CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. A BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF SYNTACTICAL THEORY

2.1.1. The Understanding of Syntax

The origin of word “syntax” is from Middle French or Late Latin; Middle French sintaxe, Late Latin syntaxis.

There are many definitions about syntax can we found based on both linguists and dictionaries.

According to Miller (2002:12) syntax can be defined as follows: “syntax has to do with how words are put together to build phrases, with how phrases are put together to build sentences.” Many linguists stated that syntax is dealing with sentences, such as : Bryan (2009) says that syntax is the grammatical tool that deals with how sentences are put together and the relationship between words.

It is more clearly explained by Chomsky (1965) which says that syntax is the rules of sentence formation. Also, syntax represents the component of the mental grammar that represents speakers’ knowledge of the structure of phrases and sentences.

The definitions are definitely similar to some dictionaries:

“Syntax is the way in which words are put together to form phrase, clauses and/or sentences.” (Webster’s New College Dictionary, 1975)
“The arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language: the syntax of English” (OxfordDictionaries.com)

2.1.2. The Analysis of Syntactical Theory

In analyzing the elements and all parts of sentences, the writer uses tree diagram to portray the sentences structure in the object of this thesis. Tree diagram is a way to represent sentence structure in Transformational Generative Grammar by Noam Chomsky. These theories were first introduced in a book entitled Syntactic Structure which has published in 1957. According to him, one of the purposes of language research is to arrange the grammar of the language. Therefore, the task of grammar must be able to describe the relation of sound and meaning in a right and clear arrangement. By using tree diagram, the readers can see the hierarchy of the constituents (e.g: NP, VP) contain other smaller constituents. For example:

Randy bought an apple.

```
S
  NP
    V
      NP
        N
        Det
        N
```

Tree diagram, also known as analytical tree, systematic diagram or hierarchy diagram, are the structural representations of a topic. They convert ideas into chart and graphs. It is similar to the tree function. It consist of multiple choices or sub-parts,
which come under one broad category. Syntactic trees give a clear representation of the syntactic make up of a sentence (Wayne:2009). This tree diagram is useful for teachers and learners of a language.

Sentence structures that are portrayed in tree diagram can be drawn in two ways. According to Robert(1977:101) they are:

1. Top-down derivation of sentences.

2. Bottom-up diagramming of sentences.

In this thesis, the writer chose top-down derivation of sentences in drawing tree diagram. The rules are:

```
S    S    NP
NP    NP    VP        NP VP       ADV        NP     S
NP    NP    NP
Det      N  Det  N    S      S
```

![Diagrams](image)
2.2. THE BASIC STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH SYNTAX

2.2.1. Lexical Categories

2.2.1.1. Lexical Categories

In uttering a sentence, there are words that are different from one to the others. Such as: Melinda has been staying in Medan for 25 years. The sentence consists of some words. We will call these word classes **lexical categories** because the lexicon is the list of all the words in a language. There are four lexical categories (Language Files: 158), they are **noun, verb, adjective, and adverb**. While knowing these categories, it will give us more understanding about how to use it more properly by the explanation below.

**a. Noun**

In linguistics, A noun is a member of a large lexical category whose member can occur as the main word in the subject of a sentence, the object of a verb, or the object of a preposition.

Noun is a lexical category whose members all share the morphological property of having a plural form.

Noun is a word which: a) can occur as the subject or object of a verb or the object (complement) of a preposition, b) can be modified by adjective, c) can be used with a determiner. Nouns typically refer to people, animals, places, things, or
abstractions. (Jack Richard: 1985, P. 196). For example: **Mother** bought **apples** in the **supermarket**.

Noun can be classified into two types, namely:

1. **Concrete Nouns** are words for a physical object that can be perceived by our sense. We can see, touch, or smell it. Concrete noun can be classified into:
   - Proper Nouns, it is used to name a specific person, thing, place, or animals. Such as: Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono, Carrefour, Butet, etc.
   - Common Nouns: Student, grass, table, pen, wood, etc.
   - Collective Nouns, it refers to a group of people, animal, or object considered as a single unit such as audience, public, team, and so on.
   - Material Nouns refer to gold, iron, silver, steel, and so on.

2. **Abstract Nouns** refer to something with which a person cannot physically interact. Such as love, bravery, belief, progress, movement, and many others.

b. **Verb**

Verbs have traditionally been defined as words that show action or state of being. According to the object they are requiring, verbs can be:

1. Transitive Verb: Transitive verbs are action verbs that always express doable activities. These verbs always have direct objects, meaning someone or something receives the action of the verb. Such as: I **water** the flowers.
2. Intransitive Verbs: Intransitive verbs are action verbs that always express doable activities. No direct object follows an intransitive verb. For example:

He sat on the floor.

There are three types of verbs, they are:

- **Regular Verbs**: walk – walked – walked. It ends in –ed or -d

- **Irregular Verbs**: speak – spoke – spoken. The changes of its form cannot be guessed.

- **Linking Verbs**: express a state of being, such as appear, taste, etc.

c. Adjective

This part of speech is used to describe a noun or a pronoun. Adjectives can specify the quality, the size, and the number of nouns or pronouns. Adjectives are divided into four types, namely:

1. **Possessive Adjective**: We use possessive adjectives to show who owns or "possesses" something, they are: my, your, our, their, his, her, its, and whose (interrogative).

2. **Demonstrative adjective** is identical to a demonstrative pronoun, but it is used as adjectives to modify nouns or noun phrases.
3. **Interrogative Adjective**: It is similar to an interrogative pronoun (*which*, *what*, etc), but it modifies nouns or noun phrases rather than standing on its own.

4. **Indefinite Adjective** is similar to a indefinite pronoun. It modifies nouns and noun phrases.

d. **Adverb**

An adverb is used to modify a verb and sometimes an adjective. Commonly, adverbs are formed by Adj+ly, such as *wise+ly* become *wisely*, *quickly*, etc. But, there is also an adverbs that has a same form as the adjective, such as *fast*.

2.2.1.2. Closed Lexical Categories

**Closed classes** are sometimes known as **function words**. The members of closed classes, unlike the lexical categories discussed above, have little meaning outside of their grammatical purpose and are used to relate phrases of various types to other phrases. These classes are called “closed” because the addition of a new member to a closed category rarely occurs. The closed classes include *determiners*, *auxiliary verbs*, *prepositions* and *conjunctions*.

a. Determiners

Determiners often signal that a noun or adjective + noun is following, as in *the book, many blue pencils*. This class includes words like *a, the, many, several, few, some, all, and which*. 
b. Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs often indicate tense and aspect. Examples of auxiliary verbs are *may, might, can, could, shall, should, must* and forms of *do, have* and *be* that are used with another verb. For example; *I might go, I have gone, Did I go? and I am going.* Auxiliary verbs may also be followed by *not,* as in *will not* and *should not.*

c. Prepositions

Prepositions are words that relate noun phrases, or pronouns, with another part of the sentence. Prepositions are often followed by nouns. Examples of preposition are *on, above, in, at, against, during, for, before, over, bottom, of, beyond, during, under(neath), but, by, since, past, through(out), until, according to, as a consequence.*

d. Conjunctions

A conjunction is a word that connects other words or groups of words. In the sentence *Jeff and Bobby are friends* the conjunction *“and”* connect two nouns and in the sentence *He will drive or fly,* the conjunction *or* connects to verbs.

Coordinating conjunctions connect two independent clauses together, while subordinating conjunctions combine a subordinate to a principal element in the sentences. The coordinating conjunctions are easy to remember if you think of **FAN BOYS**. *For, And, Neither, But, Or, Yet, So,* while example of subordinating conjunctions are *as if, though, in order that, because, before, until, when, while, where, since, after, although, as much as, unless, than, that, how, if.*
e. Pronouns

Pronoun stands for replacing a noun. According to Burton (1986:54) pronoun can be divided into five types, they are:

1. Definite Pronoun: I/me, We/us, they/them, she/her, he/him, you, and it.
2. Indefinite Pronoun: some, something, someone, anything, anyone, somebody
3. Demonstrative pronoun: this, that, those, these.
4. Possessive Pronouns: My/mine, your/yours, their/theirs, our/ours, his, her/hers, its.
5. Interrogative Pronouns: who, which, what, where, whose, how.

f. Interjections

An interjection is a word or phrase used to exclaim, protest or command. These words or phrases can stand alone or be placed before or after a sentence. For example: 

*watch out! The dog is chasing you.*

2.2.2. Subcategories

Subcategory is a subdivide lexical categories into group of words that share common properties within a lexical category (Language Files: 172). Based on this book, some of the common subcategories within various lexical categories are:

2.2.2.1. Verbs

- *Intransitive Verb* (Vi) is a verb which does not take an object NP, such as *run, walk, sleep, sight,* and *sneeze.*
• *Transitive Verb* (Vt) is called transitive because it takes an object NP, for instance; *buy, meet, kill, throw*, and so on.

• *Ditransitive Verb* (Vdt) takes two NPs as its object, for example; *give, sell*, and *tell*.

• *Verb with Sentence Complements* (Vs) takes a following whole sentence (S). Some of them required a complementizer (COMP) plus a sentence; the words *that, if, and whether* are complementizers. For examples: The ancients *believe* (that) the earth was flat; The witnesses *say* (that) the light was red.

• *Linking verb* contains verbs such as *seem, appear, be, look, and become*.

2.2.2.2. Adjectives

According to the book, there are two kinds of adjective. They are **stative** and **nonstative** adjective. Both have a difference. Stative adjective (including *tall, blue, wooden*) refer to more permanent qualities, whereas nonstative ones (including *impatient, kind* and *angry*) denote more or less temporary or changeable qualities. There are syntactic differences between these two subcategories. Stative adjectives cannot occur in the following progressive such as; *you are being very kind*. But it can occurs in nonstative adjectives.

2.2.2.3. Nouns

Two important subcategories within the category of nouns are count and mass nouns. Count nouns denote objects that are countable units (e.g., *table, computer, pen*)
whereas mass nouns usually refer to uncountable nouns (e.g., water, sand, furniture).

A count noun can combine with determiners that make reference to numbers. In contrast, a singular mass noun can occur without any determiner at all, but singular count nouns cannot.

### 2.2.3. Phrasal Categories

A phrase is a group of word which forms a grammatical unit, a phrase does not contain a finite verb and does not have a subject-predicate structure (Richard, 1958:39). It is similar to what Reid (2000:209) said that A phrase is a group of words that is missing a subject, a verb, or both.

According to Jim a phrase is a slot in which one or more words can occur, or indeed in which other phrases can occur. A phrase does not have a subject or a verb, so it cannot stand alone as an independent unit. By the type of the head, phrases can be divided into:

a. Noun Phrase (NP) with a noun as the head. An NP can be used as the subject of a sentence (Language Files: 166), such as:

1. Some children like ice cream (NP’s as a direct object)

2. Harold likes some children. (NP’s as an indirect object)

b. Adjective Phrase (AP), with an adjective as the head, are often used to modify nouns and thus often appear as elements of noun phrases; for instance, a very expensive watch; anyone as tall as his father.
c. Adverbial Phrase (AdvP), with an adverb as the head, are often used to modify verbs and adjectives and adverbs, such as; *sleep soundly* (VP), *fiercely loyal* (AdjP).

d. Verb Phrase (VP), with a verb as the head, can be used as a predicate of a sentence. VPs can consist of a single V or a V plus other words (Language Files: 166) for examples are V+ADV (*will sleep soundly*) and V+NP+PP (*walked the dog through the park*).

e. Prepositional Phrase (PP), with a preposition as the head, always consists of a preposition plus an NP; *from Uganda, with Henny and friends, for nothing*, and so on. A PP can be constituent of a wide range of phrases (Language Files:167) for examples; *go to the movies* (VP), *my friend from Uganda* (NP), *angry with Henny and her pets* (ADJP), and so on.

### 2.2.4. Clauses

A typical clause consists of a subject and a predicate. Crystal (2001) stated *clause a term used in some models of grammar to refer to a unit in grammatical smaller than the sentence but larger than a phrase, word, or morpheme.* Jim (2002:6) also defined that the clause is a unit as a minimum consists as a verb and its complement and its adjunct. There are two types of clauses: independent and subordinate (dependent).

An independent clause consists of a subject and a verb and also demonstrates a complete thought. For example: *She is beautiful* while the dependent clause demonstrates an incomplete thought. For example: *If she became me.* Shortly, there
are three main types of dependent clause, they are; Noun clause, Adjectival clause and Adverbial clause.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Clauses Type of clauses</th>
<th>Subordinators</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Noun clauses</td>
<td>What, where, why, how, when, who, whom, which, whose, whether, if, that</td>
<td>Chietoz knows that his business will be successful. That there is a hole in the ozone layer of the earth’s atmosphere is well known.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Adjective Clauses</td>
<td>Who, whom, whose, which, that, where, when</td>
<td>Men who are not married are called bachelors. Last year we traveled to San Francisco, which is famous for its architecture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Adverb clauses</td>
<td>a. time When, before, after, until, since, as soon as</td>
<td>When Julandri won the money, he decided to donate it to church.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. place Where, wherever</td>
<td>Mom drove everywhere she wanted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. cause Because, as, since</td>
<td>Henny got a parking ticket because she parked illegally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. purpose So that, in order that</td>
<td>She got up late so that she left the train.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e. result So… that, such… that</td>
<td>He drove so fast that he got a speeding ticket.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f. condition If, unless</td>
<td>If she hadn’t won the lottery, she would have been very hopeless.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>g. concession Although, eventhough, though</td>
<td>Although she thought she was a good driver, she got a lot of tickets for speeding.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.2.5. Sentence

Sentence is the toppest class of syntax. O’grady et al (1993:595) stated that sentence is a syntactic unit consisting of a noun phrase and a verb phrase. Chomsky, in his Theory of Generative Grammar, has the basic idea that the sentence consists of a noun phrase (as subject) and verb phrase (as predicate). A sentence may come with one or more clauses. Example: I ran with my rear end pointed at him. The example beside called a sentence because it has at least a subject (I) and a predicate (ran).

According to Ann (2004:1) a sentence in standard written English has certain essential requirements:

- Each new sentence must begin with capital letter
- A sentence must end with a period, a question mark or an exclamation point.
- A sentence must contain standard word order.
- A sentence must have one independent core idea that can stand alone.

What has been described above is focused of linguist’s attention dealing with syntax, where in order to analyze sentence structures, specific methods and symbol has been introduced. The appearance of syntax tree diagram is from here, and it is utilized to perform the analysis.

2.2.5.1. Kinds of Sentence

Based on the purpose, sentences are divided into four, they are:
1. Declarative Sentence. Commonly, it makes a statement, such as *I’m home, Mom.*

2. Imperative Sentence is a kind of sentence that tells someone to do something, such as *stay at home until your brothers come.*

3. Interrogative Sentence is used to request information, such as *where did you find that key?*

4. Exclamatory Sentence is generally a more emphatic form of statement, such as *what a wonderful day it is!*

### 2.2.5.2. Forms of Sentence

Forms of sentences are classified based on the number and kind of clauses within sentences. As what has been explained about clauses above, there are two kinds of clauses. Independent Clauses and Dependent or Subordinate Clauses.

Independent clauses is when a subject and predicate can stand on its own as a sentence while Dependent clause is part of a sentence that cannot stand on its own, usually introduced by a subordinating conjunctions.

Another way to classify English sentences is by the number and the types of finite clauses. They are simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentence and compound-complex sentence.

- **A simple sentence** contains a single independent clause. For instance:

  1. *I don’t like dogs.*
2. Stanley and Greg are best friends. (Contain a compound subject).

3. David goes to Carefour and buys his needs every month.

- **A compound sentence** consists of more than one independent clauses with no dependent clauses that are joined together using conjunctions, such as for, nor, and, but, yet, so, or, punctuation or both. For instance:

  1. Herry likes horror movies but Nando likes action.

  2. Hillary is delligent, so she studies very hard everyday.

- **A complex sentence** contains one or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. The dependent clause starts with a subordinating conjunction, such as because, that, although, where, who, which, since, and so on.

  1. Dad sees the Warren kids outside in their front lawn every day on his way home from work when his carpool goes by their house.

  2. I washed the dishes after I ate breakfast.

  3. Whenever he sees a pretty sunset, Nathan wants to visit the beach.

- **A compound-complex sentence** contains at least two independent clauses and at least one subordinate clause. For example: *I would have purchased the cheese that you like, but it was too expensive.*
2.2.6. Phrase Structure Rules

Phrase structure (PS) rule is a rule that specifies how a syntactic constituent is formed out of other smaller syntactic constituent (O’Grady, et al., 1993:591). It is connected to tree diagram since the PS rules construct the wider composition of the sentence (S = NP + VP).

Some phrase structure rules based on Language Files’ book are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i.</td>
<td>S = NP (AUX) VP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii.</td>
<td>NP = DET (ADJP) N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>NP = PRO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>NP = Npr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.</td>
<td>NP = NP PP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>NP = NP (CONJ) NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vii.</td>
<td>NP = NP CONJ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viii.</td>
<td>VP = Aux V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ix.</td>
<td>VP = (please) V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x.</td>
<td>VP = Vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xi.</td>
<td>VP = Vt NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xii.</td>
<td>VP = Vdt NP NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiii.</td>
<td>VP = VP PP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiv.</td>
<td>ADJP = LINKING VERB ADJ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xv.</td>
<td>ADJP = ADV (CONJ) ADJ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xvi.</td>
<td>ADVP = ADV VERB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xvii.</td>
<td>ADVP = ADV ADVP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xviii.</td>
<td>PP = P NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xix.</td>
<td>S = S CONJ S</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3. THE RELATED STUDY

To accomplish this thesis entitled Analysis Of Sentence Structure On Kinney’s *Diary Of A wimpy Kid : The Last Straw*, I consulted some relevance study to this thesis. Ginting (2009) in her thesis entitled “An Analysis of Sentence Structure in Tennessee William’s A Street Car Named Desire” who used tree diagram stated that in Tennessee William play Street Car Named Desire the most occurred sentence type
is simple sentence; it is 54.96% or 205 sentences. Second, complex sentence; it is 29.69% or 107 sentences. Third, compound sentence; it is 9.38% or 35 sentences and the last is compound-complex sentence; it is 6.97% or 26 sentences.

According to Eva Savitry (1999) in her thesis entitled “An Analysis of English Sentence Structure Found in Time Magazines” there are five clauses or 6.3% from the total number of the data. In her thesis, the most occurred sentence type is simple sentence; it is 55.7% or 44 sentences. The second is compound sentence; it is 24.1% or 19 sentences. The third is complex; it is 10.1% or 8 sentences. The last is compound-complex; it is 3.8% or 3 sentences from the total number of the data.

Between my thesis and both of the previous theses, there are two similarities; we analyzed sentence structure and we also used Descriptive Qualitative method to make description accurately and systematically. The differences are the object to be analyzed here is a diary book and I analyze sentence structure portrayed in tree diagram.