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Abstract

This study aims to examine the morphological aspects and their application in micro linguistics and micro linguistics. Linguistics in terms of study can be divided into two types, namely micro linguistics and macro linguistics. Micro linguistics is understood as linguistics which has a narrower nature of the study. That is, it is internal, only sees language as language. Macro linguistics is broad, the nature of the study is external. Linguistics studies language activities in other fields, such as economics and history. Language is used as a tool to see language from the point of view from outside the language. Language can be seen descriptively, historically comparative, contrastive, synchronic, and diachronic. Descriptive linguistics looks at living languages as they are. Comparative linguistics compares two or more languages at different periods. Contrastive linguistics compares the languages of a particular period or contemporaries. This study looks for similarities and differences in the fields of structure: phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Synchronic linguistics questions the language of a particular mass. In this study, we do not compare with other languages and other periods. Thus, this linguistic study is horizontal.

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Morphology in Micro Linguistics and Macro Linguistics

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***Abstract*---**This study aims to examine the morphological aspects and their application in micro linguistics and micro linguistics. Linguistics in terms of study can be divided into two types, namely micro linguistics and macro linguistics. Micro linguistics is understood as linguistics which has a narrower nature of the study. That is, it is internal, only sees language as language. Macro linguistics is broad, the nature of the study is external. Linguistics studies language activities in other fields, such as economics and history. Language is used as a tool to see language from the point of view from outside the language. Language can be seen descriptively, historically comparative, contrastive, synchronic, and diachronic. Descriptive linguistics looks at living languages as they are. Comparative linguistics compares two or more languages at different periods. Contrastive linguistics compares the languages of a particular period or contemporaries. This study looks for similarities and differences in the fields of structure: phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Synchronic linguistics questions the language of a particular mass. In this study, we do not compare with other languages and other periods. Thus, this linguistic study is horizontal.

***Keywords*---**contrastive, diachronic, grammatical subsystem, lexical subsystem, morphological aspects, phonological subsystem, synchronic.

Introduction

Language consists of elements that are arranged in an orderly manner. Language is not several elements collected randomly or irregularly. Language is systematic. In addition,

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it can also be stated that language consists of subsystems, meaning that language is not a single system. Language consists of several subsystems, namely phonological subsystem, grammatical subsystem, and lexical subsystem. Slightly different from the other subsystems, the language subsystem is arranged hierarchically. The level of this subsystem in linguistics is known as the linguistic level or language level (Bates et al., 1987). If sorted from the lowest level to the highest level, in this case, the three language subsystems above are the phoneme, morpheme, phrase, clause, sentence, and discourse level. The phoneme level is included in the field of phonological studies, the morpheme and word-level are included in the morphological study level; the level of phrases, clauses, sentences, and discourse is the highest level, studied by the field of syntax (Bates et al., 1991). In morphology, the word becomes the largest unit, while in the syntax it becomes the smallest unit. In the study of morphology, the word is studied for its structure and formation process, while in the syntax it is studied as an element forming a larger syntactic unit.

Linguistics can also relate to other sciences. These sciences include psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Linguists can use psychology to analyze language acquisition and the consequences of psychological disorders. This relationship gave birth to psycholinguistics. The relationship with sociology gave birth to sociolinguistics. This subdiscipline examines the relationship between language and speakers, what language or variations of language, what is spoken, to whom, and when the conversation occurs. In other words, sociolinguistics analyzes the relationship between social aspects and language activities (Beard, 1987). The utilization of anthropology produces antropolinguistics or ethnolinguistics. This subdiscipline studies the relationship between language, language use, and culture in general.

Theory

Before discussing the field of linguistics, first, discuss the division of knowledge so that we get an idea of where linguistics lies. One opinion suggests that science is divided into three major fields; (1) Natural sciences, including chemistry, biology, botany, geology, astronomy; (2) Socio-cultural sciences, including humanities, anthropology, sociology, economics, and culture; (3) Humanities including logic, mathematics, language, and art.

In such a division, linguistics is one of the socio-cultural sciences (English humanities, German: Geisteswissenschaften). It should be explained that the human sciences are essentially unacceptable because social phenomena depend entirely on human characteristics, on the other hand, human knowledge does not have to be social.) Jean Piaget, a psychologist, and Swiss scientific thinker divides social science into four branches, namely; 1) nomothetic sciences; 2) historical sciences; 3) legal sciences; 4) philosophical sciences. Linguistics according to this division includes nomothetic sciences, namely science that seeks to find rules using experimental methods and tries

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to focus on a limited field. Also included as nomothetic sciences include: psychology, sociology, economics. Some aspects of language can be viewed from a historical approach and some aspects of language can be approached philosophically (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2001; 2004). Linguistics is one type of social science and humanity and its position as an autonomous science can not be doubted because linguistics investigates language as the main data. In addition, linguistics has developed a set of procedures that are considered standard.

Linguistics consists of two major fields, namely; (1) Microlinguistics, namely the field of linguistics that studies language from within in other words studying the structure of the language itself; (2) Macrolinguistics, namely the field of linguistics that studies language in relation to factors outside of language, including interdisciplinary and applied fields (Benedet et al., 1998; Booij & Lieber, 1993). In terms of objectives, linguistics can be divided into two fields, namely theoretical and applied linguistics.

Theoretical linguistics, namely the field of linguistics that examines and explores language to obtain the rules that apply in language. There is theoretical linguistics that is general and some are specific. General linguistics is usually called general linguistics which seeks to understand the general characteristics of various languages. Specific theoretical linguistics seeks to investigate the specific characteristics of a particular language. Theoretical linguistics includes descriptive linguistics, comparative historical linguistics. These divisions are detailed one by one as follows: a) theoretical linguistics is a branch of linguistics that focuses on general theory and general methods of investigating language; b) Descriptive linguistics, also known as synchronic linguistics, is a field of linguistics that investigates language systems at a particular time. For example today's Indonesian language, the English language used by Shakespeare, and so on without paying attention to its development from time to time. This branch is divided into descriptive phonology, descriptive morphology, descriptive syntax, descriptive lexicology (Brown, 2005; Clahsen & Almazan, 1998).

Phonology examines the characteristics of sound and the function of sound. Morphology investigates words, elements, and the process of their formation, syntax investigates the units between these units. Morphology and syntax are included in the level of grammar or grammar. Lexicology concerns vocabulary or lexicon; c) comparative historical linguistics (diachronic) is linguistics that studies and investigates the development of languages from one period to another and investigates the comparison of one language with other languages to find ancient languages or proto-languages as common parent languages. LHK is also divided into the fields of (1) phonology, (2) morphology, (3) syntax, (4) comparative historical lexicology. It is also stated that language has an aspect of meaning or a semantic aspect. Investigations on this aspect, both general theoretical in nature and descriptive and comparative historical, are called semantics. This field is often called linguistic semantics, to

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distinguish it from philosophical semantics, which is a branch of philosophy that also investigates meaning (del Prado Martın et al., 2004).

Applied linguistics covers the fields of language teaching, translation, lexicology, applied phonetics, applied sociolinguistics, international language development, special language development, medical linguistics, mechanolining. The explanation is as follows:

- language teaching includes language teaching methods, speech sounds with language lessons, strategies, models, and ways of teaching language.
- Translation includes methods and techniques of transferring messages from one language to another.
- Lexicography includes the methods and techniques of compiling a dictionary.
- Applied phonetics includes methods and techniques for pronouncing sounds correctly, for example, to train people who stutter, to train drama players, and so on.
- Applied sociolinguistics includes the use of sociolinguistic insights for practical purposes, such as language planning, language development, eradication of illiteracy, and so on.
- International language development includes efforts to create international communication and mutual understanding by developing artificial languages such as Esperanto.
- Special language development, including the preparation of terms and language power in special fields, among others in the military, in aviation, in the world of shipping.
- Medical linguistics, assisting the field of pathology in terms of healing language defects.
- Graphology, the linguistic study of writings.
- Mechanolinguistics, including the use of linguistics in the field of computers and efforts to make machine translators, efforts to use computers in language investigation, for example in the preparation of concordance of texts, in calculating the frequency of words for dictionary and language teaching. This field is also known as computational linguistics.

Results and Discussions

The study of applied linguistics is one part of the study of interdisciplinary linguistics. Interdisciplinary studies include psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics. Briefly, the explanation is as follows: (1) Philosophy of language is a study that examines the nature and position of human language concerning philosophy and the role of giving birth to philosophical thought; (2) Psycholinguistics is a science that studies the relationship between language and human behavior and reason or the

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interdisciplinary science of linguistics and psychology; (3) Ethnolinguistics is a branch of linguistics that investigates the relationship between language and rural communities or people who do not yet have writing. This field is also known as anthropological linguistics (Echols, 1993).

Based on the relationship with factors outside the language of the object of study, it is distinguished that there are micro linguistics and macro linguistics. Micro linguistics directs the study of the internal structure or structure of a particular language or certain language subsystems, then in micro linguistics, there are fields of phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and lexicology. Some combine morphology with syntax to become morphosyntactic and combine morphology with semantics and lexicology to become lexicosemantics. However, in this paper, we will discuss phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, discourse, and the history of linguistic flow (Ferman et al., 2009). Then, in the study of microlinguistics, namely sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, anthropolinguistics, pragmatics, and neurolinguistics.

Phonology investigates the characteristics of speech sounds, how they occur, and their functions in the linguistic system as a whole. Phonology can be studied from two perspectives. First, the sound of speech is seen as a medium of language, just like objects or substances. Thus, the sound is considered as raw material, like raw material, like stone, cement as part of the raw material for building a house. Phonology that views speech sounds as such is commonly called phonetics. Second, speech sounds are seen as a language system. Speech sounds are part of the structure of words and at the same time serve to distinguish meaning. Phonology, which views the sound of the word as part of the language system, is commonly called phonemic (Gordon, 1985). Morphology is a part of linguistics that discusses or studies the intricacies of word forms and the effect of changes in word form on word groups and meanings, or in other words, it can be said that morphology studies the intricacies of word forms and the function of changes in word forms. it, both grammatical and semantic functions (Granlund et al., 2019).

Morphology is also called linguistics which studies the intricacies of words. Morphology is a field of linguistics that studies the grammatical arrangement of parts of words. Morphology, namely (1) the field of linguistics that studies morphemes and their combinations; (2) part of the language structure that includes words and parts of words, namely morphemes. Based on these definitions, it can be concluded that morphology is a linguistic field that studies the relationship between one morpheme and another to form a word. The morpheme is the smallest form of language that can no longer be divided into smaller parts, for example, the word break if divided into pu and tus, the parts can no longer be called morpheme because it has no meaning, either lexical or grammatical. Likewise, we cannot divide the field into smaller parts (Gross et al., 1998). So, a morpheme is the smallest unit of language that cannot be further

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divided and has grammatical and lexical meanings. The syntax is a branch of linguistics that discusses words concerning other words, or other elements as a unit of speech, in which syntax is usually discussed is a syntactic structure, including functions, categories, syntactic roles, syntactic units in the form of phrases, sentences, sentences. , and discourse (Hay & Baayen, 2005).

Semantics is a theory of meaning over a theory of meaning (semantic words as nouns and semantics as adjectives). Indeed, empirically before someone speaks and when someone hears someone's speech, mental processes occur in both of them. The mental process is in the form of compiling a semantic code, grammatical code, and phonological code on the part of the speaker, and the process of decoding the phonological code on the part of the listener. In other words, both the speaker and the listener have meaning. The question of meaning becomes a matter of semantics. Based on this, it can be concluded that semantics is a sub-discipline of linguistics that discusses meaning. In general, the field of linguistics is divided into pure linguistics and applied linguistics. The field of pure linguistics includes phonology (phonetics/phonemics), morphology, syntax, and semantics. Meanwhile, the field of applied linguistics includes psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropolinguistics, pragmatics, and others. Some of these areas are described in the following sub-chapters. The sound of language is the sound produced by the human speech apparatus. The sound of language can also be interpreted as an articulated sound that produces sound waves so that it can be accepted by the human ear.

Study of language sounds

Phonetics is the study of the sounds of language. Based on the process of occurrence, phonetics can be divided into three types, namely; (1) Acoustic phonetics, namely studying the sound of language in the form of air vibrations and studying the frequency of sound vibrations, amplitude, intensity, and timbre; (2) auditory phonetics, namely studying how the mechanism of the ear receives sound as a result of vibrating air; (3) Articulatory phonetics is phonetics that studies how the mechanisms of human speech tools produce language sounds and classify language based on their articulation.

On this occasion, we will only discuss articulatory phonetics because what is concerned is the process of producing language sounds and what speech tools operate when the sound is produced. In the process of forming language sounds, there are three factors involved, namely; (1) source of energy (air exhaled by the lungs); (2) speech apparatus through which air passes from the lungs (windpipe, esophagus, oral cavity, and nasal cavity); (3) articulator (inhibitor). The process of language formation involves four components, namely the airflow process, the phonation process, the articulation process, and the personal process. Sound production involves the speech

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organs around the mouth, nose, and throat. However, basically, the speech apparatus consists of the lungs, esophagus, palate, inner gums, teeth, lips, and tongue.

Classification of language sounds

Based on the presence or absence of articulation, namely; (1) vowels, namely language sounds that do not experience obstacles at the time of their formation; (2) consonants, namely the sounds of language formed by blocking the air currents in some speech organs; (3) semi-vowels, which are sounds that are actually consonants but when they are articulated they do not form pure consonants. Based on the way out the air currents, namely; (1) nasal sounds, which are sounds produced by blocking the flow of air to the outside through the oral cavity and opening the way for the air current to escape through the nasal cavity; (2) oral sounds, which are sounds produced by lifting the tip of the child's throat toward the soft palate to cover the nasal cavity, so that air flows out through the mouth.

Based on the presence or absence of tension in the air currents when the sound is articulated, namely; (1) loud sound (fortis), namely the sound of language when it is articulated accompanied by a strong tension of the current; (2) soft sound (lenis), that is sound which when articulated is not accompanied by strong tension currents. Based on the length of time the sound is spoken or articulated, namely; (1) long sound; and (2) short sounds. Based on the degree of loudness, the sound is divided into loud sound and audible sound. The degree of loudness is determined by the area or magnitude of the resonance space at the time the sound is spoken. The wider the resonance space of the speech channel when it forms a bunti, the higher the degree of loudness. Vice versa.

Based on its embodiment in syllables, namely; (1) single sound, namely sound that stands alone in one syllable (all vowels or monophthongs and consonants); (2) double sound, namely two or more sounds contained in one syllable. Multiple sounds consist of diphthongs (dual vowels): [ai], [au] and [oi] and clusters (consonant groups): [pr], [kr], [tr] and [bl]. Based on air currents, namely; (1) aggressive sound, is a sound formed by expelling air currents from the lungs. Aggressive sounds are divided into pulmonic aggressive sounds (formed by shrinking the space of the lungs, abdominal muscles and chest cavity) and glottal aggressive sounds (formed by closing the vocal cords so that the glottis is closed); (2) ingressive sounds, namely sounds formed by sucking air into the lungs. Ingressive sounds are divided into two, namely glottal ingressive (the formation is the same as glottal aggressive but different in air currents) and velaric ingressive (formed by raising the base of the tongue placed on the soft palate).

Vocal formation

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Based on the position of the lips, namely; (1) round vowels, namely vowels pronounced with round lips. For example, the vowels [u], [o] and [a]; and (2) non-rounded vowels, namely vowels that are pronounced with lips that are not round or wide. For example, [I], [e] and [ə]. Based on the high and low tongue, namely; (1) high vowels, namely vowels that are formed when the lower jaw is close to the upper jaw: [I] and [u]; (2) intermediate vowels, namely vowels that are formed when the lower jaw is slightly away from the upper jaw: [a] and [o]; (3) low vowels, namely vowels that are formed when the lower jaw is pushed back as far as possible: [a].

Based on the back and forth of the tongue, namely; (1) front vowels, namely vowels produced by the up and down movement of the front of the tongue: [i] and [e]; (2) middle vowels, namely vowels produced by the movement of the middle tongue: [a] and [o]; and (3) back vowels, which are vowels produced by the up and down movement of the back of the tongue: [u] and [o]. Based on the structure is divided into four. A stricture is a state of the articulator's (active) positional relationship with a passive articulator or point of articulation. Judging from the stricture, namely; (1) closed vowels, namely vowels that are formed with the tongue raised as high as possible close to the ceiling within the vocal range. [i] and [u]; (2) semi-closed vowels, namely vowels formed with the tongue raised two-thirds above the lowest vowel: [e] and [o]; (3) semi-open vowels, namely vowels that are formed with the tongue raised one third above the lowest vowel:[ɔ] and [o]; (4) open vowels, namely vowels that are formed with the tongue in a low position maybe: [a] and [A].

Consonant formation

Based on the articulation area (structure), namely; (1) bilabial consonants, namely consonants produced by bringing the two lips together which act as articulators and points of articulation: [p], [b], [m] and [w]; (2) labiodental consonants, namely consonants produced by bringing together the upper teeth as the point of articulation and the lower lip as the articulator: [f] and [v]; (3) apico-dental consonants, namely consonants produced by the tip of the tongue as an articulator and the area between teeth (dents) as points of articulation: [t], [d] and [n]; (4) apico-alveolar consonants, which are consonants produced by the tip of the tongue as an ariculator and the arch of the foot (alveolum) as the point of articulation: [s], [z[, [r] and [l]; (5) paltal consonants (lamino-palatal), namely consonants produced by the middle part of the tongue (lamina) as an articulator and the hard palate (plantum) as a point of articulation: [c], [j], [S], [n] and [y]; (6) velar consonants (dorso-velar), namely consonants produced by the back of the tongue (dorsum) as an articulator and soft palate as a point of articulation: [k], [g], [x]; (7) glottal consonants or hamzah, namely consonants formed by the position of the vocal cords being completely closed so that they close the glottis: [ʔ]; and (8) laryngeal consonants, which are consonants that are formed with the vocal cords wide open so that air comes out and is rubbed through the glottis: [h].

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Based on the way of articulation, including; (1) stop consonants, which are consonants produced by completely blocking air in the articulation area: [p], [t], [c], [k], [d], [j], and [g]]; (2) sliding consonants (fricatives), namely consonants formed by rubbing air out of the lungs: [h], [s], [S], [z] and [x]; (3) liquid (lateral) consonants, namely consonants produced by raising the tongue to the ceiling so that air is forced to be stirred and expelled through both sides of the tongue: [l]; (4) vibrating consonants (trills), namely consonants produced by moving and bringing the tongue closer to the alveolum quickly and repeatedly: [r]; and (5) semi-vowels, namely consonants which at the time of articulation have not yet formed pure consonants: [w] and [y]. Based on the position of the vocal cords, namely; (1) voiced consonants, namely consonants that occur if the ydara that comes out of the speech cavity also vibrates the vocal cords: [b], [m], [v], [d], [r], [n], [j], [h], [g] and [r]; and (2) voiceless consonants, namely consonants that occur if the air coming out of the speech cavity does not vibrate the vocal cords: [p], [t], [c], [k], [ʔ], [f], [S], [x] and [h].

Based on the way out the air, including; (1) nasal consonants, namely consonants that occur when air comes out through the nasal cavity: [m], [n] and [p]; and (2) oral consonants, which are consonants that occur when air comes out through the mouth, for example, all consonants other than nasal consonants.

Influence and influence of language sound

Assimilation process

The process of assimilation is an influence that affects sound without affecting the identity of the phoneme and is limited to phonetic assimilation only. Based on the direction of the influence of the sound, the assimilation process is divided into; (a) Progressive Assimilation, namely the assimilation process that occurs when the direction of influence is forward; and (b) Regressive Assimilation, namely the assimilation process that occurs when the direction of influence is backward.

Accompanying articulation

The process of sound influence caused by this articulation is divided into; (a) Labialization, namely the rounding of the lips in the primary articulation so that a semi-vowel sound [w] is heard in the main sound. For example, the sound [t] in the target word sounds as sound [tw]; (b) Retroflexion, namely pulling the tip of the tongue back at the primary articulation so that the sound [r] is heard in the main sound. For example, [kr] from the sound [k] in the word cardboard; (c) Palatalization, namely the lifting of the tongue leaf towards the hard palate in the primary articulation. For example, the sound [p] in the word pet sounds like [py]; (d) Velarization, namely the lifting of the base of the tongue towards the soft palate at the

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primary articulation. For example, the sound [m] in the word creature sounds like [mx]; (e) Glottalization, namely the accompanying process of inhibition of the glottis or the glottis being tightly closed when the primary articulation is spoken. Vowels in Indonesian are often globalized. For example, the sound [o] in the word medicine sounds like [ɔ].

Effect of sound due to distribution

The effect of sound due to distribution causes the following processes; Aspiration, which is the pronunciation of a sound accompanied by a strong exhalation of air so that the sound [h] is heard. For example, the voiced explosive consonant [b,d,j,g] sounds like [bh,dh,jh,gh]. Release, i.e. the pronunciation of a bursting block sound that should be inhibited but not inhibited and the next sound is pronounced at the same time. The release is divided into three, namely; (1) sharp release or full release, namely the release of the articulation tools from their point of articulation that occurs sharply or completely; (2) nasal release, which is a release that occurs because of the nasal sound in front of it; (3) side release, namely the release that occurs because of a side sound in front of it; and (3) Pemgafrikatan, which is a condition that occurs if the impediment popping sound that should be blocked and popped is not performed, but after the obstacle is released shifting and slowly.

Holiness

Homogeneity is a consonant that has a special characteristic. There are two types of homogeneity, namely; (a) complete homogeneity is the homogeneity that arises as a result of the difference in sound; and (b) partial homogeneity is the homogeneity that arises when the difference between the pair of phonemes is in the way of articulation, while the articulation area is the same. Transcription is the writing of speech or text changes to suggest the pronunciation of sounds, phonemes, morphemes or writings following the applicable spelling in a language that is the target. Transliteration is the replacement of letter by letter from one alphabet to another without regard to the pronunciation of the sound of the word concerned. For example, the transliteration of the Javanese script is shifted to the Latin alphabet.

The phoneme is the smallest unit of language sound that is functional, meaning that the unit has a function to distinguish meaning. Meanwhile, phonemization is an attempt to find sounds that function in order to differentiate the meaning. In the study of phonology, the functional burden of certain phonemic oppositions is often described. The low opposition load is found in the sounds /p/ and /f/ in the words when and kafan, while the high opposition load is found in the sounds /k/ and /g/ in the words gita and us.

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Phoneme realization is the actual disclosure of phonological characteristics or units, namely phonemes into language sounds. Neutralization is the alternation of phonemes due to environmental influences or the cancellation of minimal differences in phonemes at certain positions. Phoneme alternation is the change of a phoneme into another phoneme without differentiating meaning. The sound /t/ at the end of the pronunciation of the word [tripe] for /babad/ is the result of neutralization. Archiphonemes are a group of phonemes that lose contrast at certain positions and are usually denoted by capital letters such as /D/ which has an alternation or variant of the phoneme /t/ and the phoneme /d/ in the word [tripe] for /babad/.

Dissimilation is a change in the form of a word because one of the same two phonemes is replaced by another. Metathesis is the location of two interchangeable segments, in the process of metathesis what is changed is the sequence of certain phonemes that are usually present together with the original form, so that there is free variation. For example, lanes become lanes, cupboards become cupboards. The morphological process a way of forming words by connecting one morpheme to another. The word is called a minimal free form, meaning that the form can be pronounced alone, can be said, and can be preceded and followed by a potential pause. In addition, the form will get a basic intonation pattern/[2]31/. Forms such as /what/, /where/ will get the intonation contour of /31/; /hard/, /rice/ will get intonation contour /231/, /pas/, /ban/ will get intonation contour 31/; /tower/ intonation contoured /[2]231/. So, the morphological process is the process of combining morphemes into words.

The morphological processes include (1) affixation, (2) reduplication, (3) internal change, (4) addition, and (3) empty modification. However, in Indonesian which is agglutinated, there is no data on morphological processes in the form of internal changes, additions, and blank modifications. So, the morphological process in Indonesian is only through affixation and reduplication.

Affixation is a combination of a root word or subject with an affix. There are three kinds of affixes, namely prefix, insertion, and suffix. Because it is always in front of the base form, an affix is called a prefix or prefix. Affixes are called inserts (infixes) because they are located in words, while suffixes are located at the end of words. In Indonesian, with the help of affixes, we will know the category of words, active or passive diathesis, but we don't know the singular or plural form and the present and past times as in English.

Phrases are combinations of two or more words that are non-predicative. Phrases talk about the relationship between a word and another word. Phrases consist of exocentric phrases and endocentric phrases. Exocentric phrases consist of directive exocentric phrases (particles) and non-directive exocentric phrases (connective and predicative). Endocentric phrases consist of single parented endocentric phrases and

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plural parented endocentric phrases. Single-parent endocentric phrases can be divided into nominal phrases, pronominal phrases, verbal phrases, adjective phrases, and numeral phrases. The plural parented endocentric phrases are divided into coordinating phrases and appositive phrases. An exocentric phrase is a phrase that partially or completely does not have the same syntactic behavior as all of its components, both with axes and with prepositions. Exocentric phrases have two components. The first component is in the form of a coupler and the coupler is in the form of particle prepositions and the second component is an axis. Phrases with prepositions are called prepositional phrases or directive exocentric phrases. Phrases that are linked together are called non-directive exocentric phrases.

Non-directive exocentric phrases can be divided into (a) phrases that partially or wholly have the same behavior as their parts, such as the deer, the defendant, the deer, the lover, the marginalized, the businessmen, the youth; (b) a phrase that all behaves the same as one of its elements. That is, the defendant and the lover have the same behavior as the defendant or the lover. For example, both can occupy the function of the subject or object.

An endocentric phrase is a phrase that all has the same syntactic behavior as the behavior of one of its components. Endocentric phrases can be divided into single parented endocentric phrases (modifying phrases) and plural parented endocentric phrases. Nominal phrases are phrases that consist of a noun (as the center) and other elements in the form of adjectives, verbs, numerals, demonstratives, pronouns, prepositional phrases, phrases with which, constructions with which, or other phrases. Examples: stone table, rattan chair, septau maker, ophthalmologist, party friend, local law, sweet child, loved one. Pronominal phrases are phrases that consist of a combination of pronouns and pronouns or a combination of pronouns and adjectives, adverbs, numerals, or demonstratives. Example: the two of us, you alone, them, you guys, not only you, you and him. Verbal phrases are phrases that consist of a combination of verbs and verbs or a combination of verbs and adverbs or a combination of verbs and combined prepositions. Example: going to work, running fast, singing sweetly, sleeping with mosquitoes.

An adjective phrase is a phrase consisting of a combination of several words or consisting of a parent in the category of an adjective and a modifier of any category, provided that all of them behave as adjectives. Example: a little sour, a little dizzy, really beautiful, brave, hot, dark black, often don't remember, a bit naughty too. Numerical phrases are phrases that consist of numerals as the parent and other expansion elements that have a subordinating relationship with number classifiers and size nouns. Example: nine glasses, two dozen, two or three, already five, thousands of flies, several sacks of cement.

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Many parented endocentric phrases consist of several components that are equal in function and category. This phrase is divided into coordinating phrases and appositive phrases. Coordinative Phrases are endocentric phrases with multiple parentage, whose components can potentially be connected with particles, such as and, to, or, but, or correlative conjunctions, such as either ... or and more ...more. Example: rich or poor, for and on behalf of clients, both red and blue, the older the better the quality. If no particles are used, the combination is called a practical phrase, such as young and old, big and small, mother and father, and rich and poor. An appositive phrase is an endocentric phrase with many stems which externally its component languages refer to the same entity. Example: Megawati Soekarnoputri, one of the former Presidents of the Republic of Indonesia.

A clause is a grammatical unit in the form of a group of words, which has at least one predicate and has the potential to become a sentence. In other words, clauses talk about the relationship between a compound word and another word combination. Clauses can be distinguished based on their unit distribution and based on their function. Based on the distribution of units, clauses can be divided into independent clauses and bound clauses. Based on its function, clauses can be divided into subject clauses, object clauses, adverb clauses, and complement clauses.

Semantics is part of the structure of language that is related to the meaning of expressions and the structure of the meaning of a speech. Meaning is the purpose of the conversation, the influence of language units in understanding perceptions, as well as human or group behavior (Holmberg & Roberts, 2013). The meaning of words is a field of study that is discussed in semantics. Various types of word meanings are studied in semantics. Connotative meaning is one type of meaning that exists in semantic studies. The connotative meaning is the meaning that is not real. The connotative meaning is contained in a clause.

The semantics discussed is the relationship between the word and the concept or meaning of the word, as well as objects or things referred to by that meaning that are outside the language (Hume, 1998). The meaning of a word, expression, or discourse is determined by the existing context. Semantics examines symbols or signs that express meaning, the relationship of meaning to one another, and its influence on humans and society. So semantics is always related to the meaning used by the speaking community (Kehayia et al., 1999). Based on some of the opinions above, it can be concluded that semantics is a science that examines symbols or signs that express meaning, the relationship of meaning to one another, and the relationship between words and the concept or meaning of the word.

The meaning of words is a field of study that is discussed in semantics. Semantics is located as a branch of linguistics that studies the meaning of a word in the language, while linguistics is a science that studies spoken and written language that has

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systematic, rational, empirical characteristics as a description of the structure and rules of language (Krovetz, 2000). Based on the opinion above, it can be concluded that the meaning of a word in language can be known based on semantics.

Meaning is what we mean or what we mean (Lupyan & Dale, 2016). The word meaning is defined: (i) meaning: he pays attention to the meaning of each word contained in the ancient writing, (ii) the speaker's or author's intention, (iii) the meaning given to a form language. Meaning is the relationship between language and the outside world that has been mutually agreed upon by language users so that they can be mutually understood (Münte et al., 1999). From this definition, it can be seen that there are three main elements included in it, namely (1) meaning is the result of the relationship between language and the outside world, (2) the determination of the relationship occurs because of the agreement of the users, and (3) the realization of the meaning can be used to convey information so that it can be understood by each other.

Meaning is the link that exists between the elements of the language itself (especially words). Meaning only concerns interlanguage. In line with this opinion, studying the meaning or giving meaning to a word is to understand the study of the word with regard to the meaning relationships that make the word different from other words. Meaning (meaning, linguistic meaning, sense) are: (1) the speaker's intent, (2) the influence of language units in understanding the perception or behavior of humans or human groups, (3) relationships, in the sense of equivalence or incompatibility. between language and nature outside language, or between speech and all the things it denotes, (4) how to use language symbols. From some of the opinions above, it can be concluded that meaning is the meaning of a word or the speaker's intention that makes the word different from other words.

The meaning of a word is a material that is studied in semantics. The meaning of the word is divided into several types. The types of meaning consist of: (i) cognitive meaning, (ii) ideational meaning, (iii) denotative meaning, (iv)) the meaning of the proposition (propositional meaning), while Shipley (in Pateda, 2001:96) argues that meaning has the following types: (i) emotive meaning, (ii) cognitive meaning or descriptive meaning. , (iii) referential meaning, (iv) pictorial meaning, (v) dictionary meaning, (vi) fringe meaning, and (vii) core meaning). Leech (in Chaer, 1989:61) distinguishes seven types of meaning, namely (1) conceptual meaning, (2) connotative meaning, (3) stylistic meaning, (4) affective meaning, (5) reflection meaning, (6) meaning collocative, (7) thematic meaning.

Based on the type of semantics, it can be distinguished between lexical meaning and grammatical meaning, based on the presence or absence of referents in a word/lexeme, it can be distinguished whether there is a referential meaning and non-referential meaning, based on the presence or absence of a sense value in a

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word/lexeme, it can be distinguished whether there is a denotative meaning and a connotative meaning. The accuracy of the meaning is known as the meaning of the word and the meaning of the term or general meaning and special meaning. Then based on other criteria or other points of view, it can be stated that there are associative, colocation, reflective, idiomatic meanings, and so on.

The types of meaning into twenty-nine, namely affective meaning is the meaning that arises as a result of the listener's or reader's reaction to the use of words or sentences, descriptive meaning which is also known as cognitive meaning or referential meaning is the meaning contained in each word, the meaning of extension is the meaning that includes all the characteristics of the object or concept (Oz, 2014), the emotive meaning is the meaning that arises as a result of the speaker's reaction or the speaker's attitude towards what what is thought or felt, gereflekter meaning is the meaning of words that are often associated with taboo words or expressions, grammatical meaning is meaning that arises as a result of the functioning of words in sentences, ideational meaning is meaning that arises due to the use of words that have concepts, intentional meaning is meaning that emphasize the speaker's intention, the special meaning is the meaning of the word or term h whose use is limited to certain fields, figurative meaning is the use of words whose meaning is not real, cognitive meaning is the meaning indicated by the reference, meaning of language elements that are very closely related to the world outside language, objects or ideas, and can be explained based on component analysis.

The next meaning is the meaning of collocation usually associated with the use of several words in the same environment, conceptual meaning is the meaning that is in accordance with the concept, construction meaning is the meaning contained in a linguistic construction, contextual meaning arises as a result of the relationship between speech and context, meaning Lexical is the meaning of a word when the word stands alone, either in the form of a lexeme or an affix whose meaning is more or less fixed, as can be read in certain language dictionaries, locutionary meanings, broad meanings indicate that the meaning contained in a word is wider than considered , pictorial meaning is the meaning that arises as a result of the listener's or reader's shadow of the word heard or read, propositional meaning is the meaning that arises when someone limits his understanding of something, central meaning is the meaning that each word has even though the word is not in the context of a sentence, m referential meaning is a meaning that is directly related to the reference pointed to by the word, narrow meaning is a narrow meaning in the whole speech, stylistic meaning is the meaning that arises from the use of language, textual meaning is the meaning that arises after someone reads the text as a whole, thematic meaning will be understood after being communicated by the speaker or writer through a sequence of words, the general meaning is the meaning that concerns the whole or all of it, does not involve a particular or particular, denotative meaning is the meaning of a word or group of words based on a straightforward relationship between a language and a

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form in the world. outside the language that is treated by the language unit appropriately, and connotative meaning is the meaning that arises as a result of the association of the language user's feelings towards the word heard or the word read.

Connotation or connotative meaning is also called connotational meaning, emotive meaning, or evaluative meaning. The connotative meaning partly occurs because the speaker wants to cause feelings of agreement or disagreement, happy or displeased, and so on on the listener's part, on the other hand the chosen word shows that the speaker also harbors the same feeling. Connotative meaning is also known as additional meaning. Connotative meaning arises as a result of the association of the language user's feelings towards the word heard or read.

Connotative meaning is the meaning of all the components in the word plus some basic values which usually function to mark. Aspects of the meaning of a word or group of words are based on feelings or thoughts that arise or are caused by the speaker (writer) and listener (reader). A word is said to have a connotative meaning if it has a "taste value", both positive and negative. If it has no taste, it is said to have no connotation. But it can also be called a neutral connotation (Pinker & Ullman, 2002). Two or more words that have the same denotative meaning can have different overall meanings due to people's views based on the values or cultural norms that apply in that society. For example, in the Javanese language, the words abdinipun, assistant, sambilhik, and batur have the same denotative meaning, but the two words have different taste values. The word abdini also has a higher sense of value than the auxiliary words, zathik, and batur. The connotative meaning arises as a result of the association of the language user's feelings towards the word heard or the word read (Saratsli et al., 2020).

The positive and negative sense of a word's value often also occurs as a result of using the word's referent as a symbol. If it is used as a symbol of something positive it will have a positive taste value, and if it is used as a symbol of something negative it will have a negative taste value. For example, because the eagle is used as a symbol of the state of the Republic of Indonesia, it has a positive value, while the connotative meaning that has a negative value is like a crocodile which is used as a symbol of crime. Even though the crocodiles themselves do not know anything that the Indonesian human world makes them bad symbols. Connotative meaning is meaning that is not real. For example, the word envelope in the sentence "diwenehi envelope wae ben your business is not finished", then the word envelope has a connotative meaning, which means give him money. The word envelope and money still have a relationship, because money can be filled in an envelope.

Based on some of the opinions above, it can be concluded that connotative meaning is a meaning that is not true, meaning that has undergone an addition to its basic meaning, which is only an addition that gives a sense of value, both positive and

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negative. The connotative meaning or connotation of the word refers to the figurative meaning or the non-true meaning. connotative meaning contains imagination, taste value, and meant to excite.

Dangerous connotations are words that are closely related to people's beliefs in magical things. At certain times in people's lives, we must be careful in speaking a word so that things don't happen that are not desirable, things that might bring harm. In certain conditions, speakers are prohibited from saying words that are considered taboo in any place. For example, if the speaker is in the middle of the forest, then indirectly he has been bound by the rules of speaking and issuing words. Unpleasant words such as ghosts, tigers, and dirty words or also words that are arrogant and arrogant are prohibited from being spoken in this condition, because if the rule is violated, it is believed that there will be a recompense for those who say it at that time.

Inappropriate connotations are words that are spoken inappropriately and get a sense of inappropriateness, because if they are spoken to other people, the other person will feel ashamed, feel ridiculed, and reproached. In addition, the speaker by society or his family is labeled as a person who is not polite. The use or pronunciation of words that have inappropriate connotations can offend feelings, especially the person who pronounces them is lower in dignity than the other person or object of the conversation.

Unpleasant connotations are one type of connotation or bad taste values that are closely related to social relations in society. There are a number of words that because they are usually used in relationships that are not or are not good, they are not pleasing to the ear and get a bad taste rating. Therefore, these words or expressions are avoided to keep the relationship harmonious and also to avoid the relationship getting worse. Based on this understanding, it can be seen that indicators of unpleasant connotations in a word are words that are not pleasing to the ear.

Rough connotations are words that sound harsh and get a rough taste. Harsh words are considered impolite when used in conversations with respected people. Rude connotations are usually also used by speakers who are having a high emotional level. As a result of this high emotional level, a speaker tends to issue harsh words. The meaning of connotation in a short story can add to the effect of beauty. The accuracy and suitability of the words used by the author in making a cerkak can create a lively impression and evoke imagination. The use of connotative meaning is able to produce additional images so that the abstract becomes concrete and makes the cerkak more beautiful and enjoyable to read. The use of words that have a connotative meaning in addition to beautifying will also enrich and channel meaning well. The connotative meaning is subjective in the sense that there is a shift from the general meaning (denotative) because there has been an addition of certain flavors and taste values (Seidenberg & Gonnerman, 2000; Singh et al., 2021). The meaning of

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connotation is very dependent on the context. Starting from some of the opinions above, it can be concluded that the connotative meaning is the meaning that has undergone additions to its basic meaning, namely only additions that give a sense of value, both positive and negative.

Conclusion

Phonetics is the study of the sounds of language. Based on the process of occurrence, phonetics can be divided into three types, namely; (1) Acoustic phonetics, namely studying the sound of language in the form of air vibrations and studying the frequency of sound vibrations, amplitude, intensity, and timbre; (2) auditory phonetics, namely studying how the mechanism of the ear receives sound as a result of vibrating air; (3) Articulatory phonetics is phonetics that studies how the mechanisms of human speech tools produce language sounds and classify language based on their articulation. The phoneme is the smallest unit of language sound that is functional, meaning that the unit has a function to distinguish meaning. Meanwhile, anonymization is an attempt to find sounds that function to differentiate the meaning. The morphological processes include (1) affixation, (2) reduplication, (3) internal change, (4) addition, and (3) empty modification (Sonnenstuhl et al., 1999; Tomasello, 2000). However, in Indonesian which is agglutinated, there is no data on morphological processes in the form of internal changes, additions, and blank modifications. So, the morphological process in Indonesian is only through affixation and reduplication. Morphology is a part of linguistics that discusses or studies the intricacies of word form and the effect of changes in word form on word groups and meanings, or in other words it can be said that morphology studies the intricacies of word forms and the function of changes in word form. iti, both grammatical and semantic functions. Semantics is one component of grammar (the other two components are syntax and phonology) and the meaning of sentences is largely determined by the semantic component (Yoon, 2017).

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