chaos Poem such as prefixes and suffixes. The data of prefixes and suffixes can be showed on appendix (page: 56-57).

B. DATA ANALYSIS

After collecting the data, all data were classified base on the types of affixation such as prefixes, suffixes, infixes and circumfixes. In this research, the research analyzed all the English sentences from in The Chaos poem. After analyzing the source of data found, the data can be presented as the following tables.

1. Prefixes

Prefixes was an affix precedes or follow other morpheme for example: un, pre, re, com, con. They occur before other morphemes. Prefixes usually included into bound morpheme because the word cannot normally stand alone and typically attached to another form. We know that classifying of affixes there were two types such as derivational and inflectional. Derivational affixes can change

the word class of the item they were added to and establish words as members of various word classes. Derivational affixes were two kinds such as class changing and class maintaining.

Class changing derivational affixes change the word class of the word to which they were added. Class maintaining derivational affixes do not change the word class of the word but change the meaning. Meanwhile inflectional affixes was added to a stem, that stem does not change classes but its distribution was then limited in the syntactic structure. The data can be presented as the following table.

Table 4.1

Prefixes Base on Classifying Affixes in The Chaos Poem

No	Root	Meaning 1	Affixation	New Word	Meaning 2	Word Class	Type
1.	Sole	tapak kaki	Con- (bm)	Console	Tempat mata / tuts	N-N	Derivational Class maintain ing
2.	Void	Keham paan	De- (bm)	Devoid	Tanpa	N-Adj	Derivational Class changin g
3.	Tain	Noda	Re- (bm)	Retain	Menahan	N-V	Derivational affixes
4.	Pare	Mengupas	Com- (bm)	Compare	Bandingan	V-N	Derivational affixes
5.	Science	ilmu penget	Con-	Con	Kata hati	N-N	Derivational Class

		ahuan	(bm)	science			maintain ing
6.	Stable	Stabil	Con- (bm)	Constable	Jaga baya polisi	Adj-N	Derivational affixes
7.	Face	muka / paras	Pre- (bm)	Preface	Kata pengan tar	N-N	Derivational Class maintain ing
8.	Vile	Busuk	Re- (bm)	Revile	Mencaci maki	Adj-V	Derivational affixes
9.	Stable	Stabil	Un- (bm)	Unstable	Tidak stabil	Adj-Adj	Derivational Class maintain ing

2. Suffixes

A suffix was a letter or group of letters added at the end of a word which makes a new word. The suffix *-ful* has changed verbs to adjectives, *-ment*, and *-ion* have changed verbs to nouns. We know that classifying of affixes there were two types such as derivational and inflectional. Derivational affixes can change the word class of the item they were added to and establish words as members of various word classes. Derivational affixes were two kinds class changing and class maintaining.

Class changing derivational affixes change the word class of the word to which they were added. Class maintaining derivational affixes do not change the word class of the word but change the meaning. Meanwhile inflectional affixes was added to a stem, that stem does not change classes but its

distribution is then limited in the syntactic structure. The data can be presented as the following table.

Table 4.2

Suffixes Base on Classifying Affixes in The Chaos Poem

No	Root	Affix ati on	New Word	Word Class	Meaning 1	Meaning 2	Type
1.	Dear	-est (bm)	Dearest	N – Adj	Sayang	Penyayang	Derivational Class changing
2.	Create	-ion (bm)	Creation	V – N	Menciptakan	Ciptaan	Derivational Class changing
3.	Study	-ing (bm)	Studying	N – V	Mata pelajaran	Belajar	Derivational Class changing
4.	Sound	-s (bm)	Sounds	N – N	Bunyi	Bunyi	Inflectional affixes
5.	Corp	-s (bm)	Corps	N – N	Kesatuan	Kesatuan	Inflectional affixes
6.	Pray	-er (bm)	Prayer	V – N	Berdoa	Orang yang berdoa	Derivational Class changing
7.	Love	-ing (bm)	Loving	N – Adj	Kasih	Penuh kasih	Derivational Class changing
8.	Die	-s (bm)	Dies	N – V	Mati	Mati	Derivational Class changing
9.	Sure	-ly (bm)	Surely	N – Adv	Pasti	Tentu	Derivational Class changing
10.	Care	-ful (bm)	Careful	N – Adj	Perhatian	Hati-hati	Derivational Class changing

11.	Exile	-s (bm)	Exiles	N – N	Pengasi- ngan	Pengasi- ngan	Inflectional affixes
12.	Smile	-s (bm)	Smiles	N – N	Kiasan	Kiasan	Inflectional affixes
13.	Exami- ne	-ing (bm)	Examini Ng	V – V	Menguji	Meme- riksa	Derivational Class maintainin g
14.	Combi- ne	-ing (bm)	Combini Ng	V – V	Menggabu- ngkan	Kombi- nasi	Inflectional affixes
15.	Desire	-able (bm)	Desirable	N – Adj	Hasrat	Diingin- kan	Derivational Class changing
16.	Plumb	-er (bm)	Plumber	N – N	Timbang- an pengukur	Tukang	Derivational Class maintainin g
17.	Admi- re	-able (bm)	Admir- Able	V – Adj	Mengagumi	Mengagu mkan	Derivational Class changing
18.	Give	-s (bm)	Gives	N – N	Memberi	Memberi	Inflectional affixes
19.	Bill	-et	Billet	N – N	Uang kertas	Peker- jaan	Derivational Class changing
20.	Ball	-et	Ballet	N – N	Pesta dansa	Balet	Inflectional affixes
21.	Near	-ly	Nearly	Adj – Adv	Dekat	Hampir	Derivational affixes
22.	Dark	-y	Darky	N – N	Kegelap- an	Kegelap- an	Inflectional affixes
23.	Corr- ect	-ly	Correctly	Adj – Adv	Benar	Dengan benar	Derivational Class changing
24.	Round	-ed	Rounded	N – N	Babak	Dibulat- kan	Derivational Class maintainin g
25.	Wound	-ed	Wounded	V – Adj	Luka	Yang luka	Derivational Class

							changing
26.	Hallow	-ed	Hallowed	V – V	Menyucikan	Keramat	Derivational Class maintainin g
27.	Allow	-ed	Allowed	V – V	Membolehkan	Mengizinkan	Inflectional affixes
28.	Towe	-ed	Towed	N – V	Tarikan	Diseret	Derivational Class maintainin g
29.	Move	-er (bm)	Mover	N – N	Langkah	Tukang meminda hkan	Derivational Class maintainin g
30.	Leech	-es (bm)	Leeches	N – N	Lintar darat	Lintar darat	Inflectional affixes
31.	Climb	-er (bm)	Climber	N – N	Pendakian	Pendaki	Derivational Class maintainin g
32.	Flag	-s (bm)	Flags	N – N	Bendera	Bendera	Inflectional affixes
33.	Clang	-our (bm)	Clangour	N – N	Gemerincing	Gemerincing	Inflectional affixes
34.	Stran- nge	-er (bm)	Stranger	Adj – N	Aneh	Orang tak diken al	Derivational affixes
35.	Sing	-er (bm)	Singer	N – N	Meyanyi	Penyanyi	Derivational Class maintainin g
36.	Marry	-age (bm)	Marriage	V – N	Menikah	Pernikahan	Derivational affixes
37.	Seem	-s (bm)	Seems	V – V	Rupa/rasa	Kedengaran	Derivational affixes

38.	Deaf	-er (bm)	Deafer	Adj – Adj	Tuli	Lebih tuli	Inflectional affixes
39.	Italy	-an (bm)	Italian	N – N	Italia	Orang itali	Derivational Class maintaining
40.	Receive	-er (bm)	Receiver	V – N	Menerima	Penerima	Derivational affixes
41.	Calve	-s (bm)	Calves	V – N	Melahirkan anak sapi	Anak sapi	Derivational affixes
42.	Valve	-s (bm)	Valves	N – N	Katup	Katup	Inflectional affixes
43.	Phlegm	-atic (bm)	Phlegmatic	N – Adj	Lender	Berdarah dingin	Derivational affixes
44.	Verge	-ing (bm)	Verging	N – N	Pinggir	Batasan	Derivational Class maintaining
45.	Scourge	-ing (bm)	Scourging	N – V	Momok	Hukuman cambuk	Derivational affixes
46.	Wit	-s (bm)	Wits	N – N	Kecerdasan	Kecerdasan	Inflectional affixes
47.	Write	-ing (bm)	Writing	V – N	Menulis	Karya tulis	Derivational affixes
48.	Stone	-s (bm)	Stones	N – N	Batu	Batu	Inflectional affixes
49.	Say	-ing (bm)	Saying	N – N	Berkata	Perkataan	Derivational Class maintaining
50.	Read	-er (bm)	Reader	V – N	Membaca	Pembaca	Derivational affixes

51.	Final	-ly (bm)	Finaly	N – Adj	Akhir	Terak- Hir	Derivational affixes
52.	Rime	-s (bm)	Rimes	N – N	Embun beku	Embun beku	Inflectional affixes
53.	Senate	-or (bm)	Senator	N – N	Senat	Anggota senat	Inflectional affixes
54.	Fame	-ous (bm)	Famous	N – Adj	Terkenal	Terke- Nal	Derivational Class changing
55.	Ling	-er (bm)	Linger	V – V	Tetap hidup	Tetap hidup	Inflectional affixes
56.	Fur	-y (bm)	Fury	N – N	Bulu binatang	Kemara- han	Derivational Class maintaiani ng
57.	Bur	-y (bm)	Bury	N – V	Duri	Mengu- bur	Derivational affixes
58.	Differ	-ence (bm)	Difference	V – N	Berbeda	Pembe- da	Derivational Class changing
59.	Scene	-ic (bm)	Scenic	N – Adj	Suasana	Pemandn agan	Derivational affixes
60.	Arab	-ic (bm)	Arabic	N – N	Orang arab	Bahasa arab	Derivational Class maintainin g
61.	Scientif	-ic (bm)	Scientific	N – Adj	Ilmu pengeta hu an	Ilmiah	Derivational affixes
62.	Sign	-al (bm)	Signal	N – N	Tanda	Tanda/si nyal	Derivational Class maintainin g
63.	Sign	-ing (bm)	Signing	N – V	Tanda	Menanda tanga ni	Derivational Class maintaiani ng

Note :

a. bm = bound morpheme

b. N = noun

c. Adj = adjective

d. V = verb

3. The Most Dominant Types of Affixation Found

After classifying the element of affixation in The Chaos poem. The table dominant type of affixation.

Table 4.3

Table Dominant Type of Affixation in The Chaos Poem by Charivamus

No	Word	Prefixes	Suffixes	Classifying Type of Affixation		
				Derivational affixes		Inflectional
				Class changing	Class maintaining	
1.	Console	✓	–	–	✓	–
2.	Devoid	✓	–	✓	–	–
3.	Retain	✓	–	✓	✓	–

4.	Compare	✓	–	✓	✓	–
5.	Conscience	✓	–	–	✓	–
6.	Constable	✓	–	✓	✓	–
7.	Unstable	✓	–	–	✓	–
8.	Preface	✓	–	–	✓	–
9.	Revile	✓	–	✓	✓	–
10.	Dearest	–	✓	–	✓	–
11.	Examining	–	✓	–	✓	–
12.	Plumber	–	✓	–	✓	–
13.	Rounded	–	✓	–	✓	–
14.	Towed	–	✓	–	✓	–
15.	Hallowed	–	✓	–	✓	–
16.	Mover	–	✓	–	✓	–
17.	Climber	–	✓	–	✓	–
18.	Singer	–	✓	–	✓	–
19.	Italian	–	✓	–	✓	–
20.	Verging	–	✓	–	✓	–
21.	Saying	–	✓	–	✓	–
22.	Bury	–	✓	–	✓	–
23.	Arabic	–	✓	–	✓	–
24.	Signal	–	✓	–	✓	–
25.	Signing	–	✓	–	✓	–

26.	Sounds	–	✓	–	–	✓
27.	Corps	–	✓	–	–	✓
28.	Exiles	–	✓	–	–	✓
29.	Similes	–	✓	–	–	✓
30.	Combining	–	✓	–	–	✓
31.	Gives	–	✓	–	–	✓
32.	Ballet	–	✓	–	–	✓
33.	Allowed	–	✓	–	–	✓
34.	Leeches	–	✓	–	–	✓
35.	Flags	–	✓	–	–	✓
36.	Clangour	–	✓	–	–	✓
37.	Valves	–	✓	–	–	✓
38.	Wits	–	✓	–	–	✓
39.	Stones	–	✓	–	–	✓
40.	Rimes	–	✓	–	–	✓
41.	Senator	–	✓	✓	–	✓
42.	Linger	–	✓	✓	–	✓
43.	Creation	–	✓	✓	–	–
44.	Studying	–	✓	✓	–	–
45.	Prayer	–	✓	✓	–	–
46.	Loving	–	✓	✓	–	–
47.	Dies	–	✓	✓	–	–

48.	Surely	–	✓	✓	–	–
49.	Careful	–	✓	✓	–	–
50.	Desirable	–	✓	✓	–	–
51.	Plumber	–	✓	✓	–	–
52.	Admirable	–	✓	✓	–	–
53.	Billet	–	✓	✓	–	–
54.	Darky	–	✓	✓	–	–
55.	Correctly	–	✓	✓	–	–
56.	Wounded	–	✓	✓	–	–
57.	Nearly	–	✓	✓	✓	–
58.	Stranger	–	✓	✓	✓	–
59.	Marriage	–	✓	✓	✓	–
60.	Seems	–	✓	✓	✓	–
61.	Receiver	–	✓	✓	✓	–
62.	Calves	–	✓	✓	✓	–
63.	Phlegmatic	–	✓	✓	✓	–
64.	Scourging	–	✓	✓	✓	–
65.	Writing	–	✓	✓	✓	–
66.	Reader	–	✓	✓	✓	–
67.	Finally	–	✓	✓	✓	–
68.	Scenic	–	✓	✓	✓	–
69.	Scientific	–	✓	✓	✓	–

70.	Famous	✓	✓	✓	–	–
71.	Fury	✓	✓	–	✓	–
72.	Deafer	✓	✓	✓	✓	–

The Result

The data collected were analyzed base on the type of affixation and classifying types of affixes. The poem there were only two types such as prefixes and suffixes. And the classifying of affixation they were four types such as prefixes or suffixes that into derivational affixes, derivational class changing, derivational class maintaining, and inflectional affixes. After researcher was analyzed all of suffixes that included into derivational affixes was 14 items. Suffixes into derivational class changing was 15 items. Suffixes into derivational class maintaining was 16 items. Suffixes into inflectional affixes was 18 items. Prefixes into derivational affixes was 4 items. Meanwhile prefixes that included into derivational class maintaining was 4 items. Prefixes into derivational class changing was 1 item. So, the most dominant type of affixation used in the poem was suffixes. The percentage of prefixes 9 and suffixes was 63 items. Overall an affixes they were 72 items.

The researcher found there were two types of affixation, counting the most dominant types of affixation, appearance by applying the formula:

$$P = \frac{F}{N} \times 100\%$$

Note :

P = The percentage of the data

F = Frequency

N = The total number

Table 4.4

The Total Classifying Types Affixation

No	Classifying Types Affixes	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Prefixes Derivational Affixes	4	5%
2.	Prefixes Derivational Class Changing	1	2%
3.	Prefixes Derivational Class Maintaining	4	5%
4.	Suffixes Derivational Class Changing	15	21%
5.	Suffixes Derivational Class Maintaining	16	22%
6.	Suffixes Derivational Affixes	14	20%
7.	Suffixes Inflectional Affixes	18	25%
TOTAL		72	100%

Table 4.5

The Total Percentage of Affixation

No.	Types of Affixation	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Prefixes	9	12.5s%
2.	Suffixes	63	87.5%
TOTAL		100	100%

From the data above, it knows that the dominant types of affixation is suffixes. It was 63 clauses or 87.5%.

C. Research Finding

After the research analyzed all the data obtained in The Chaos poem, the findings can be reported as follow:

1. All of words in The Chaos poem contained two types o affixation such as prefixes and suffixes.
2. The most dominant types of affixation used in The Chaos poem was suffixes. And the most dominant classifying type of affixes was suffixes inflectional affixes.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

A. Conclusion

Having analyzed the data, conclusion were drawn as the following:

1. There were two types of affixation used in The Chaos poem they were; prefixes and suffixes.
2. The dominant classifying types affixes was suffixes inflectional affixes was 18 words or (25%)
3. The dominant types of affixation used in The Chaos poem was prefixes 9 words or (12.5%) followed by suffixes was 63 words or (87.5%).
4. Overall affixation that used in The Chaos poem was 72 items.

B. Suggestion

In relation to the conclusions, suggestions are staged as the following:

1. The students should study about morphology especially affixation and the types.
2. The lecturers focus in teaching functional morphology especially about affixation.

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Appendix

THE CHAOS

by CARIVAMUS

(G. Nolst Trenité)

Dearest creature in creation,
Studying English pronunciation,
I will teach you in my verse
Sounds like corpse, corps, horse and worse.
It will keep you, Susy, busy,
Make your head with heat grow dizzy;
Tear in eye your dress you'll tear.
So shall I! Oh hear my prayer:
Pray console your loving poet,
Make my coat look new, dear, sew it.
Just compare heart, beard and heard,
Dies and diet, Lord and word.
Sword and sward, retain and Britain,
(Mind the latter, how it's written).
Made has not the sound of bade,
Say—said, pay—paid, laid, but plaid.
Now I surely will not plague you
With such words as vague and ague,
But be careful how you speak:
Say break, steak, but bleak and streak,
Previous, precious; fuschia, via;
Pipe, shipe, recipe and choir;
Cloven, oven; how and low;
Script, receipt; shoe, poem, toe.
Hear me say, devoid of trickery;

Daughter, laughter and Terpsichore;

Typhoid, measles, topsails, aisles;

Exiles, similes, reviles;

Wholly, holly; signal, signing;

Thames, examining, combining;

Scholar, vicar and cigar,

Solar, mica, war, and far.

Desire—desirable, admirable—admire;

Lumber, plumber; bier but brier;

Chatham, brougham; renown but known,

Knowledge; done, but gone and tone,

One, anemone; Balmoral,

Kitchen, lichen; laundry, laurel;

Gertrude, German; wind and mind;

Scene, Melpomene, mankind;

Tortoise, turquoise, chamois-leather.

This phonetic labyrinth

Gives moss, gross; brook, brooch; ninth, plinth.

Billet does not end like ballet;

Bouquet, wallet, mallet, chalet;

Blood and flood are not like food,

Nor is mould like should and would.

Banquet is not nearly parquet,

Which is said to rime with darky.

Viscous, viscount; load and broad;

Toward, to forward, to reward.

And your pronunciation's O.K.

When you say correctly; croquet;

Rounded, wounded; grieve and sieve;

Friend and fiend, alive and live,

Liberty, library; heave and heaven;

Rachel, ache, moustache; eleven.
We say hallowed, but allowed;
People, leopard; towed, but vowed.
Mark the difference moreover
Between mover, plover, Dover;
Leeches, breeches; wise, precise;
Chalice, but police and lice.
Camel, constable, unstable,
Principle, discipline, label;
Petal, penal and canal;
Wait, surmise, plait, promise; pal.
Suit, suite, ruin; circuit, conduit,
Rime with: "shirk it" and "beyond it";
But it is not hard to tell
Why it's pall, mall, but PallMall.
Muscle, muscular; goal and iron;
Timber, climber; bullion and lion;
Worm and storm; chaise, chaos, chair;
Senator, spectator, mayor.
Ivy, privy; famous; clamour,
And enamour rime with "hammer".
Pussy, hussy and possess,
Desert, but dessert, address.
Golf wolf; countenants; lieutenants
Hoist, in lieu of flags, left pennants.
River, rival; tomb, bomb, comb;
Doll and roll, and some and home.
Stranger does not rime with anger,
Neither does devour with clangour.
Soul, but foul; and gaunt, but aunt;
Font, front, won't; want, grand and grant;

Shoes, goes, does. Now first say finger,
And then; singer, ginger, linger.
Real, zeal; mauve, gauze and gauge;
Marriage, foliage, mirage, age.
Query does not rime with very,
Nor does fury sound like bury.
Dost, lost, post; and doth, cloth, loth;
Job, Job; blossom, bosom, oath.
Though the difference seems little
We say actual, but victual;
Seat, sweat; chaste, caste; Leigh, eight, height;
Put, nut; granite but unite.
Reefer does not rime with deafer,
Feoffer does, and zephyr, heifer.
Dull, bull; Geoffrey, George; ate, late;
Hint, pint; senate, but sedate.
Scenic, Arabic, Pacific;
Science, conscience, scientific.
Tour, but our, and succour, four;
Gas, alas and Arkansas!
Sea, idea, guinea, area,
Psalm, Maria, but malaria.
Youth, south, southern; cleanse and clean;
Doctrine, turpentine, marine.
Compare alien with Italian.
Dandelion with battalion,
Sally with ally, Yea, Ye,
Eye, I, ay, aye, whey, key, quay.
Say aver, but ever, fever,
Neither, leisure, skein, receiver.
Never guess—it is not safe;

We say calves, valves; half, but Ralf.
Heron, granary, canary;
Crevice and device and eyrie;
Face, preface, but efface,
Phlegm, phlegmatic; ass, glass, bass;
Large, but target, gin, give, verging;
Ought, out, joust and scour, but scouring;
Ear, but earn; and wear and tear
Do not rime with "here" but "ere".
Seven is right, but so is even;
Hyphen, roughen, nephew, Stephen;
Monkey, donkey; clerk and jerk;
Asp, grasp, wasp; and cork and work.
Pronunciation—think of psyche—
Is a paling, stout and spikey;
Won't it make you lose your wits,
writing groats and saying "groats"?
It's a dark abyss or tunnel,
Strewn with stones, like rowlock, gunwale,
Islington and Isle of Wight,
Housewife, verdict and indict.
Don't you think so, reader, rather
Saying lather, bather, father?
Finally: which rimes with "enough",
Though, through, plough, cough, hough or tough?
Hiccough has the sound of "cup",
My advice is ... give it up!

TABLE OF PREFIXES

No	Root	Affixation	New Word
1.	Sole	Con- (bm)	Console
2.	Void	De- (bm)	Devoid
3.	Tain	Re- (bm)	Retain
4.	Pare	Com- (bm)	Compare
5.	Science	Con- (bm)	Conscience
6.	Stable	Con- (bm)	Constable

7.	Face	Pre- (bm)	Preface
8.	Vile	Re- (bm)	Revile
9.	Stable	Un- (bm)	Unstable

TABLE OF SUFFIXES

No	Root	Affixation	New Word
1.	Dear	-est (bm)	Dearest
2.	Create	-ion (bm)	Creation
3.	Study	-ing (bm)	Studying
4.	Sound	-s	Sounds

		(bm)	
5.	Corp	-s (bm)	Corps
6.	Pray	-er (bm)	Prayer
7.	Love	-ing (bm)	Loving
8.	Die	-s (bm)	Dies
9.	Sure	-ly (bm)	Surely
10.	Care	-ful (bm)	Careful
11.	Exile	-s (bm)	Exiles
12.	Smile	-s (bm)	Smiles
13.	Exami-	-ing	Examini

	ne	(bm)	Ng
14.	Combi- ne	-ing (bm)	Combini Ng
15.	Desire	-able (bm)	Desirable
16.	Plumb	-er (bm)	Plumber
17.	Admi- re	-able (bm)	Admir- Able
18.	Give	-s (bm)	Gives
19.	Bill	-et (bm)	Billet
20.	Ball	-et (bm)	Ballet
21.	Near	-ly (bm)	Nearly
22.	Dark	-y	Darky

		(bm)	
23.	Correct	-ly (bm)	Correctly
24.	Round	-ed (bm)	Rounded
25	Wound	-ed (bm)	Wounded
26.	Hallow	-ed (bm)	Hallowed
27.	Allow	-ed (bm)	Allowed
28.	Towe	-ed (bm)	Towed
29.	Move	-er (bm)	Mover
30.	Leech	-es (bm)	Leeches
31.	Climb	-er	Climber

		(bm)	
32.	Flag	-s (bm)	Flags
33.	Clang	-our (bm)	Clangour
34.	Stra- nge	-er (bm)	Stranger
35.	Sing	-er (bm)	Singer
36.	Marry	-age (bm)	Marriage
37.	Seem	-s (bm)	Seems
38.	Deaf	-er (bm)	Deafer
39.	Italy	-an (bm)	Italian
40.	Rece-ive	-er	Receiver

		(bm)	
41.	Calve	-s (bm)	Calves
42.	Valve	-s (bm)	Valves
43.	Phlegm	-atic (bm)	Phlegmatic
44.	Verge	-ing (bm)	Verging
45.	Scour-ge	-ing (bm)	Scourging
46.	Wit	-s (bm)	Wits
47.	Write	-ing (bm)	Writing
48.	Stone	-s (bm)	Stones
49.	Say	-ing	Saying

		(bm)	
50.	Read	-er (bm)	Reader
51.	Final	-ly (bm)	Finally
52.	Rime	-s (bm)	Rimes
53.	Senate	-or (bm)	Senator
54.	Fame	-ous (bm)	Famous
55.	Ling	-er (bm)	Linger
56.	Fur	-y (bm)	Fury
57.	Bur	-y (bm)	Bury
58.	Differ	-ence	Difference

		(bm)	
59.	Scene	-ic (bm)	Scenic
60.	Arab	-ic (bm)	Arabic
61.	Scientif	-ic (bm)	Scientific
62.	Sign	-al (bm)	Signal
63.	Sign	-ing (bm)	Signing

TABLE ALL OF AFFIXATION

No	Word	Prefixes	Suffixes
1.	Console	✓	–
2.	Devoid	✓	–
3.	Retain	✓	–
4.	Compare	✓	–
5.	Conscience	✓	–
6.	Constable	✓	–
7.	Unstable	✓	–
8.	Preface	✓	–
9.	Revile	✓	–
10.	Dearest	–	✓
11.	Examining	–	✓
12.	Plumber	–	✓
13.	Rounded	–	✓
14.	Towed	–	✓
15.	Hallowed	–	✓
16.	Mover	–	✓
17.	Climber	–	✓
18.	Singer	–	✓

19.	Italian	–	✓
20.	Verging	–	✓
21.	Saying	–	✓
22.	Bury	–	✓
23.	Arabic	–	✓
24.	Signal	–	✓
25.	Signing	–	✓
26.	Sounds	–	✓
27.	Corps	–	✓
28.	Exiles	–	✓
29.	Similes	–	✓
30.	Combining	–	✓
31.	Gives	–	✓
32.	Ballet	–	✓
33.	Allowed	–	✓
34.	Leeches	–	✓
35.	Flags	–	✓
36.	Clangour	–	✓
37.	Valves	–	✓
38.	Wits	–	✓
39.	Stones	–	✓
40.	Rimes	–	✓

41.	Senator	–	✓
42.	Linger	–	✓
43.	Creation	–	✓
44.	Studying	–	✓
45.	Prayer	–	✓
46.	Loving	–	✓
47.	Dies	–	✓
48.	Surely	–	✓
49.	Careful	–	✓
50.	Desirable	–	✓
51.	Plumber	–	✓
52.	Admirable	–	✓
53.	Billet	–	✓
54.	Darky	–	✓
55.	Correctly	–	✓
56.	Wounded	–	✓
57.	Nearly	–	✓
58.	Stranger	–	✓
59.	Marriage	–	✓
60.	Seems	–	✓
61.	Receiver	–	✓
62.	Calves	–	✓

63.	Phlegmatic	–	✓
64.	Scourging	–	✓
65.	Writing	–	✓
66.	Reader	–	✓
67.	Finally	–	✓
68.	Scenic	–	✓
69.	Scientific	–	✓
70.	Famous	✓	✓
71.	Fury	✓	✓
72.	Deafer	✓	✓

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