

Morphological Process Through Inflectional Suffixation in English and Muna Language: A Contrastive Study

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Abstract—The influence of regional grammar systems in learning English as a foreign language makes it difficult for students to use English. This study aims to find similarities and differences in the grammatical systems of English and Muna languages at the morphological level. Morphologically, English is a flexion type, while Muna is an incorporation type. This study uses a qualitative descriptive approach with a contrastive study method. The data used are complex words containing inflectional suffixes in English and Muna languages. Research data in English were taken from library sources in the form of textbooks, journals, newspapers, magazines, and literary works in the form of short stories. The data in the Muna language were taken from field research in the Muna area by applying the techniques of skill engagement, note-taking, elicitation and introspection. The technique of data analysis uses ICA (immediate constituent analysis). The results show that Muna inflectional suffixes are more varied than English inflectional suffixes. It is due to the morphological type of Muna as an agglutinative language, while English is a flexion language.

Index Terms—morphological process, Muna language, English, suffixation, inflectional

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning English as a foreign language is difficult to teach or master. Even though students have studied it for years, there are still many mistakes in using English from a grammatical aspect. According to Chastain (2006, p. 42), the difference between the English grammar system and the mother tongue (regional language) is the main cause, in addition to the lack of learning facilities, the unsupportive social environment of students, or perhaps the inability of the students themselves. In this study, the regional language in question is the Muna language.

English and Muna languages are very different morphologically. English is a flexion type (Quirk, 1989), while Muna is an incorporation type (Sande et al., 1986). As a flexion language, the morphemes' boundaries in English words are unclear because they constantly change form based on time, persona, gender, number, and case. On the other hand, in Muna language as an incorporation language, the morphemes contained in words have a role as syntactical elements so that in units of words they contain sentence elements so that they are known as morphosyntactic languages (Sande et al., 1986). It is the basic difference between the morphological types of English and the Muna language.

The complexity of the differences in morphological structure between English and the Muna language makes it difficult for students who speak the Muna dialect to master the grammatical system of English at the morphological level, even at the syntactic level. The structure of the Muna language causes this as the mother tongue, which has been firmly rooted in the minds of these students. According to Sapir-Whorf's hypothesis, the language system influences

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one's thinking. The language system in question is not the vocabulary contained in a language but its structure or grammar. Likewise, Chaer (2009, p. 53) stated that structure or grammar influences people's thinking.

As a result of the influence of the structure of the mother tongue, in this case, the Muna language, students who study English often experience interference. Interference means disturbance or mixture. In linguistics, interference is an error in the use of the language being learned (foreign language) due to the influence of the mother tongue system (regional language); in this case, there is a mixing of the structure of the foreign language with the structure of the local language. Alwasilah (1993, p. 131) asserts that the mother tongue (regional language) has the potential to influence foreign languages, so many foreign language errors are caused by carrying over one's habits in using the mother tongue (regional language).

Based on the background above, the contrastive analysis in this research aims to compare grammatical systems at the morphological level between English and Muna languages. Every language has similarities and differences. The similarity in question is universal; every language has morphological elements in the form of words and morphemes, while the difference is the uniqueness of each language (language unique) as a differentiator from one language to another (Sudaryanto, 1992, p. 8). Therefore, this current research analyzes a grammatical system of morphological processes in the formation of more complex words in each language. The aims of this research are 1) to identify the types of inflectional suffixes which morphologically play a role in forming more complex words in English and Muna language. 2) analyzing the inflectional suffixation process contrastive between English and Muna languages.

II. RELEVANT RESEARCH

Much research related to the current study topic has been carried out before using various research approaches and analytical techniques, such as Adiantika (2020), Misdawati (2019), Rohim et al. (2013), Saini (2016), and Uktolseja et al. (2019). All the studies above used the diachronic contrastive method. First, through a contrastive study, Adiantika (2020) compares declarative sentences in English and Indonesian. The results of his research show that declarative sentence patterns in Indonesian and English are similar in transitive, ambitransitive, and intransitive sentences. At the same time, the difference is in the nominal, adjective, prepositional, and numeral categories. Uktolseja et al. (2019) examined errors in using English and Indonesian sentence types in 20 students at Victory University, Memphis, Tunisia. The results of this study indicate that most of the students' mistakes are in the types of declarative, negative, interrogative, and exclamatory sentences. Differences in sentence patterns in English and Indonesian cause this. There are fewer errors in this type of imperative sentence because the pattern of imperative sentences in English and Indonesian is the same. Then, Misdawati (2019) applies a contrastive study to compare two different language structures, namely the structure of the language being studied (Arabic) and the source language (Indonesian).

Furthermore, Saini (2016) examined errors in the use of inverted English sentences in composition (writing). It was found that the Indonesian inversion sentence structure influenced the errors in the use of English inversion sentences by students. So, this error is used by English teachers in implementing remedial learning by displaying two inversion sentence patterns in both languages so that younger students understand them. Finally, Rohim et al. (2013) examined the comparison of Indonesian and Arabic in terms of tense, number, and persona. The results of this study indicate that at the temporal level, in Indonesian, it is not integrated into words but must be added, for example, *telah* 'has', *akan* 'will', and *sedang* 'is'. Whereas in Arabic, when is integrated into word construction. At the numerical level, Indonesian only recognizes singular and plural numbers, whereas, in Arabic, there are singular, dual and plural numbers. At the personal level, there are similarities between Indonesian and Arabic, namely first person, second person, and third person.

III. THEORY AND CONCEPT

Morphological Process

The morphological process is forming words by combining or connecting one morpheme with another (Samsuri, 1994, p. 190). The word formed in the morphological process comes from another unit, the basic form. The base form may be a word, a principal word, and a phrase; for example, the word *menggergaji* 'saw' comes from the word *gergaji* 'saw' as its base form; then the word *bertemu* 'meet' comes from the main word *temu* 'met' as its basic form; the word *ketidakadilan* 'injustice' is formed from the phrase *tidak adil* 'unfair'; the word *rumah sakit* 'hospital' is formed from the word *rumah* 'house' and the word *sakit* 'sick'; the word *pasukan tempur* 'combat troops' comes from the basic form of the word *pasukan* 'troop' and the main word *tempur* 'combat'; the word *lomba tari* 'dance competition' is formed from the word *lomba* 'competition' and the main word *tari* 'dance' (Ramlan, 1997, p. 51).

Matthews (1974, pp. 116-134) divides morphological processes into six types, namely (1) affixation, which is divided into prefixation, suffixation, and infixation; (2) reduplication; (3) modification (vowel change); (4) suppletion; (5) suprafixes (subphonemic affixes); and (6) subtraction. Affixation is the use of certain types of affixes in the form of prefixes; for example, the prefix *-un*, when attached to the beginning of the word *happy*, becomes *unhappy* 'not happy'; suffixes, for example, *happy* becomes *happiness* after being attached to the suffix *-ness* at the end of the word; and infixation, for example in the Muna language the word *kala* 'go' becomes *kumala* 'will go' after being inserted with the infix *-um*.

Reduplication is a process of word repetition, e.g., in the Muna language, *ghondo* ‘see’ becomes *ghondo-ghondo* ‘look after’ after receiving the whole repetition. The process of modification is also called vowel change. In other words, the occurrence of certain vowel changes in construction. For example, in English, the word *man* (singular) becomes *men* (plural) by changing the vowel /a/ to /e/. Suppletion is also called a complete modification because changes occur in the entire construction. For example, the word *go* changed to *went* (past tense). Suprafix is a suprasegmental affix that concerns tone in pronunciation. For example, in Lumaasaba (a Bantu language in southern Africa), [a:bo:ne] ‘he saw’ is pronounced in a flat tone. If spoken in an even-decreasing tone, it will be [a:bo:ne] ‘he has seen’. Subtraction is the formation of reduced elements in a construction; for example, in English, the word *datum* turns into *data* when the noun is plural. In French, the word *blanche* refers to women; when addressed to men, it becomes *blanc*.

The character or system of the language described determines these types of morphological processes. In Indonesian, for example, the types of morphological processes only consist of (1) affixation, (2) reduplication, and (3) composition (Ramlan, 1997). This division is based on the Indonesian word-formation system, which does not recognize modification, suffix, suprafix and subtraction, as stated by Matthews above. In the following, the types of morphological processes proposed by Samsuri (1994) will be described, which consist of five types of morphological processes based on data from English, Indonesian, and regional languages (Javanese).

A. Affixation

Affixation is the formation of words by adding affixes to basic morphemes, both free and bound base morphemes. Affixes are of three types: prefixes, infixes, and suffixes. The prefix is placed in front of the root. For example, the prefix *me-* in Indonesian is placed before the base word *beli* ‘buy’ became *membeli* ‘to buy’. This process also occurs in the Muna language; for example, the prefix *pa-* placed in front of the root *pongko* ‘kill’ becomes *papongko* ‘killer’. In English, the prefix *dis-* is placed before the word similarity becomes dissimilar.

The infix *-um* in the Muna language, if inserted in the root form *gholi* ‘buy’ becomes *ghumoli* ‘will buy’. As for the type of affix in the form of a suffix is always affixed at the end of the basic form. For example, in the Muna language, the suffix *-ha*, which is attached to the end of the basic form *kala* ‘go’, becomes *kalaha* ‘to go’. In English, the suffix *-ment* attached at the end of the word “*govern*” becomes “*government*”.

B. Reduplication

Reduplication is the repetition of basic morphemes either in whole or part, accompanied by affixes or without certain affixes. Examples of reduplication in Indonesian:

<i>Rumah</i> ‘house’	→	<i>Rumah-rumah</i> ‘houses’
<i>Jalan</i> ‘walk’	→	<i>Jalan-jalan</i> ‘strolls’
<i>Lari</i> ‘run’	→	<i>Berlari-lari</i> ‘run’

The basic morphemes of *rumah* and *jalan* are repeated entirely, so they become houses and stroll, while the repetition of the basic morpheme *lari* accompanied by the prefix *-ber* in the first constituent becomes *berlari-lari*. The process of reduplication in the Muna language also occurs as much as in Indonesian. Similar to Samsuri’s statement (1994, p. 191), reduplication is a morphological process that occurs in many languages worldwide. The following are examples of reduplication in the Muna language.

<i>Buso</i> ‘blow’	→	<i>Buso-buso</i> ‘blowing’
<i>Kala</i> ‘walk’	→	<i>Kala-kala</i> ‘walking’
<i>Sia</i> ‘bite’	→	<i>Pokasia-sia</i> ‘bite slowly’

The basic morphemes of *buso* ‘blow’ and *kala* ‘walking’ are repeated as a whole to form the words *buso-buso* ‘blowing’ and the *kala* ‘walking’. In the basic morpheme *sia* ‘bite’, there is repetition which is accompanied by the affix *-poka* so that the word *pokasia-sia* ‘bite slowly’ is formed.

C. Internal Change

Internal change is the process of changing the form of a morpheme that occurs in its basic form. This process is referred to as a vocal change or due to the change in morpheme form is caused by a change in a vowel, for example in English:

Foot (singular)	→	Feet (plural)
Sing (present)	→	Sang (past)

The basic form of *foot* changes to *feet* due to changing the vowel *o* to the vowel *e*. Likewise, the case with the basic form *sing* changes to the *sang* due to the change in the vowel *i* to the vowel *a*. Although changes in structure in a process like this only occur in vowel changes, they make a change in meaning (see Samloy & Ekoputranti, 1998, p. 32). The word *foot* refers to the singular meaning, while the word *feet* means the plural, the word *sing* denotes the singing activity carried out in the present time, but the word *sang* denotes the singing activity in the past.

D. Suppletion

Suppletion is a morphological process that causes a new form. For example, in English, the word “*go*” changed to “*went*”. The word *go* denotes the activity of ‘going’, carried out in the present time, while *went* expresses the activity of ‘going’, carried out in the past.

E. Blank Modification

Blank modification is a word change process that does not occur in its form but in its concept. For example, the word *sheep* expresses only one sheep and more than one sheep (plural).

IV. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Research Design

This research uses a descriptive qualitative approach. Descriptive aims to describe the grammatical elements of English and Muna language as objects of study. Meanwhile, qualitative relates to the perspectives of the individuals studied, detailed descriptions of context, sensitivity to processes, and so on, which can be traced to their epistemological roots (Brannen, 2002, p. 83). Describes descriptive-qualitative research as research that understands the phenomena experienced by research subjects holistically and is descriptive in the form of words and language in special natural contexts (Rosyidi et al. 2010, p. 162). In line with this explanation, Ratna (2009, pp. 116-134) states that qualitative methods pay attention to natural data concerning context, which is applied in understanding and interpreting existing facts.

B. Type and Sources of Data

The data in this study are complex words containing inflectional suffixes in English and Muna languages. This data consists of primary data and secondary data. Primary data comes from the use of language in the field. In contrast, secondary data comes from document materials in textbooks, journals, research reports, newspapers and literary works in short stories.

C. Data Collection Technique

English data was taken through documentation techniques. This data comes from written documents in the form of textbooks, journals, newspapers, magazines, and literary works in the form of short stories. The Muna language data in the form of complex words containing infectious suffixes will be collected through field research in the Muna area. To retrieve these data, the techniques used were: (1) skilled engagement, the researcher was directly involved in the conversation using the Muna language; (2) noted, researchers recorded relevant data when interacting socially using the Muna language; (3) elicitation, namely checking the correctness of the data obtained on native Muna speakers; and (4) introspection, namely checking the correctness of the data by using their knowledge as Muna speakers (the head of the research team is a Muna speaker). In qualitative research, the main instrument in data collection is the researcher himself (Sunaryo, 1997, p. 25).

D. Data Analysis Technique

Data for both languages are inventoried and classified separately (English and Muna). Next, an analysis is carried out by applying the ICA (Immediate Constituent Analysis) technique. This technique explains the role of each type of inflectional suffix in the morphologically more complex word formation process in both languages. Implementing the ICA technique is also used in decomposing complex words into the root, stem, base parts, and the types of suffixes. The decomposition of these parts becomes the basis for describing and explaining the morphological processes that occur in forming more complex words through inflectional suffixation. Through a contrastive study, the grammatical systems of the two languages in the morphological process can be displayed to compare the two clearly. Thus, the similarities and differences in the grammatical systems of English and Muna language at the morphological level can be described.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Inflectional Suffixes of English and Muna Language

The process of suffixation or the use of suffixes, is part of the morphological process of forming more complex words. According to Yatim (1992, pp. 170-175), more complex word formation processes consist of two types, namely inflective processes and derivative processes. The inflective process or inflective word-formation does not form new words that differ in lexical identity from the basic word form, while the formation of words in a derivative form new words that differ in lexical identity from the basic form. The lexical identity referred to here is a category or class of words. For example, in English, the suffix *-ment*, attached at the end of the verb *entertain*, becomes the noun *entertainment*. In this process, there is a change in lexical identity or word classes from verbs to nouns. On the other hand, the suffix *-ing* attached at the end of the verb *go* becomes *going*. In this process, there is a change in lexical identity or word class because *go* as a verb and *going* are also classed as verbs.

Thus, the type of suffix that plays a role in the word formation inflectively does not change the lexical identity of the base word or does not change the class of the base word called an inflectional suffix. On the other hand, derivational suffixes that play a role in the process of word formation in derivatives cause a change in the identity of the base word or the word class of the base word. In the following, the types of inflectional suffixes in English and Muna languages will be explained.

(a).. Inflectional Suffixes in English

There are 8 types of inflectional suffixes in English, namely a) plural Suffixes, b) present Tense Suffixes, c) past Tense Suffixes, d) possessive Suffixes, e) present Participle Suffix, f) past participle Suffixes, g) comparative Suffixes, and h) superlative Suffixes. Furthermore, each type of inflectional suffix above is described below.

1. Plural Suffix

A plural suffix is a type of suffix which is a plural marker. Words attached by this type of suffix are nouns. After being attached to this suffix, the singular noun becomes a plural noun, e.g. *garden*. If the suffix *-s* was attached to the end of the word, it becomes *gardens*. The suffix *-s* in the word *garden* acts as a plural former.

In addition, there is also the suffix *-es* as a plural marker in English. The suffix *-es* is attached to nouns that end in *s*, *sh*, and *ch*. For example, the word *glass* ends with *s*, *dish* ends with *sh*, and *church* ends with *ch*. These words must be attached with the suffix *-es*, not the suffix *-e*, so forms the plural, such as *glasses*, *dishes*, and *churches*. Then, there is also the suffix *-en* as a plural marker in English. Suffix *-en* is only attached to certain words; for example, the word *ox* (singular) becomes *oxen* (plural), and *child* (singular) becomes *children* (plural).

2. Present Tense Suffix

A present tense suffix is a type of suffix that acts as a present tense marker. Tense in English is a form of a verb or a series of verb forms used to express a time relationship (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 40). This tense is not a free constituent lexical unit. Still, it is always tucked into a verb (verb), becoming a time marker in implementing that verb.

There are three kinds of tense in English: present, past, and future. The present tense is denoted by the suffixes *-s* and *-es*. The suffixes *-s* and *-es* are used specifically in the subject of the third person singular: *she*, *he* and *it*. For example: "he plays football in the afternoon twice a week". The verb *plays* in this sentence consists of *play* as the base form and the suffix *-s*. Then, "Julia takes twenty credits this semester". The verb *takes* in this sentence consists of *take* as a basic form and the suffix *-s* as a marker of the present tense for the subject Julia. The suffixes *-s* and *-es* use depends on the verb. If the verb ends in a sound (*s*, *sh*, *ch*), the suffix is *-es*. Apart from that, use the suffix *-s*.

3. Past Tense Suffix

A past tense suffix is a type of suffix that marks past time. This type of suffix is the *-d* and *-ed* suffix. It applies to all types of subjects. Basic verbs that use the suffixes *-d* and *-ed* were done in the past, just like the words *play* and *enjoy* become *played* and *enjoyed* in the past tense. The word *play* ends with the consonant "y" and is preceded by the vowel "a". Likewise, the word *enjoy* ends with the consonant "y" and is preceded by the vowel "o". Conversely, if the verb ends with "y" and is preceded by a consonant, then the consonant "y" changes to the vowel "i" and then uses the suffix *-ed*. For example, *the cry* becomes *cried* (past form), and *study* becomes *studied* (past form). The word *cry* ends with the consonant "y", preceded by "r". Likewise, the verb *study* ends with the consonant "y", preceded by the consonant "d". The suffix *-ed* is also used with words that end *ch*, *sk*, and *sh*, as in *catch*, *ask*, and *wish*.

4. Possessive Suffix

A possessive suffix is a type of suffix that marks the form of belonging. This type of suffix is *'s* (apostrophe s), for example, *Alice's house*. The apostrophe (*'s*) in *Alice* as subject indicates belonging. In this case, the house belongs to *Alice*.

5. Present Participle Suffix

A present participle suffix is a type of present participle marking suffix. This type of suffix is *-ing*, which is attached to the end of the verb. Structurally, the present participle is the same as the gerund but differs in word class. Generally, the gerund is a noun class formed from a verb base, while the present participle remains of the verb class, which is formed from a verb base. For example: *interviewing him does not affect the changes*. The word "interviewing" as the subject in this sentence comes from the word "interview" (verb), then the suffix *-ing* is attached to become *interviewing* as the present participle. In contrast to the following sentence: *interviewing people is his duty*. In this sentence, the word *interviewing* is a noun class formed from the verb *interview*; in this sentence, as a gerund.

6. Past Participle Suffix

A past participle suffix is a suffix that acts as a marker for the form of the past participle. The suffixes in question are *-d/-ed*, *-n/-en*, and *-t*. In English, there are regular verbs and irregular verbs. Regular verbs usually form the past participle with the suffix *-d* or *-ed*. For example, the word *ask* becomes *asked*, *kick* becomes *kicked*, and *cry* becomes *cried*. Meanwhile, irregular verbs use suffixes *-n/-en* and *-t* to form past participle. For example:

eat	→	Eaten
beat	→	beaten
forbid	→	Forbidden
grow	→	Grown
draw	→	Drawn
rise	→	Risen
dwell	→	Dwelt
spell	→	Spelt

7. Comparative Suffix

A comparative suffix is a type of suffix that is a marker of the form of a comparative or comparison. In English, the suffix that expresses comparative degrees is the suffix *-er* attached to an adjective, as described in the following sentence.

1. Reading is *easier* than writing
2. My mother is *younger* than my father

The suffix *-er* attached to the word “easy” becomes “easier” in a sentence (1) to compare *reading* and *writing* activities. That is, reading is easier than writing. Likewise, in a sentence (2), the suffix *-er* attached to the adjective *young* becomes *younger*, indicating a comparison between my mother and my father. That is, my mother is *younger* than my father.

8. Superlative Suffix

A superlative suffix is a type of suffix that expresses the superior (most) comparison. This suffix is *-est*, which is attached to an adjective. Its use in a sentence begins with the word “the”, as described in the following sentences.

1. We plan to build the *biggest* mosque in this town
2. The *nearest* super market from here is Lippo

The word *biggest* in sentence (1) comes from the base form “big,” which is attached by the suffix *-est* becomes “biggest”. Likewise, the word *nearest* in a sentence (2) comes from the base form “near,” which is attached by the suffix *-est*, becomes *nearest* (the closest).

(b). Inflectional Suffix of Muna language

Inflectional suffixes in Muna consist of eight types, namely a) invitative suffix, b) assertive suffix, c) plural suffix, d) totality suffixes, e) repetitive suffixes, f) causative suffixes, g) beneficial suffixes, h) idiomatic suffixes. Furthermore, each of the above types is described below.

1. Invitative Suffix (*Sufiks Invitatif*)

Invitative suffix is a type of suffix that states an invitation or allows someone to do a certain activity. In Muna, the type of invitative suffix is *-mo*. The suffix *-mo* is attached at the end of the verb, for example:

- | | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------|---|------------------------------|
| 1. <i>Pesua</i> ‘come’ | + <i>-mo</i> | → | <i>pesuamo</i> ‘come in’ |
| 2. <i>Ala</i> ‘take’ | + <i>-mo</i> | → | <i>alamo</i> ‘take it’ |
| 3. <i>Angkafi</i> ‘follow’ | + <i>-mo</i> | → | <i>angkafimo</i> ‘follow it’ |

The basic words above, *pesua*, *ala*, and *Angkafi*, are verbs that have an instructive meaning. It means ordering someone to do an activity. However, after attaching the suffix *-mo*, such as *pesuamo*, *alamo*, and *Angkafimo*, these words are no longer a form of instruction but invite or allow someone to do something (invitative).

2. Assertive Suffix

The form of the assertive suffix in Muna is the suffix *-e*. This suffix is attached to the verb. Semantically, it expresses an affirmation of something to be carried out as stated by the verb it is attached to. Pay attention to the following sentences.

1. *Fefunaae wambano kamokulamu*
“Keep in mind the words of your parents”
2. *Fekirie liwumu, koe kaawu fekiri wutomu*
“Remember about your country, don’t just think about yourself”

The word *fefunaaae* ‘keep in mind’ in sentence (1) consists of the basic form *fefunaa*, which is then attached with the suffix *-e* to become *fefunaaae*. Semantically, the suffix *-e* in words *fefunaae* expresses affirmation. In sentence (1), *fefunaae* emphasizes that parents’ words are considered. Furthermore, in sentence (2), *fekirie* ‘remember’ consists of the basic form *fekiri*, followed by the suffix *-e*. This word emphasizes that the country should also be considered, not just oneself.

3. Plural Suffix

Plural suffix in the Muna language is usually indicated by the suffix *-hi*. Semantically, this plural suffix is a plural marker for the noun it is attached to. For example, consider the sentences below.

1. *Kamokulahi doratomo*
“All the parents have arrived”
2. *Kalapa desahi we Wuna domai ne Kandari ini*
“All Village heads in Muna came to Kendari”

In sentence (1), there is the word *kamokulahi*. Its basic word form is *kamokula*, ‘parent’ (singular). After being attached to the suffix *-hi*, it becomes *kamokulahi* ‘parents’ (plural). Similarly, the word *kapala desah* ‘village head’ (singular) in sentence (2). After being attached the suffix *-hi*, it becomes *kapala desahi* ‘village heads’ (plural form). Semantically, the suffix *-hi* in the word *kamokulahi* and *kapala desahi* indicate a plural meaning. Therefore, the suffix *-hi* acts as a plural marker in this process.

4. Totality Suffix

Totality suffix is a type of suffix that expresses the meaning of “whole”. In the Muna language, the forms of these suffixes are suffixes *-fi* and *-pi*, which are attached at the end of the verb. Semantically, they indicated the meaning of totality or whole. Considering the sentence below.

1. *Rakofi kaeta manuhi aitu*
“Catch all the chickens”
2. *Kenta katowo kaaso Wa Uli nogholifie Alisiina.*
“The grilled fish sold by Wa Uli were bought all by Alisiina”
3. *Padamo ohelapie doimu we koperasi?*
“Have you withdrawn all your money in the cooperative”

The verb *rako* ‘catch’ in sentence (1) which is added by the suffix *-fi*, becomes *rakofi* ‘catch all’. Then, in sentence (2), the verb *nogholifie* ‘all bought’. Its basic word form is *gholi* ‘buy’ which becomes *gholifi* ‘buy all’ after adding the suffix *-fi*. Furthermore, in sentence (3), the verb *hela* ‘pull’ becomes *helapi* ‘pull all’ after attaching the suffix *-pi* to the end of the verb. It can be concluded that the suffixes *-fi* and *-pi* are markers of totality (whole).

5. Repetitive Suffix

A repetitive suffix is a type of suffix that expresses activities that are carried out repeatedly. In the Muna language, these suffixes are *-si* and *-ti*, as described in the following sentences.

1. *Isaku nerambisi kumbohu*
“My sister hit the monitor lizard repeatedly”
2. *Anahi amaitu nesiati karatasi*
“The little boy bites the paper repeatedly”

The basic form of *nerambisi* in sentence (1) is *rambi* ‘to hit’ becomes *rambisi* ‘to hit repeatedly’ after adding the suffix *-si*. Then, the word *siati* ‘bites repeatedly’ in sentence (2), the basic form is *sia* ‘bites’. So, the suffixes *-ti* and *-si* act as repetitive markers, especially to indicate activities that are carried out repeatedly.

6. Causative Suffix

A causative suffix is a type of suffix that states “cause”. In the Muna language, this type of suffix is *-mi*. For example, *kae* ‘less’ becomes *kaemi* ‘to make it less’, and *tangku* ‘close’ becomes *tangkumi* ‘make it close.’

7. Benefactive Suffix

A benefactive suffix is a suffix that semantically expresses one’s interests. These types of suffixes can be identified in the Muna language according to the subject used. For the subject of the third person singular (she), the suffixes are *-ghoo* and *-ane*. For the third person plural subject (they), the suffix used is *-anda*. For the subject of the first person, plural form, (us), the suffix used is *-kaeta*. For the subject of the first person singular (me), the suffix used is *-kanau*. For the subject of the second person singular (you), the suffix used is *-angko*. For the subject of the second person plural (you), the suffix used is *-angkoomu*. Considering the following sentences.

1. *Mealaghoo kenta anahi aitu soo naoma*
“Get the boy’s fish for him to eat”
2. *Sabhangkaku aegholiane kaoso bughou*
“My friend I bought new shoes”
3. *Guru-guruhi we kampo dowanda tunjangan 3 juta*
“Teachers in the village are given an allowance of 3 million”
4. *Megaukaeta midawa namaghuleo*
“Cook sweet potatoes tonight”
5. *Meowakanau mafusau ane omai we lambuku*
“Bring me cassava if you come to my house”
6. *Padamo aegholiangko motoro dadi orumajimo osumikola*
“I already bought a motorbike, so you have to be diligent one in school”
7. *Aelengkaangkoomu galu bughou we kamppo ini.*
“I opened a new garden in this village”

In sentence (1), there is the word *mealaghoo*. Its basic word form is *meala* ‘get’ becomes *mealaghoo* ‘get it’ after adding the suffix *-ghoo* at the end of the word. The suffix *-ghoo* refers to someone who has an interest. In other words, the object that benefits, in this case, *Anahi* ‘the boy’. Meanwhile, in sentence (2), the word *gholi* ‘buy’ becomes *gholiane* ‘buy’ after adding the suffix *-ane*. The “ae” form in the word *aegholiane* refers to the subject “I”. The person who receives the benefit is *sabhangkaku* ‘my friend’ in the third person singular.

Then, in sentence (3), there is the word *dowaanda*. Its basic form is *owa* ‘give’ becomes *owaanda* ‘given’ after attaching the suffix *-anda* to the end of the word. The “do” form at the beginning of the word *owaanda* refers to *guru-guruhi* ‘the teachers’ as the third person plural. In sentence (4) there is the word *megaukaeta* ‘cook (for both of us) after being attached to the suffix *-kaeta*. The suffix *-kaeta* refers to the first person plural, namely you and I (us).

In addition, in sentence (5) there is the word *meowa* ‘bring’ becomes *meowakanau* ‘brought (for me)’ after being attached to the suffix *-kanau*. In sentence (6), the word *gholi* ‘buy’ becomes *gholiangko* ‘bought for you’ after attaching the suffix *-angko* at the end of the word. The form “ae” in the word *aegholiangko* refers to the subject “I”. Lastly, in sentence (7), the root word *lengka* ‘open’ becomes *lengkaangkoomu* ‘open for you’ after being attached to the suffix *-angkoomu*. The form “ae” at the beginning of the word *aelengkaangkoomu* is the sentence’s subject.

8. Idiomatic Suffix

An idiomatic suffix is a suffix that gives a new meaning to the word it is affixed to. In other words, a word already attached to a suffix will have a new meaning different from the base word form. Hurford (2007) emphasized that idiomatic expressions are expressions whose meaning is not following the principle of compositionality and is not related to the meaning of their parts. In Muna language, four idiomatic suffixes *-pao*, *-tao*, *-rao*, and *-lao* are usually attached to verbs. Considering the words and sentences below.

- | | | | | | |
|----|----------------------|---|-------------|---|----------------------------|
| 1. | <i>haro</i> ‘broom’ | + | <i>-pao</i> | → | <i>haropao</i> ‘finish up’ |
| 2. | <i>kitu</i> ‘swipe’ | + | <i>-rao</i> | → | <i>kiturao</i> ‘hit’ |
| 3. | <i>rambi</i> ‘punch’ | + | <i>-tao</i> | → | <i>rambitao</i> ‘dump’ |
| 4. | <i>wangku</i> ‘beat’ | + | <i>-lao</i> | → | <i>wangkulao</i> ‘fell’ |

Furthermore, considering the use of idiomatic suffixes in the sentences below.

1. *Bhahihiku deharopao kabuto we acara gholeetu*
“My friends spent the kabuto (food) at the party today”
2. *Kumabaru-baruhino dokituraoda we polisi rangkowane*
“Bad guys got beat up at the police station this morning”
3. *Amalisu norambitao anano te kabhongka ainiini*
4. *Awaku notiwangkulao we ghabu*
“My grandfather fell in the kitchen”.

B. Contrastive Inflectional Suffixes Between English and Muna Language

Differences and similarities in inflectional suffixes in English and Muna languages are analyzed based on the types of inflectional suffixes (morphological processes in both languages) and their semantic role, as described in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
INFLECTIONAL SUFFIXES IN ENGLISH AND MUNA LANGUAGES

No	Types of Inflectional Suffixes in English	Types of Inflectional Suffixes in Muna Language
1	Plural Suffixes: <i>-s/es, -e/en</i>	Invitative suffix: <i>-mo</i>
2	Present Tense Suffixes: <i>-s/-es</i>	Assertive suffix: <i>-e</i>
3	Past Tense Suffixes: <i>-d/-ed</i>	Plural suffix: <i>-hi</i>
4	Possessive Suffixes: <i>-s</i>	Totality suffixes: <i>-fi</i> dan <i>-pi</i>
5	Present Participle Suffix: <i>-ing</i>	Repetitive suffixes: <i>-si</i> dan <i>-ti</i>
6	Past Participle Suffixes: <i>-d/-ed, -n/-en</i>	Causative suffixes: <i>-mi</i>
7	Comparative Suffixes: <i>-er</i>	Benefactive suffixes: <i>-ghoo, -ane, -anda, -kanau, -ngkoo, -ngkoomu, -kaeta, dan -kasami</i>
8	Superlative Suffixes: <i>-est</i>	Idiomatic suffixes: <i>-pao, -tao, -rao, and -lao</i> .

Table 1 above shows plurality suffixes in English and Muna languages. In English, plural marking suffixes are *-s* or *-es*. Meanwhile, the plural marking suffix is the suffix *-hi* in the Muna language. Then, the difference between English and Muna language inflectional suffixes lies in their productivity. The productivity in question is the variation of suffixes in each language’s eight types of suffixes. In English, the suffixes *-s* and *-es* fill in the plurality and present tense suffixes. However, inflectional suffixes in the Muna language are more varied or very productive. It is due to the morphological type of the Muna language as an agglutinative language. Meanwhile, the morphological type of English is flexion. Explicitly, agglutinative languages rely on affixes to form derived words. In this case, even though the Muna language is syntactically morphosyntactic (Sande, 1976) but morphologically, it is agglutinative.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the data analysis, it can be concluded that eight types of inflectional suffixes play a role in forming more complex words, both in the English and Muna languages. Firstly, the types of inflectional suffixes in English are: 1) suffixes *-s*, *-es*, and *-en* as plurality suffixes, 2) suffixes *-s* and *-es* as a present tense marker, 3) suffixes *-d* and *-ed* as markers of the past tense, 4) suffix *-s* as a marker of possessiveness, 5) suffixes *-ing* as a marker for the present participle, 6) suffixes *-d/-ed*, and *-n/-en* as past participle marker, 7) suffix *-er* as a comparative marker (comparison more than others), and 8) suffix *-est* as a superlative marker (“most” comparison).

In addition, there are eight inflectional suffixes in Muna language that play a role in morphological processes, especially in the formation of more complex words, namely 1) the suffix *-mo* as an inflectional marker, 2) the suffix *-e* as an assertive marker, 3) the suffix *-hi* as a marker plural, 4) suffixes *-fi* and *-pi* as totality markers, 5) suffixes *-si* and *-ti* as repetitive markers, 6) suffixes *-mi* as causative marker, 7) suffixes *-ghoo, -ane, -anda, -kanau, -ngkoo, -ngkoomu, -kaeta*, and *-kasami* as benefactive markers, and 8) the suffixes *-pao, -tao, -rao, and -lao* as idiomatic suffix markers.

In contrast, the inflectional suffixes of English and Muna have similarities and differences. In this case, having a plurality suffix in both languages. English, in particular, has the suffixes *-s/-es* and *-n/-en* as plural markers. Then, having the same number of inflectional suffixes affects the morphological process, especially in forming more complex words. In this analysis, the inflectional suffixes in Muna are more varied than those in English. Each type of suffix in Muna has its signifier. Interestingly, English suffixes *-s* and *-es* can be used as plural and present tense markers. Apart from that, there are also *-d* and *-ed* suffixes, past tense, and past participle marking suffixes. The phenomenon of Muna language inflectional suffixes is more varied than English inflectional suffixes caused by the morphological type of Muna as an agglutinative language, whereas English is a flexion language. One of the characteristics of agglutinative language is that most morphological processes in forming more complex words occur through affixes, one of which is through suffixation.

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