# ENGLISH MORPHOSYNTAX


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**PT GLOBAL EKSEKUTIF TEKNOLOGI**

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## PREFACE

With all the praise and thanks to God the Almighty, for the blessing and grace for the author has completed this Book of English Morphosyntax. This book discusses about morphology and key concept, derivational morphemes, word classes, syntax and its key concept, phrase and clause categories and construction, syntactic structure, english sentence analyses using chinese box, sentences analysis tree diagram, theories in modern syntax.

The author would like to thank all those who have supported in the completion of this book. Especially those who have helped publish this book and have entrusted encouraged, and initiated the publication of this book. Hopefully this book can be useful for the people of Indonesia.

Padang, Juni 2023
Author

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# CHAPTER I
# MORPHOLOGY AND KEY CONCEPT

**By Susanto**

## 1.1 Definition Morphology

The term morphology is Greek and is a makeup of morph- meaning „shape, form‟, and-logy which means, the study of something‟. Morphology as a sub-discipline of linguistics was named for the first time in 1859 by the German linguist August Schleicher who used the term for the study of the form of words.

Morphology has been defined differently by variousscholars. According to O‟grady, morphology is as the study of analysis of word structure. Also as the system ofcategories and rules involved in word formation and in-terpretation. That means the study of word structure.[1] Hence, it can be conclude that morphology studies the patterns of formation of words by the combination of sounds into minimal distinctive units of meaning called morphemes. Generally Morphology is all about syntax ofwords. It is focused on the relative arrangement of morphemes in a word plus the principles and rule which de- termine such an arrangement.

## 1.2 Word

Word is the smallest free form found in a language. This contrasts deeply with a morpheme, which is the smallest unit of meaning but will not necessarily stand on its own. A word may consist of a single morpheme (for example: oh!, rock, red, quick, run, expect), or several (rocks, redness, quickly, running, unexpected), whereas a morpheme may not be able to stand on its own as a word(in the words just mentioned, these are -s, -ness, -ly, -ing,un-, -ed).

Leonard Bloomfield introduced the concept of "Minimal Free Forms" in 1926. Words are thought of asthe smallest meaningful unit of speech that can stand by themselves.[2] This correlates phonemes (units of sound) to lexemes (units of meaning). However, some writtenwords are not minimal free forms as they make no senseby themselves (for example, the, and, of). Free form re- fers to an element that can occur in isolation and whose position in relation to the nearest elements is not entirelyfixed. Why not fixed? Sentences usually have got different status e.g. negative, interrogative, positive (affirmative).

a) They are happy.

b) They are not happy

c) Are they happy?

The verb and the subject have exchanged the posi- tions. Basically there are two types of words. Words aredivided into some kinds:

a. Simple Words

These are made up of a single morpheme which cannot be segmented further into smaller meaningful units. I.e. simple words are not decomposable e.g. tree, car, house, go, etc.

b. Complex Words

These are made up of two or more morphemeswhich can be segmented further into smaller meaningfulunits. E.g. inter-nation-al-ly. = internationally. A word can be viewed as:

1) A Lexeme

A lexeme is an abstract vocabulary item listed in a dictionary. Why abstract? Because, it is not in the context. A lexeme exists in different forms which do not share the same syntactic context in a syntactic structure. That means these forms are mutually exclusive. For example,

where one occurs the other cannot occur. (Lexemes are written in capital letters). Example:

JUMP- jump

Jumps

Jumping word-formsJumped

TALL= tall, taller, tallest BOY= boy, boys

Technically, word forms are different physical realization/representation/manifestation of a particular lex- eme.

2) A Grammatical Word

A Grammatical Word is a representation of a lexeme that is associated with certain morpho-syntactic proper- ties (i.e. partly morphological and partly syntactic proper- ties) such as noun, verb, adjective, tense, gender, number etc. A Word Form realizes lexemes. A single word formmay represent different grammatical words.

a) He cut the flowers. (PRETERITE)

b) He has cut the flowers. (PAST PRETERITE)

c) He will cut the flowers. (INFINITIVE)

### 1.3 Word-Form

Words forms are the different ways a word can existin the context of a language. Many words exist as nouns, verbs or adjectives and change when prefixes or suffixes are added. For example, the words beautify, beautiful and beautifully are the verb, adjective and adverb forms of the noun beauty, but they are not interchangeable when usedin a sentence. There are two classes of Word-Forms:

a. The first consists of words which are phonetically sim-ilar and have got a common root morpheme. E.g.
PLAY=play, playing, plays, played

b. The second consists of the words that are phonetically dissimilar and do not share the same root morpheme.
E.g. GOOD=good- better- best, BAD=bad- worse-worst.

1) Suppletion

The situation where the word forms do not have a common root morpheme and are phonetically dissimilar is called SUPPLETION. In suppletion a total word is affected. But, whether the word forms are phonetically similar or not they have one feature in common. i.e. they share the same meaning. E.g. if thelexeme is an adjective, the word-forms may be adjec- tives but at different degrees.

2) Internal Change

Internal Change is the process in which a non-morphemic segment (phoneme) substitutes another non-morphemic segment in a particular context. Suppletion does not just take place haphazardly. Internal Change is normally manifested in irregular past tense formation and irregular plural formation in English

Language. For Stewart and Vaillet Internal Change is a word formation process wherein a word changes internally to indicate grammatical information (e.g. the English plurals and past tense). For example:

a) Take /teɪk/ -took/tʊk/ man /mæn/- men /men/
b) See /si:/ - saw /sɔ:/ foot /fʊt/- feet. /fi:t/ Further confusion
c) Seek /si:k/ sought /sɔ:t/
d) Think /Θɪŋk/ thought / Θɔ:t/

In the above examples two segments have been affected. This is called an Extreme Form of Internal Change.[3] O‟grady (1997:142) calls it Partial Suppletion.

**1.4 Word Structure**

Representation of a word structure. There are two basic approaches of representing the structure of a word.

a. Hyphenic-Approach

It shows the morphemic boundaries in a word by us-ing a hyphen.

1) Dis-establish-ment-al-ism =disestablishmentalism

2) Inter-nation-al-ity = internationality

b. Tree Structure Approach

It shows the details of the words internal organization.

E.g. mismanagementBefore applying a tree structure ask yourself about

a) A word class

b) Constituent parts

c) The core part (lexical)

d) Word class of the core part

E.g. mismanagement Morpheme

a) Morpheme is the smallest indivisible unit in a word. It is a word building block. It cannot be segmentedfurther into smaller meaningful units. A morpheme can be a word. Example free morphemes like door,car, house, etc.

b) Morpheme therefore is the smallest indivisible unit of semantic content or grammatical functions with which words are made up. By definition a mor- pheme cannot be decomposed into smaller units which are either meaningful by themselves or marka grammatical function like singular or plural num- ber in the noun. Katamba (2006:20).

a. Additionally, he defines Morpheme as the smallest difference in the shape of a word that correlates with the smallest difference in word or sentence meaning or grammatical structure. (2006:24)

b. Morpheme is a smallest linguistic unit that can have a

meaning or grammatical function. Stewart and Vaillet (2001)

Traditionally, there are two types of Morphemes

1) Free Morphemes

These have a tendency of standing alone and theyare of two categories.

a) Lexical Morphemes

These do carry most of the semantic content ofthe utterance. E.g. Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, and Adverbs.

b) Functional Morphemes

These do signal grammatical information in a sentence. They also perform a logical function.

E.g. Articles, Conjunctions, Pronouns, Demonstratives, Prepositions etc

2) Bound Morphemes

Bound morphemes –in nature –cannot stand alone. They must be attached to root, stem or bases. In most cases bound morphemes are affixes (prefixes,infixes, and suffixes)

There are affixes that can change the word class ofa particular word together with its meaning. These are termed as Derivational Affixes/Morphemes

Eg work+er = worker

Teach +er = teacher V=teach N=teacher

There are affixes that do not change the word class,but they simply encode different grammatical func- tions like tense, number etc. These are called *Inflec- tional Morphemes/Affixes*

Tall+er = Taller

Adj= tall adj= taller

Katamba (1993, 2006) has come with a comple- mentary view of categorizing morphemes. Accord- ing to him Morphemes must be in 4 categories.

(a) Roots

A root is a core part of a word, the word which must be lexical in nature. A root must exist independent of affixes. A root cannot be segmented further into smaller meaningful units. A root must always be a lexical category. In most cases the root must be a word.

A root therefore is an irreducible core part of a word with absolutely nothing else attached to it. A traditional thinking is that all roots are free morphemes but currently all roots are not necessarily free morphemes, there are also bound roots.

Bound roots are foreign in origin and most of themare Latinate. These cannot stand alone unless theyare attached to other elements. For example:

1) -mit = submit, transmit, commit
2) -ceive = receive, perceive, conceive
3) Pred- = predator, predatory, predation
4) Sed- = sedentary., sedent, sediment

(b) Affixes

An affix is a morpheme that only occurs when at- tached to some other morpheme or morphemes such as roots or stems or bases. Prefix-is an affix attached before the root, base or stem like re-, un-in-, as in, re-write, un-kind, in-accurate. Suffix –isan affix attached after the a root (or stem or base) like –ly, -er, -ist, -ing, -s, etc. as in kind-ly, teach-er, typ-ist, etc.

Infixes – infixes are not common in English language. They are common in infixing languages like Semitic language like Arabic and Hebrew. In Semit-ic languages the major word formation process is infixation. A morpheme or an element is inserted in the root itself. Infixation still happens in contem-

(c) Stems

A stem is a part of a word that exists before any in-flectional affix. It is a right candidate with a possibility of receiving inflectional affixes. Stems can be best captured within the field of Inflectional Morphology. E.g. teacher-teachers, play-playing.

(d) Bases

A base is any unit to which all kinds of affixes canbe added. i.e. Bases can accept derivational and in-flectional Morphemes. That‟s why it is said that all roots are bases but all bases are not roots. The reasons for such a claim are:

1) A root by nature can accept either inflectional or derivational morphemes.
2) Some bases can be segmented further into smaller meaningful units (unlike roots)
   Examples:
   1) Careful = -root, -stem, +base
   2) Read = +root, +stem, +base
   3) Worker = -root, +stem, +base
   4) Dog = +root, +stem, +base
   5) Faith= +root +/-stem, +base

## 1.5 Lexeme

A lexeme /ˈlɛksiːm/ is a unit of lexical meaning that exists regardless of the number of inflectional endings itmay have or the number of words it may contain. It is a basic abstract unit of

meaning.[5] Put more technically, a lexeme is an abstract unit of morphological analysis in linguistics, that roughly corresponds to a set of forms taken by a single word. For example, in English, run, runs, ran and running are forms of the same lexeme, which we may represent as run. A related concept is thelemma (or citation form), which is a particular form of alexeme that is chosen by convention to represent a ca- nonical form of a lexeme. Lemmas, being a subset of lex-emes, are likewise used in dictionaries as the headwords,and other forms of a lexeme are often listed later in the entry if they are not common conjugations of that word.

A lexeme belongs to a particular syntactic category,has a certain meaning (semantic value), and in inflectinglanguages, has a corresponding inflectional paradigm; that is, a lexeme in many languages will have many differentforms. For example, the lexeme RUN has a present thirdperson singular form runs, a present non-third person singular form run (which also functions as the past participle and nonfinite form), a past form ran, and a present participle running. (It does not include runner, runners, runnable, etc.) The use of the forms of a lexeme is gov- erned by rules of grammar; in the case of English verbs such as RUN, these include subject-verb agreement and compound tense rules, which determine which form of averb can be used in a A lexicon consists of lexemes. A lexeme consists of morphemes. given sentence.

In many formal theories of language, lexemes have sub-categorization frames to account for the number and types of complements. They occur within sentences and other syntactic structures.

The notion of a lexeme is very central to morpholo-gy, and thus, many other notions can be defined in termsof it. For example, the difference between inflection andderivation can be stated in terms of lexemes:

1. Inflectional rules relate a lexeme to its forms.
2. Derivational rules relate a lexeme to another lexeme.

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# CHAPTER II
# DERIVATIONAL MORPHEMES

**By Nike Puspita Wanodyatama**

A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning we have – that is, the smallest piece of a word that contributes meaning to a word. Example: The word trainings has three morphemes in it: *train-ing-s.* To break a word into morphemes, try starting at the beginning of the word and seeing how far into the word you need to go to find a sub-part of the word that has some meaning. For example, in the word unbreakable, the first two letters un- are independently meaningful in a way that just the first letter, u-, is not – un- means something like „ not (whatever)", and changes the meaning of the word it attaches to in a predictable way; sub-parts of un-, like u- or –n-, don't have this property. This means that un- is a morpheme.

(Guanabara et al., 2019) states that Morphemes are segments of the grammatical word which represent choices from a set of options forming a grammatical category. As an example let us see the article "a" and "an". We see that both "a" and "an" (and the other. Morphemes are segments of the grammatical word which represent choices from a set of options forming a grammatical category.

A morpheme can be defined as a minimal unit having more or less constant meaning and more of less constant form. For example, linguists say that the word buyers is made up of three morphemes {buy}+{er}+{s}. The evidence for this is that each can occur in other combinations of morphemes without changing its meaning. We can find {buy} in buying, buys, and {er} in seller,

fisher, as well as buyer. And {s} can be found in boys, girls, and dogs.

Morphemes can be either inflectional or derivational, meaning they can form new words or add inflection to existing words. The simple definition is that derivational morphemes are those that derive new words. It would be difficult to create an exhaustive list of the examples and types of derivational morphemes, as they are one of the most productive way to create new words in the English language.

Many words are derived by adding a morpheme, a letter or a cluster of letters. A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of language. The key to morphemes is that they must carry some sort of significance. Morpheme serves as a foundation in English.

For example, as an example, the word "unjustifiable" consists of three morphemes.

*Un + justify + able*

Where, *'un-*' is a prefix meaning "not" and in this example it is used to negate the adjective “justifiable”. The suffix '*-able*', is used to form adjectives which are usually placed at the end of verbs such as - '*useable*', '*lovable*', '*deniable*'. The three morphemes ('un', 'justify' and 'able') in the word "*unjustifiable*" are indivisible if we divide them any further, the word loses its meaning. How are Morphemes Formed? A morpheme can be a root (word root) or an affix (affix, whether it's a prefix alias affix that comes before the root [prefix], middle suffix [infix], or suffix [suffix]). Morpheme can also be a combination of root and affix. You can learn about affixes in the article Definition and Types of Forms of Affixes, then there is the article Definition & Types of Forms of Suffix for an explanation of suffixes. How many types of morphemes are there in English? Broadly speaking, morphemes are divided into two types, namely free morphemes and bound morphemes.

## 2.1 Types of Morphemes

Morphemes are either free or bound and are used as prefixes, suffixes, roots, and bases in words. A free morpheme is a stand-alone word, like "*dog*." "*Dog*" cannot be broken into smaller morphemes without losing the word's meaning. Bound morphemes cannot stand by themselves as words, such as the -s in the word "pens."

Derivational and inflectional morphemes are bound morphemes. Root and base words are morphemes that form the base or root of a word. A prefix morpheme attaches to the front of a root or base morpheme, while a suffix will connect to the end. Inflectional morphemes are suffixes, and derivational morphemes can be prefixes or suffixes. When free morphemes are combined, they form compound words. Complex words are created by forming base or root morphemes with derivational morphemes.

### 2.1.1 Free Morphemes

Free morphemes can stand alone, whereas bound morphemes must be attached to another morpheme to get their meaning. The two categories of free morphemes are lexical morphemes and grammatical/functional morphemes. Lexical morphemes are independently meaningful. Many of these morphemes exist, such as the word cat. This word is a lexical morpheme because it can stand alone and contains its meaning. The words "*and," "but," "or," "after," "that," "the,"* and *"she"* are examples of grammatical/functional morphemes. These morphemes contain functional words like pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and determiners. The word "catfish" is an example of combing two free morphemes, "cat" and "fish," together to create a new compound word.

Some examples of lexical morphemes include:

- *Night* - The word "night" can stand by itself and hold its meaning.
- *Dog* - The meaning of the word "dog" is clear.
- *Girl* - The word "girl" stands by itself and cannot be cut into smaller morphemes.
- *Ball* - The word "ball" clearly contains its meaning.
- *Play* - No smaller morphemes can be made by cutting up the word "play."
- *Joke* - "Joke" cannot be cut into smaller words and retain its meaning.

### 2.1.2 Bound Morphemes

Bound morphemes are morphemes that cannot stand alone and only occur as parts of words. Unlike free morphemes, bound morphemes must be connected to another morpheme to create a word. Both derivational and inflectional morphemes are bound morphemes. The -s suffix in "pictures" is an example of a bound morpheme. Another example of a bound morpheme is -ish, as in "childish." Some common bound morpheme suffixes are *-ly, -ic, -ness, -ian* and *-less*. Bound morpheme prefixes examples *dis-, uni-, di, pre-,* and *poly-*.

Bound morphemes are also referred to as affixes, among which there are prefixes, infixes, and suffixes. (Astuti et al., 2021) Bound Morphemes are the opposites of Free Morphemes. They are morphemes that cannot stand alone, that is, they cannot exist independently without being joined or added to another morpheme. Examples include: *-ish, -ness, -ation, -tion, -ism, -al, -er, -s, -en, -ed, etc*. When you look at the following words, they are combinations of both free and bound morphemes: *foolishness, bookish, naturalisation, farmer, does, bags, taken, expected, etc*.

Bound Morphemes are called Affixes in English. Affixes are also Bound Morphemes. The word "*undressed*" has two affixes, "*un*" and "ed" joined to the free morpheme "dress". The same thing goes for the word "carelessness" which has two affixes, "less" and "ness" attached to the base or root word "care". There are also bound morphemes, which are those forms that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form, exemplified as re-, -ist, -ed, -s. When they are used with bound morphemes attached the basic word forms are technically known as stems. For example:

| **Word** | **Free Morpheme** | **Bound Morpheme** |
|---|---|---|
| Walks | Walk | -s |
| Unhappy | Happy | Un- |
| Walked | Walk | -ed |
| Houses | House | -s |
| Disagree | Agree | Dis- |

a. Affixes are bound morpheme. Affixes are classified according to whether they are attached before or after the form to which they are added. Prefixes are attached before and suffixes after. The bound morphemes listed earlier are all suffixes; the {re-} of resaw is a prefixes. In English it classified as prefixes and suffixes.
b. Prefixes and suffixes are grammatical affixes. Prefixes come before the root word, and suffixes come after. In very simplistic terms, prefixes change the meaning of words, and suffixes change their form, including plural, tense, comparative, and part of speech.

Example: prefixes- change the meaning of words.

| Prefixes | Meaning | Example |
|---|---|---|
| Un- | Not | Unhappy, unsuccessful, unable |
| Re- | Again | Redo, return, reappear |
| Inter- | Between | International, internet, intermission |
| Non- | Not | Nonsense, nonfiction, nonviolent |
| Pre- | before | Predawn, prefixes, precaution |
| Poly- | Many | Polygamy, polyester, polyglot |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Sub- | Under | Submarine, subordinate |
| Co- | Together | Cooperate, collaborate, coordi- |
| | | nate |

| Form | Suffix | Meaning | Examples |
|---|---|---|---|
| Noun | -age | Action or process | Marriage, voyage, pilgrimage |
| | -ance | State or quality of | Violence, absence, reticence |

| Form | Suffix | Meaning | Examples |
|---|---|---|---|
| | -ant | One who | Servant, immigrant, assistant |
| Adjective | -able | Is, can, be | Comfortable. Durable, perishable |
| | -ic | Characteristic of | Comic, po-etic, historic |
| | -y | Characteristic of | Fruity, sunny, chewy |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Verb | -ble | Repeated action | Stumble, squabble. Mumble |
| | -ed | Past tense | Wanted, |
| | | | hated, looted |
| Adverb | -ly | Resembling | Slowly, kindly, seriously |
| | -ward | Direction | Forward, backward |

There are two types of bound morphemes; inflectional morphemes and derivational morphemes.

## 1. Inflectional Morphemes

(Fromkin et al., 2003) explains an inflectional morpheme is a letter, or group of letters, that adds grammatical information to a word. Inflectional morphemes have meaning of their own, but they don't significantly alter the meaning of the base word to which they're attached. A base word and an inflectional morpheme work together to enhance the meaning of a word in some way. Inflectional morphemes are suffixes that get added to a word, thus, adding a grammatical value to it. It can assign a tense, a number, a comparison, or a possession. Here are some examples of inflectional morphemes.

- Plural: Bikes, Cars, Trucks, Lions, Monkeys, Buses, Matches, Classes
- Possessive: Boy's, Girl's, Man's, Mark's, Robert's, Samantha's, Teacher's, Officer's
- Tense: cooked, played, marked, waited, watched, roasted, grilled; sang, drank, drove
- Comparison: Faster, Slower, Quicker, Taller, Higher, Shorter, Smaller, Weaker, Stronger, Sharper, Bigger
- Superlative: Fastest, Slowest, Quickest, Tallest, Highest, Shortest, Smallest, Biggest, Weakest, Strongest, Sharpest

Inflectional morphemes are suffixes, which is a type of affix. An affix is a group of letters attached to either the beginning (prefix) or end (suffix) of a base word. Here are a few suffixes that are inflectional morphemes:

| Base word | Affix | Inflected word |
|---|---|---|
| Talk | -ed | Talked |
| Bark | -ing | Barking |
| Rest | -s | Rests |
| Clean | -est | Cleanest |

The significance of the cluster of letters is why they're categorized as morphemes. Each carries its own meaning, which can alter a grammatical aspect of the sentence (such as showing tense or plurality).

## 2. Derivational Morphemes

Derivational morphemes are the prefixes or suffixes added to a word to give the word a new meaning. In the word "unhappy," the un- prefix changes the meaning of the word "happy." Another example is "lovely." The suffix -ly changes the meaning of the word "love." Here are some examples of derivational morphemes:

- Teach*er* - Adding the suffix -*er* to teach changes the meaning to "someone who teaches."
- Hope*ful* - Adding the suffix -*ful* to hope changes the meaning to "full of hope."
- Friend*less* - Adding the suffix -*less* to friend changes the meaning to "no friends."

- *Un*clean - Adding the prefix *un-* to clean changes the meaning to "not clean."
- Emotion*less* - Adding the suffix *-less* to emotion changes the meaning to "without emotions. "
- *Un*play*able* - This word has two derivational morphemes: the prefix *un-* and the suffix *-able*. "Unplayable" and "play" have different meanings.

A derivational morpheme is an affix that derives a new word or a new form of an existing word. An affix is a letter or group of letters we attach to the beginning (prefix) or end (suffix) of a root word. Here are some of the more common affixes in the English language.

| **Prefix** | **Suffix** |
|---|---|
| Un- | -ing |
| Be- | -ness |
| Anti- | -ly |
| De- | -ate |
| Mis- | -ful |
| Over- | -y |

Derivational morphemes, whether prefixes or suffixes, usually change word class when added to a word (though not always).

*Bounty (noun) + ful = bountiful (adjective)*

In this example, we can see that the derivational morpheme -ful changes the noun, bounty, to the adjective, bountiful.

Derivational morphemes cannot be a word in their own right, though, because they are bound morphemes. Bound morphemes must be bound to another word or morpheme to create a word. Bound morphemes are those that can never stand alone as a word—as opposed to free morphemes, which can be independent words. A few examples of free morphemes are words such as eat, big, and ocean, while bound morphemes are affixes like *-ment*, *im-*, and *-ify*.

There are many examples of derivational morphemes in the English language. Interestingly, there is no theoretical limit to how many derivational morphemes you can add to a word. For example, think of the word "proportion"; it's a noun meaning the size or shape of something relative to its whole. Add the suffix -ate, and the word is now "proportionate," referring to something that is equal in size or shape relative to its whole. But if something is not proportionate, you could add the prefix dis- to get the word "disproportionate." If you wanted to describe something that is disproportionate, you simply add the suffix *-ly* to get "disproportionately."

Each time we added an affix, the word changed significantly; whether changing word class, as it does when you add *-ly* to get an adverb, or simply negating the base word with dis- to derive disproportionate.

Other morphologically complex words:

- *Compute + ate + ion + al = computational*
- *Interest + ing + ly = interestingly*

- *Multi + million + aire + s = multimillionaires*

There are more instances of derivational morphemes changing the word class of the word to which they're added. Below is a list of class-changing derivational morphemes. In these examples, the noun changes to a verb with the addition of the derivational morphemes.

| **Noun** | **Affix** | **Verb** |
|---|---|---|
| Affection | -ate | Affectionate |
| Fright | -en | Frighten |
| Terror | -ify | Terrify |
| Empathy | -ise/ ize | Empathize |

- Below are examples of verbs changing to adjectives with derivational morphemes:

| **Verb** | **Affix** | **Adjective** |
|---|---|---|
| Laugh | -able | Laughable |
| Create | -ive | Creative |
| Lift | -less | Liftless |

- Derivational morphemes can also change verbs to nouns (*track/tracker*), nouns to adjectives (*boy/boyish*), and so on.

## 2.2 Inflectional vs. Derivational Morphemes

There are two types of bound morphemes: inflectional morphemes and derivational morphemes. The difference between derivational and inflectional morphemes is that inflectional morphemes signal a change in a base word's grammatical form, e.g., its number, gender, person, or tense. Notice how the following inflectional morphemes alter the words in each case:

*Notice + ed = noticed*

*Plain + er = plainer*

*Nice + est = nicest*

*Crease +s = creases*

*Broke + en = broken*

*Lack + ing = lacking*

An inflectional morpheme was added to each word, but it did not alter the word's class. In other words, the nouns remained nouns (*crease/ creases*), the adjectives remained adjectives (*nice/nicest*), and the verbs remained verbs (*noticed/noticed*). Instead, the inflectional morphemes simply changed the words' form to reflect tense, aspect, number, superlative form and so on.

By contrast, derivational morphemes influence the base word to such a degree that it becomes a new word entirely. That new word may, of course, be related to the original in meaning, but it is a new word nonetheless.

List of Class-Changing Derivational Morphemes

There are more instances of derivational morphemes changing the word class of the word to which they're added. Below is a list of class-changing derivational morphemes. In these examples, the noun changes to a verb with the addition of the derivational morphemes.

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Derivational morphemes can also change verbs to nouns (*track/tracker*), nouns to adjectives (*boy/boyish*), and so on.

**Class-Maintaining Derivational Morphemes**

(Michael McCarthy, 2002) as mentioned, derivational morphemes don't always change the word class; those that don't are called class-maintaining derivational morphemes. Here's an example where the word class stays the same with the addition of a derivational morpheme:

friend (noun) + ship = friendship (noun)

Even though the words friend and friendship are both nouns, they are separate words with different meanings; they cannot be used interchangeably. Derivational morphemes always change either the semantic meaning of a word or the part of speech. In the case of class-maintaining derivational morphemes,

only the meaning changes. Here are some common class-maintaining derivational morphemes:

- -ship (e.g., friendship)
- Ex- (e.g., ex-cop)
- -hood (e.g., boyhood)
- Dis- (e.g., disengage)
- Un- (e.g., unlock)

**Derivational Morpheme Examples**

There are many examples of derivational morphemes in the English language. Interestingly, there is no theoretical limit to how many derivational morphemes you can add to a word. For example, think of the word "proportion"; it's a noun meaning the size or shape of something relative to its whole. Add the suffix -ate, and the word is now "proportionate," referring to something that is equal in size or shape relative to its whole. But if something is not proportionate, you could add the prefix dis- to get the word "disproportionate." If you wanted to describe something that is disproportionate, you simply add the suffix -ly to get "disproportionately."

Each time we added an affix, the word changed significantly; whether changing word class, as it does when you add -ly to get an adverb, or simply negating the base word with dis- to derive disproportionate. Other morphologically complex words:

- *Compute + ate + ion + al = computational*
- *Interest + ing + ly = interestingly*
- *Multi + million + aire + s = multimillionaires*

A derivational morpheme is an affix that derives a new word or a new form of an existing word. Derivational morphemes are either class-maintaining (meaning the word class stays the same with the addition of the morpheme) or class-changing

(which means the word class changes with the morpheme). Morphemes are either bound or free.

There are two types of bound morphemes: derivational and inflectional:

- Inflectional morphemes don't change the word class of the base word
- Derivational morphemes can change the word class of the base word

**Questions:**

1. What is the definition of Morpheme?
2. What is the definition of Free Morpheme?
3. What is the differences between Free Morpheme and Bound Morpheme?
4. In the word below, please identify the suffixes by underlining them!

    a. Happiness

    b. Unkind

    c. Freedom

    d. Flowers

5. Some of word below contain prefixes, identify the prefixes by underlining them!

    a. Unable

    b. Discourage

    c. Establish

    d. Strawberry

6. Divide the following words by placing a + between their morphemes!

   Example: replaces = re + place + s

   a. Retroactive

   b. Psychology

   c. Grandmother

   d. Mistreatment

7. Identify the bound and free morphemes in the following:

   a. Playground

   b. Quickly

   c. Generally

   d. Bathroom

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# CHAPTER III
# WORD CLASSES

**By Enni Efrida Nasution**

## 3.1 Introduction

The language is consisted of thousand words with type or different class between one another (*Modul Bahasa Inggris Untuk Perguruan Tinggi.Pdf*, n.d.). Word means a speech sound or combination of sound having a particular meaning or an idea, object or thought and has a spoken or written form (*Parts of Speech in English Grammar (1).Docx*, n.d. Thus, the words are classified into several different types of words. Word classes (part of speech) are essential for grammatical for any grammatical description, even though we can never really be entirely sure what nature is (Aarts & Haegeman, 2006).

The linguistics agree that word classes or part of speech divided into seven part (Aarts & Haegeman, 2006). Another expert in English Grammar said that there are ten words classes or parts of speech (*Isb309093.Docx*, n.d.). But, in another reference there are four parts of speech (*Modul Bahasa Inggris Untuk Perguruan Tinggi.Pdf*, n.d.). Another thing, in Concise Guide English Grammar said there are nine parts of speech (*Parts of Speech in English Grammar (1).Docx*, n.d.). In this book chapter, there are nine parts of speech will be discussed in the next sub chapter they are; 1) Noun, 2) Pronoun, 3) Verb, 4) Adverb, 5) Adjective, 6) Preposition, 7) Conjunction, 8) Interjection, 9) Determiners.

## 3.2 Part of Speech

Part of speech consists of nine parts they are, 1) Noun, 2) Pronoun, 3) Verb, 4) Adverb, 5) Adjective, 6) Preposition, 7) Conjunction, 8) Interjection, 9) Determines. Detail explanation will be discussed in the next sub.

### 3.2.1. Noun

Noun in a simple term are "things".. So, we can defines noun is a person, place, or thing (*Modul-Basic_English_Grammar.Pdf*, n.d.). Everything is donated by a name and that naming word is called "noun". Often a noun will be the name for something we can touch (e,g; pen, scissor, etc), but, sometimes a noun will be the name for something we cannot touch (e.g; truth, determinism, etc). The example of noun as below:

- Poeple : Yanti, Ali, driver
- Animals : duck, cat
- Places : City, Street
- Object : pencil, pen
- Quality : Boldness, Sorrow
- Actions : Running, writing, Listening

**Kinds of Noun**

There are ten types of noun ( *Parts of Speech in English Grammar (1).Docx*, n.d.-b): they are :

1) Proper Noun ; proper noun is given name of a person, or specific place or thing. A proper noun is always star with capital letter. Name of all persons, name of countries, days, months, oceans is called proper noun. (e.g : Imran, Maroko, Atlantic, Saturday, January, etc.)
2) Common Noun ; is a word refer to a common noun and not-specific. If the common noun refer specifically, it can turn into proper noun. (e.g: pen, man, pencil, etc).
3) Concrete Noun ; All things that we can see or touch physically. (e.g : Pen, Tree, Table)
4) Abstract Noun ; All things you cannot touch or see. Abstract Noun do not physical existance. These nouns are difficult to guess, e.g : Happiness, joy, determination.
5) Collective Noun ; means collective noun refers to a group's collection or multitude things, e.g: Army, team, etc.

6) Compound Noun is consist of more than one word.(e.g : Play-off, table-cloth, etc).
7) Countable Noun is a noun can be counted in number like four books, two pencils, etc.
8) Uncountable Noun means a noun without a plural form, e,g : sugar, water. All abstract noun included into Uncountabel Noun.
9) Gerund Noun is a Noun that end-ing and that represent actions, ( e.g: Ali like reading).
10) Gender-Specific Noun refer to distinguish male or female. (e.g: Queen, Actor, Actress).
11) Verbal Noun means Noun derived from verb that do not have-verb like properties. (e.g: drawing, building, etc).

### 3.2.2 Pronoun

Pronoun is a word replace a noun in a sentence. It take place of a noun (*Parts of Speech in English Grammar (1).Docx*, n.d.-b). There are many types of Pronoun, as below:

a) Personal Pronoun refers to a person of name. There are two personal pronouns, that's **subject pronoun and object pronoun. (look at the following table).**

| **Subject pronoun** | **Object Pronoun** |
|---|---|
| I | Me |
| We | Us |
| You | You |
| They | Them |
| She | Her |
| He | Him |
| It | It |

b) **Possessive Pronoun** refers to ownership and possession in a sentence. We can see in the table below :

| Subject pronoun | Possessive Pronoun |
|---|---|
| I | Mine |
| We | Ours |
| You | Yours |
| They | Theirs |
| She | Hers |
| He | His |
| It | Its |

c) Indefinite Pronoun refers to something that in not definite in a sentence, they do not refer to particular thing or person. There are two types of indefinite Pronoun they are Singular Indefinite Pronoun and Plural Indefinite Pronoun. (e.g ; see in the table below).

| | |
|---|---|
| Singular Indefinite Pronoun | e.g : someone, somebody, something, no one, nobody, nothing, everyone, everybody, everything, anybody, another, anyone, each, anything, either, other, one, neither, and much. |
| Plural Indefinite Pronoun | e.g : many, several, few, others, and both. |

d) Relative Pronoun ; relative Pronoun means a pronoun that relates the relative clause to another clause within a sentence. E.g: Whom, whoever, whomever, who, that, which and whose.

e) Intensive Pronoun ; Intensive Pronoun means as a pronoun that ends in self or selves. (e.g : himself, myself, themselves, itself, herself, yourselves, ourselves, and yourself).

f) Demonstrative Pronoun ; Demonstrative Pronoun means the noun that take place of a noun that's already been mentioned in a sentence. (e.g : **these, those, such, this, that).**
g) Interrogative Pronoun ; interrogative Pronoun often stand for something that we are not aware of yet, because we are asking about it. These pronouns is special because they start with "wh". (e.g : **whose, what, whom, which, and who).**
h) Reflexive Pronoun ; reflexive pronoun are similar with intensentive pronoun. But there is a little difference. Intensive pronouns are not essential to a sentence meaning, meanwhile Reflexive Pronoun ends-in selves or self. (e.g : Yourself, himself, ourselves, itself, themselves, herself, myself, yourselves).
i) Reciprocal Pronoun : Reciprocal Pronoun means a pronoun use to identify a feeling or any kind of action that is reciprocated among two or more than two. (e.g : each other, one another).
j) Distributive Pronoun ; Distributive Pronoun means a pronoun describes a member of a group seperately from the group and not collectively or including in that group.(e.g : each, either, every, neither, none, everyone, and any).

### 3.2.3 Verb

Verbs shows the happening or state of something. It is called an action word (*Parts of Speech in English Grammar (1).Docx*, n.d.-b). There are many types of verbs they are :

1) Linking Verb ; linking verbs is a verb that connects to sentence together. Common linking verbs they are ; is, am, are, was, were. (e.g : the birds are flying high up in the sky.
2) Action Verbs ; the action verb shows an action. There are two kinds of action verb they are; transitive verb and intransitive verb. **Transitive verb** is the verb in a sentence that has a direct object, (e.g: They read book). **Intransitive**

**Verb** is the verb in a sentence that does not have a direct object, (e.g : the lion cub sleep).

3) Reflexive verb ; reflexive verbs are those who's subject and direct object are the same. They refer back to the same thing or person. (e.g: he stays in bed himself. The cat clean itself).
4) **Auxilary verb ;** auxilary verb defines to help the main verb in a sentence and are called helping verb. Auxilary verb used with ordinary verb changing a tense, mood or voice of a sentence. (the auxilary verbs are: is, am, are, was, were, have, do etc).
5) Modal Verb ; Modal verbs are used the ordinary verb to show meaning such as; possibilities, permission, certainty, etc. The common modal verb as below; can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must, ought.

### 3.2.4. Adverb

An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb. An adverb tells us manner, at what place or time, something happend (*Parts of Speech in English Grammar (1).Docx*, n.d.-b). There are nine categories of adverb, as below :

1) Adverb od Time ; adverb of time talk us about which time and action was performed. Which is included in the adverb of time namely; ago, after, before, already, later, now, formerly, never, soon, sence, etc.
2) Adverb of Place ; adverb of place inform us about an action took place. Commonly words is used, they are ; her, up, out, within, in, away, etc.
3) Adverb of Frequency ; this adverb shows us about how often and how many times a thing took place. The words use as an adverb of prequency are once, twice, again, often, seldom, rarely, always, frequently, etc.
4) Adverb of Degree ; this adverb tells us to what degree or an extend something happens. The common words

bellong to the adeverb od degree namely ; too, any, almost, so, pretty, rather, quite, enough, etc.

5) Adverb of Manner ; the adverb informs us about how or in which manner some action is preceded. Common word that categorized to adverb of manner namely ; swiftly, clearly, foolishly, well, so, slowly, etc.
6) Adverb of reason ; the words are used to state or cause of something happening. Common words that categorized into this adverb namely ; because, hence, therefore, so, etc.
7) Adverb of Affirmation Negation ; the words are used to affirm or declare something as true. There are words commonly used to say Adverb of Affirmation namely ; surely, certainly, definitely, very, obviously, yes, indeed, etc.
8) Adverb of Negation ; the adverb show us the word which denote a statement, action, or an idea as false. The words commonly used namely ; no, invalidly, etc.
9) Relative Adverb ; the words which come before an adjective clause.

### 3.2.5 Adjective

Adjective is a word which gives information about noun, pronoun, or a noun Phrase. There are many types of adjective, as below :

1) Adjective of Quality describes about quality, degree of a noun or pronoun. (e.g : Yanti is an honest woman).
2) Adjective of Quantity ; this adjective tell us about the quantity of a noun. Common adjective of quantity are ; some, much, no, any, little, enough, great, etc.
3) Adjective of Number tell us about how many things or people are meant or the order of standing of the people or things. There are three types of numeral Adjective. Look at the following table, as below :

| Adjective | Common word used | Example |
|---|---|---|
| Definite Numeral A. | One, two, three, etc | I have three Apples |
| Indefinite Numeral A. | No,all, few, many, some, several, etc | All the ducks are sleeping |
| Distributuive Nemeral A. | Every, each, either, neither | Each pupil must take it turn |

4) Demonstrative Adjective refers to a specific person or thing. Common words used to show demonstrative adjective, namely; this, that, these, those, such, etc.
5) Interrogative Adjective used to ask question. Common words used as interrogative Adjective, namely ; **what, whose, which.**
6) Possessive Adjective refers to the ownership of something. Common possessive adjective, they are; my, our, his, their, its, etc.
7) Emphasizing Adjectives are used to put emphasis in sentences. Commonly words used **very and own.** The example ; this is the very book I want.
8) Exlamatory Adjective informs us to exclaim excitement, fear and other extreme feelings. There is only one word to show exclaim namely “what”. E.g, what a spectacular view!

### 3.2.6 Preposition

Preposition are the words that we put before noun or pronoun. There are many categorizes of Preposition as below :

1) Simple Preposition are used to denote a relation between noun and pronoun. Common words used namely ; in, out, on, up, at, for, from, by, of, off, through, etc.
2) Double Preposition are made by putting together two single prepositions. Commonly words used as below ; onto, into, up-till, up to, within, etc

3) Compound preposition are usually formed by prefixing a preposition to noun. Common word used as below ; above, about, across, a long, before, behind, beside, etc.
4) Phrasal Prepositions are groups of words or phrases that join the noun or pronoun in a sentence. Common words used namely ; by mean, , according to, owing to, in favor of, in addition to in spite of, etc.
5) Participle Preposition refers to present participle of vebrs. Common words are used, namely; considering, concerning, etc.
6) Disguised Preposition which are not used in the sentences directly, but are disguised. E.g; the ceremony will be held at 5 o'clock.
7) Datached Preposition is called detached preposition when it does not come before its object. E.g : she is the woman whom I was talking about.

### 3.2.7 Conjunction

Conjunctions are simply words that join sentences, clauses and sometimes words. There are **two types of conjunctions. Look at the following table:**

| | |
|---|---|
| Correlative conjunction | Including : either-or, neither-nor, both-and, etc |
| Compound conjunction | Including : in order that, as if, as soon as, as well as, etc. |

Classes of conjunction as shown the table below :

| **Conjunction** | **Commonly word used** | **Kinds** | **Examples** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Coordinating Conjunctions | And, but, for, nor, but, also,neither-nor, either-or, etc. | Cumulative conjunction | The dog got up and run very fast |
| | | Adversative Conjunction | She is sick, but she is getting better |

| Conjunction | Commonly word used | Kinds | Examples |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Disjunctive conjunction | You must go or stay home |
| | | Illative conjunction | Someone is at the door, for the bell rang |
| Subordinating Conjunction | | Subordinating conjunction of time | I went from work from sunset |
| | | subordinating conjunction of cause | Since you have been gone, I am doing the dishes |
| | | subordinating conjunction of purpose | I went to the doctor lest my wound should be infected. |
| | | Subordinating conjunction of consequence | The seminar was boring so people started yawning |
| | | Subordinating conjunction of condition | People will not succeed unless they work efficiently |
| | | Subordinating conjunction of concession | Thouhg my cat is ill, yet it play all day |
| | | Subordinating conjunction of comparison | He is stronger than his friend |

### 3.2.8 Interjection

Interjection are the words or group of words that are used to express and exclaim extreme emotion. Common words used namely; Alas!, hurrah, Oh no!, Oh my God! , What! , etc. The different types of interjection are shown in the following table.

**The table of different types of interjections, as below:**

| | |
|---|---|
| Interjection for greeting | e.g : good morning! It's greet to see you! |
| Interjection for happiness | e.g : yeah! We won! |
| Interjection for attention | e.g : hey! Let's go on a picnic! |
| Interjection of approval | e.g : well done! You got firts position! |
| Interjection for surprise | e.g : oh! What a lovely scene! |
| Interjection for sorrow | e.g : oops!I'm sorry. It was hot |
| Interjection for socks | e.g : what! What have you done! |
| Interjection for anger | e.g : excuse me! I'm not a beggar! |

### 3.2.9 Determiners

Determiners means the words are placed before noun or adjectives to introduce them. Common words used as determiners as below : a, the , every, any, that, my, your, which, etc. There are many types of determiners as shown in the table below:

**Types of determiners as shown in the table :**

| Types of determiners | Parts of each determiner | Example |
|---|---|---|
| Article | Definite article (the) | the clothes that I bought yesterday was perfect |
| | Indefinite article (a, an) | my father buys an apple |
| Demonstrative determiners | This, that, these, those | She buys these pens |

| Types of determiners | Parts of each determiner | Example |
|---|---|---|
| Possessive determiners | My, your, our, her, his, their, its | Your husband is a bank officer |
| Distributive determiners | Every, each, all, both, either, neither, half, etc | All students is smart |
| Interrogative determiners | What, which, whatever, whichever, whoever, whose, etc | Whose papers was not signed |
| Quantifiers | All, no, any, many, some, few, a little, a lot, etc. | There is a little slime in the bread |
| Cardinal Numbers | One, two, three, twelve, twenty, etc. | There are five books in my bag |
| Ordinal Numbers | First, second, third, fourth, etc. | I'm the first child in my family. |

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# CHAPTER IV
# SYNTAX AND ITS KEY CONCEPT

**by Bertaria Sohnata Hutauruk**

## 4.1 Introductory

Syntax is a part of linguistics. The concept of syntax is the sentence structure of the words and phrases. In other ways, we can say that the position of the words or phrases in the sentence can determine the meaning. The rules where is in the positioning of the sentence manipulates the meaning of the sentence. syntax is meant by sentence rules, grammar rules, such as subject-verb agreement or direct and indirect object. There is an essential part of syntactic structure which is called the constituency. This means the hierarchy within the sentence specificaaly diagraming. In other words, there are two important points in the subject of syntax: constituency and tree diagram. Take a look at this example:

(1) Only Batman fights crime.
The meaning is that Batman is the only person who fights the crime. No one except Batman fights crime,, not even Superman.

(2) Batman only fights crime
The meaning is that fighting is the only thing Batman does he doesn't work, he doesn't shower—fighting crime is all he does.

(3) Batman fights only crime
The meaning is that Batman doesn't fight anything except crime. He doesn't fight Alfred or Robin; he doesn't fight the dry cleaner if they accidentally stain his shirt. Crime is the only thing he fights.

## 4.2. Syntax and its key concept

The word 'syntax' is derived from the language of the Ancients greek called 'coordination' or 'ordering together'. In general, the meaning of syntax is a set rules of the strings of the words and phrases in a sentence. Matthews (1981:1) said that the word syntax is taken from 'syntaxis' which is meant by an arrangement of the words into phrases, clauses into sentences. According to Bornstein (1977:246) mentions that syntax is a process that the words and grammatical categories are combined to form the phrase, clause and sentence in the language. Then Laurel (2000:167) argues that syntax is the constituents unit of the sentence such as form , positioning, and function. The rules of the sentence are named N, VP,V, DET and AUX. There are four important components in syntax:

(1) A sentence consists of a subject and a verb that has meaning. This is also commonly known as independent clause or sentence. a sentence cannot stand alone without a subject and a verb.
(2) Separate ideas commonly manipulates separate sentences. a sentence consists of multiple independent clauses.
(3) English word order includes the subject-verb-object
(4) A dependent clause consists of a subject and a verb

There are many approaches in syntax and its key concept such as category, function and role. For the functional model, it is analyzed the language in the terms of the form and meaning in which the sentence is seen as series of units that have grammatical functions for example subject, predicate, object, place, time and manner. Syntax is a part of linguistics that studies how words form phrases and phrase form sentences. Carnie (2006: 72) says that syntax is a scientific study of sentence structure that consists of a string of the words. It is related with how the sentences are formed and the language users use a wide variety of possible arrangement of the elements of the sentence.

In syntax, the structure of the sentence divides into two parts: constituent structure and tree diagram for example in the classification of the words, phrases, clauses and sentences.

According to their syntax, below is the types of sentences:

(1) Simple sentence.

Simple sentence is a sentence that has only a subject and a verb. In other words, simple sentence consists of a single independent clause. For example:

- Mikhaya like singing
- What is your name?
- Mikhaya and Ivander ate their lunch, went to swimming, and playing at the doll's house.

(2) Compound sentence

Compound sentences is a sentence which has two or more independent clauses and coordinated with the conjunction such as or, and, but, so etc. For example:

- I have a son **and** a daughter.
- Mr Marduga wanted to go on holiday, **so** he saved up his money.
- Mikhaya and Ivander love playing music **and** they also love playing toys.
- Mikhaya likes chocolates **but** Ivander likes ice cream.

(3) Complex sentence

Complex sentence is a sentence that consists of an independent clause and one or more dependent clause and coordinated with a subordinating conjunction such as although, because, so, that, and, until, and for. For example:

- **When** my daughter, Mikhaya plays the doll, Ivander, my son comes to her.
- She goes to work **eventhough** she is sick.
- **As** berta was arriving to the campus, she realized that she forgot to take her lunch box.

- **While** Mr Marduga Gultom enjoys listening to the music, he prefers balad and rock and roll because he plays the piano.

(4) Compound-complex sentence.

Compound complex sentence is the sentence that consists of multiple independent clauses at least one independent clause for example:

- **When** my parents came to my house, Mikhaya was sleeping, and Ivander was playing the ball in the yard.
- **Although** Ms berta felt guilty for missing her friends' birthday, she took her out dinner the next day and they had a great time.
- He tries to take on diet **but because** of the fast food and delicious menu, he cannot maintain for the strict diet.
- **If** Ms Minar gets the job, he will commute 100 miles to work, so she decides the job is not worth it.

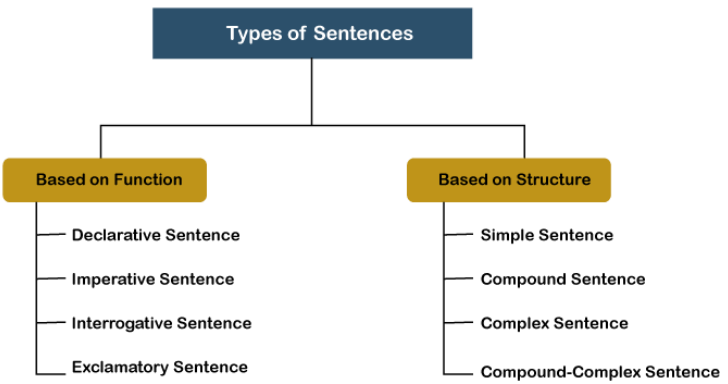



**Figure 4.1.** Types of the sentences

Based on the functional classification, there are four types of english sentences:

(1) Declarative sentence

Declarative sentence is a sentence that shares information and ends with a full stop. It is usually has a subject and predicate or compound sentence that has a comma (,) and conjunction or semi colon (;) used with or without a transition word. For example:

- Mikhaya and Ivander likes watching cartoon
- She is ten years old
- She wanted to play the football, but his friends wanted to played basketball.

(2)Interrogative sentence

Interrogative sentence is used for asking the direct questions. This sentence is commonly ends with the question mark (?). this interrogative sentence starts with WH-question or helping verb.. for example:

- When are the best moment in your life?
- Where is Pematangsiantar located?
- Are you a slassmate of Ms Berta?

(2) Exclamatory sentence

Exclamatory sentence is a sentence that describes emotion and marked with (!). for example:

- Huah! She has ruined my life.
- Hurrah! They have returned safely
- Oh, She shocked me.

(3) Imperative sentence

Imperative sentence is a sentence that tells someone to do something. This type of sentence involves advice, suggestion, request, order, or instruction. These are also characterized by looking at the verb which can give some instruction. For example:

- Please open the door.
- Take rest now
- Get out now

In conclusion, the rules of the syntax is to combine the words into phrases and the phrases into sentences. It divines the correct word order for language such as subject-verb-object (SVO). This component (SVO) also expresses the relationship between the meaning of the

string words and sentence structure. I the syntax, the rules also divines the structure sentence relations of a sentence such as the subject and the direct object. For example:

- I mean what I say vs I say what I mean
- Your dog chased my cat vs my cat chased your dog.

### 4.3 Syntactic Categories

There are two syntactic categories namely: lexical category and functional category (non lexical category). Lexical category is inflected based on semantics content such as noun, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and preposition. Meanwhile non lexical category has a grammatical function such as determiners, auxilliary verbs, degree words, conjunctions. For example:

| Lexical category | Examples |
|---|---|
| -Noun (N) | -Moisture, policy |
| -Verb | -melt, remain |
| -Adjective (Adj) | -good, intelligent |
| -Preposition (Prep) | -to, near |
| -Adverb (Adv) | -slowly, now |

| Non lexical category | Examples |
|---|---|
| -Determiners (Det) | -the, this |
| -Degree word (Deg) | -very, more |
| -Qualifiers (Qual) | -always, perhaps |
| -Auxiliary (Aux) | -will, can |
| -Conjunction (Conj) | -and,or |

Fromkin et al (2014:84) describes that the syntactic category includes phrasal category for example Noun Phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), adjective phrase (AP), prepositional phrase (PP), adverbial phrase (AdvP) and lexical category is noun (N), verb (V), preposition (Prep), adjective (adj) and adverb (Adv) for example:

(1) Phrasal categories:

(1.1) Noun Phrase (NP):
John
Mailmen
Most students
Many americans
A student from Brazil
The table in the corner
-Most students enjoy bakso
-The dean gave most students their books this morning.

(1.2) Verb phrase (VP):
Snore
Like marry
-John and Bill like English
-Henry wants to leave.

(1.3) Adjective phrase (AP) is used to explain the nouns and appears as constituents of a noun phrase.
Sad, very sad, very sad about the story

(1.4) Prepositional phrase (PP) can be a constituent of wide range of expression.
Over, nearly over, nearly over the hill

(1.5) Adverbial phrase (AdvP) is to modify verbs or adjectives.
Brightly, more brightly, more brightly than the sun

(2) Lexical categories

Lexical categories can be divided into some parts:

(2.1) Noun (N) has two morphological forms called the plural and possessive.

| | |
|---|---|
| The boy | (det N) |
| My toy | (Poss, Pro N) |
| Brown Jacket | ( Adj N) |

(2.2) Verb (V) has two morphological frames: number and tense which ended by an-s ending marking 3rd person singular form.

| | |
|---|---|
| -I hit a dog | *I hits a dog |
| - *John hit a dog | John hits a dog |
| -They hit a dog | *They hits a dog |

(2.3) Preposition (Prep):
Near, to, with, above, to, between, over
(2.4) Adjective (Adj):
Beautiful. Bad, kind, happy, ugly, cruel
(2.5) Adverb (Adv): always, never, very.

## 4.4 Function category

The function category consists of units which have function as subject (S), function as a predicate (P), function as an object (O) and function as the adverb (adv). It can be describes as follows:

(1) Subject is commonly followed by noun phrase. The noun or pronoun is a head in practice apart from the verb be, it is used for the third singular person. for example: The dog barks
(2) Verb is followed by a verb phrase. It is characterized of clause which contains a verb either or finite or non finite kind. For example in the sentence dinner over, they went to bed dinner over.
(3) Object functions by a noun phrase , prepositional phrase. For example: Bill is expecting a big surprise, Bill is waiting for a big surprise.
(4) Complement is used by a noun phrase or adjective phrase. For example: Jim has become a qualified engineer, Jim seems quite pleasant.

| Syntactic function and its forms | |
|---|---|
| Subject | NP, Noun clause |
| Predicators | Verbal element |
| Object | NP, noun clause |
| Complement | NP, AdjP |
| Adverbial | AdvP, NP,PP |

| Basic clause of structure | |
|---|---|
| PO | Take your bag |
| PA | Go to the kitchen |
| SPO | Mikhaya writes a letter |
| SPA | Mr Gultom visits hometown |
| ASPC | Ivander is thin |
| SPOC | My mother made me (O) as a lecturer (C) |
| SPOA | The woman parked the car (O) in front of the restaurant (A) |

### 4.5 Syntactic unit

There are three components of the syntactic unit namely words, clauses and sentences.

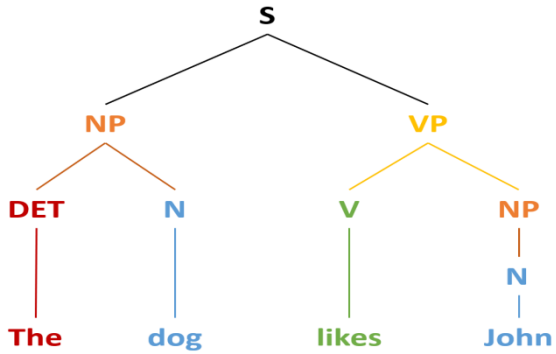
(1) Words
The word is the smallest unit in the sentence. word has its own class such as noun, verb, adjective, article, conjunction.

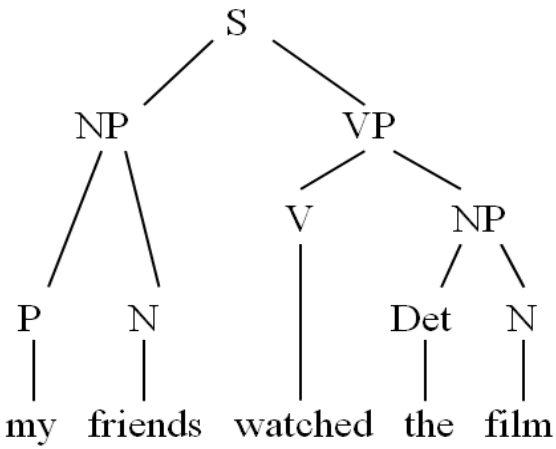
(2) Phrases
Phrase is a string of words without subject, a complete verb. Every phrase has a headword that determines the types of the phrase for example: noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase, gerund phrase and infinitive phrase.

(3) Sentence
Sentence is a group of words that contains the subject verb and states a complete idea beginning with the capital letter and ends in full stop. For example
We are college students
S V
North Sumatra is a famous province with
S V
Danau Toba

### 4.6 Tree Diagram

Bornstein (1977:39) explains that tree diagram describes the hierarchical structure of the sentences. it consists of the syntactic system as the rule of syntactic structure.




A tree diagram can be used to show the hieracrhy of the sentence.

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# CHAPTER V
# PHRASE AND CLAUSE CATEGORIES AND CONSTRUCTION

**By Stefanus Igolois Grenga Uran**

## 5.1 Introduction

A language's words can be divided into various categories. These words combine to form larger components, or so-called constituents, in a sentence. Words combination to form larger units, then, combine to form clauses and sentences. It is central to understand at very first the distinction among phrases, clauses, and sentences. The **phrase** is a synonym for a grammatical unit known as a constituent, which is a collection of words. It lacks a subject-predicate structure and a finite verb. A **clause** is a group of words that form a grammatical unit and which contain a subject and a finite verb. A clause forms a sentence or part of a sentence and often functions as a noun, adjective, or adverb.

A **sentence**, on the other hand, is the largest unit of grammatical organization within which part of speech (e.g. noun, verb, adverb) and grammatical classes (e.g. word, phrase, and clause) are said to function. Following generative grammar, a sentence is considered to be the largest syntactic category that can be characterized; all of its constituent parts are connected by the syntax rules, and the sentence as a whole has a well-formed structure. For example, *The man who is giving a speech in the hall has just bought an expensive luxurious car*. An expensive luxurious car here is considered as a **phrase**, who is giving a speech in the hall is a **clause**, and the entire structure is a **sentence**.

This chapter, therefore, introduces the idea of syntactic structure by examining the way words are put together to form phrases, clauses, and sentences. As we shall see, phrases and clauses are constructed through a series of merger operations, each of which joins two constituents to create a single larger constituent. This chapter also examines some of the principles that guide sentence construction and investigate various methods for evaluating the syntax of phrases and clauses in a sentence.

## 5.2 Phrases and Phrasal Categories

There are five types of phrases, and the names or classifications of those phrases are heavily influenced by the word's part of speech when it serves as the phrase's head. Therefore, a **noun phrase (NP)** contains a head belonging to a noun, a **verb phrase (VP)** contains a head belonging to a verb, an **adjective phrase (AdjP)** contains a head belonging to an adjective, an **adverb phrase (AdvP)** contains a head belonging to an adverb, and a **prepositional phrase (PP)** contains a head belonging to an adverb.

A phrase can consist of only a word, but in most cases, it comprises several words. The relationship between the words and the head depends on the type of the phrase. For example, in an NP, the relationship between its head and other words in the phrase is a **modified-modifier relationship**. According to Miller (2002) and Radford (2004), certain relationships hold between words whereby one word, the head, controls the other words, the modifiers. A given head may have more than one modifier and may have no modifier. The second idea is that words are grouped into phrases and that groupings typically bring together heads and their modifiers.

### 5.2.1 Noun Phrase

The most meaningful part of a noun phrase is the noun, which is the obligatory constituent and the head of the phrase (Borsley, 2003). In addition to consisting of a determiner (DET) and a noun (N); a DET, some modifiers (i.e. AdjP) and an N, a noun phrase may consist of a pronoun (PRON). According to Greenbaum and Nelson (2002, p. 48), the structure of the typical noun phrase may be represented schematically in the following way (where the parentheses indicate elements of the structure that may be absent):

**(determiners) (pre-modifiers) noun (post-modifiers)**

Noun phrases are initiated by **determiners** (words like *the*, *a*, *those*, and *some*). Modifiers are parts of sentences that depend on the main word but are optional. **Pre-modifiers** are those that come before the noun, and **post-modifiers** are those that come after the noun. Here are some examples of possible noun phrase structures:

| | |
|---|---|
| **noun** | ***books*** |
| **determiner+noun** | ***those books*** |
| **pre-modifier+noun** | ***new books*** |
| **determiner+pre-modifier+noun** | ***some long books*** |
| **noun+post-modifier** | ***books on astronomy*** |
| **determiner+noun+post-modifier** | ***some books on astronomy*** |
| **pre-modifier+noun+post-modifier** | ***popular books on astronomy*** |
| **determiner+pre-modifier+noun+ post-modifier** | ***some popular books on astronomy*** |

Concerning the determiner, there are three classes of them: **pre-determiners** (e.g. *all, both, such, what, half*), **central determiners** (e.g. *a(n), the, those, my, which, whose, some, any, no, enough, every, either, neither*) and **post-determiners** (e.g. *other, two, first, many, few, little, first two*). An example with determiners from each class is *all those other people*.

Regarding modifiers, the noun phrase may have more than one pre-modifier or post-modifier, for example, *a long hot summer*, *acute, life-threatening diseases*, and *a nasty gash on his chin that needed medical attention*.

The modifier may itself be modified, such as a *comfortably cool* room or the investigation *of crimes against children* (*comfortably* modifies *cool*, *against children* modifies *crimes*). A modifier may also be discontinuous, with one part coming before the noun and the other part after it. For example, the *easiest children to teach* (compare: the *children* (who are) *easiest to teach*).

When another noun serves to modify a head noun, the noun pre-modifier is so closely connected to the head noun that the two can almost be considered one word. This close link is proved by the fact that when nouns do pre-modify other nouns, they always come next to the head noun; nothing else can come between them, for example, a *new computer* game or *his old gold* medal.

Besides a noun as the head in the noun phrase, a **pronoun** is also another head in the noun phrase. There are several groups of pronouns, including personal, indefinite, demonstrative, interrogative, possessive, reciprocal, relative, and reflexive pronouns (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2002, p. 99). **Personal pronouns** are of two forms: those grammatically functioning as subjects (*I, You, He/She/It, We, They*) and those grammatically functioning as objects (*me, you, him/her/it, us, them*) in a sentence. **Indefinite pronouns** refer to unspecified entities, such as *some*, *something*, *anything, anyone*, *anybody*, *somebody,* and *someone*. **Demonstrative pronouns** include singular (*this, that*) and plural (*these, those*), for example, *This is for you*, or *That doesn't make sense*. The demonstratives may also be determiners in a noun phrase, for example, *This letter is for you*, or *You may take those boxes*.

One set of **interrogative pronouns** has distinctions in gender and case, such as subjective case (*who*), objective case (*whom*), and genitive case (*whose*), for example, *Who called me a moment ago?* or *Whose is that towel?* The other interrogative pronouns, *which* and *what*, have only one form, either personal (e.g. *Which is your sister?*) or non-personal (e.g. *What do you want?*). *Which*, *what*, and *whose* may also be determiners, for example, *Whose books are these?* In addition to that, **possessive pronouns** are of two types: possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives. A possessive pronoun (or so-called possessive of noun) may stand alone as a noun phrase (*mine, yours, hers, ours, theirs*), whereas a possessive adjective stands to modify other nouns (*my, your, her, our, their*), for example, *The books are mine*, and *My books are on the table*.

Next, there are two **reciprocal pronouns**, and they have genitives (e.g. *each other, each other's* and *one another, one another's*). For example, *The partners trusted each other completely* and *My brother and I borrow one another's clothes*. Furthermore, **relative pronouns** introduce relative clauses (cf. 7.3.2) and also have distinctions in gender and case, namely, personal subjective case (*who*), personal objective case (*whom*), personal and non-personal genitive case (*whose*), and non-personal subjective and objective case (*which, that*). There is another set of relative pronouns that introduce nominal relative clauses (cf. 7.3.1); these are the nominal relative pronouns. In addition to *who*, *whom*, and *which*, they include *whoever*, *whomever* (in formal style), *whichever*, *what*, and *whatever*. Lastly, the **reflexive pronouns** parallel the personal and possessive pronouns in person and number but have no distinctions in case. It includes singular reflexives (*myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself*) and plural ones (*ourselves, yourselves, themselves*).

Concerning the form of the noun phrase, some other entities should be considered important; they are apposition and coordination. **Apposition** is a relationship between two noun

phrases that have an identical reference, for example, *Bono, our Political Correspondent, also took part* (the underlined phrase is apposition to Bono). Meanwhile, **coordination** can be linked to the noun phrase with *and* or *or*, for example, *Law schools or medical schools are aided by the government* (the noun phrase includes *law schools* and *medical schools*).

The last part of this discussion about noun phrases is their functions. The possible functions of a noun phrase include **subject** (e.g. *The people in the bus* escaped through the emergency exit.), **direct object** (e.g. They are testing *some new equipment*.), **indirect object** (e.g. The bank gave *that poor man* a loan), **subject complement** (e.g. The performance was *a test of their physical endurance*.), **object complement** (e.g. Many of us consider him *the best candidate.*), **complement of a preposition** (e.g. The box of chocolates is intended for *your children*.), **pre-modifier of a noun or noun phrase** (e.g. *Milk production* is down this year.), and **adverbial** (e.g. The term finishes *next week*.).

### 5.2.2 Verb Phrase

The typical structure of the verb phrase consists of a main verb preceded optionally by a maximum of four auxiliary verbs. The four belong to different subclasses of auxiliaries. The class of verbs we are looking at in this section includes transitive, intransitive, ditransitive, intensive, complex-transitive, and prepositional verbs.

A **transitive verb** requires a complement. This complement is syntactically called an object. For example, *The dog found a bone*, and not *The dog found*. On the contrary, an **intransitive verb**, as its name implies, does not require an object. The verb requires nothing else to complete the verb phrase, e.g. *The dog snores*. In some cases, there can be other constituents occurring with an intransitive verb, they may be adverb phrase (AdvP) or prepositional phrase (PP), for example, *The dogs snore very loudly*, or *The dog snores in the night*.

**Ditransitive verbs** require two objects: direct object (dO) and indirect objects (iO). In a sentence like *Ray told the children a story*, the direct object is *a story* because it is what is being told and *the children* is the indirect object because it is the recipients of the direct object. The indirect object can be expressed in another way by using a prepositional phrase (PP). The structure thus may be put into *Ray told a story to the children*. Functionally, the PP *to the children* still has the same function, i.e. as the indirect object; however, it takes a different form, i.e. PP.

Next, we come to **intensive verbs**, which are sometimes referred to as relational verbs, linking verbs or copular. They belong to a small group which includes verbs like *be*, *become*, *appear*, *seem*, *look*, etc. These entire verbs have a common characteristic in that what follows the verb in a sentence relates back to what precedes the verb. The constituent follows the verb functions as a subject complement. Like transitive and ditransitive verbs, intensive verbs are also incomplete on their own. They, therefore, need some sort of subject complement (SC), which is obligatory in this case. Whereas all (and only) intensive verbs can appear with just the category adjective phrase (AdjP), the verb *be* is the only intensive verb which can appear with any of the categories an NP, a PP, and an AdjP, as the following examples:

My father *is a teacher*. (VP=intensive verb + NP as SC)

My father *is very diligent*. (VP=intensive verb + AdjP as SC )

My father *is in the classroom*. (VP=intensive verb + PP as SC)

Another class of verbs to appear with a complement is called **complex-transitive verbs**. The complement that occurs with this verb relates to the object in the structure, not the subject. The complement is therefore an object complement (OC), for example,

They *elected the boy a chairman*. (VP=complex-transitive verb + NP as DO + NP as OC).

An object complement (OC) may also be in the form of a PP and AdjP, for example:

The driver *put the car in the garage*. (VP=complex-transitive verb + NP as O + PP as OC)

The boy *made his friends very angry*. (VP=complex-transitive verb + NP as O + AdjP as OC)

The last class of verbs is the **prepositional verb**. This class of verbs is one which requires a PP in order to complete. In fact, such verbs are so closely linked with a preposition that it is easy to think of them as verbs consisting of two parts: verb and preposition, such as *glance at*, *lean on*, *consist of*, etc. A sentence having a prepositional verb is not complete without PP. The PP is therefore obligatory in the structure, that follows a prepositional verb functions as a prepositional object, e.g. *This book consists of twelve chapters*. (prepositional verb + PP (P + NP as object of preposition)).

While a prepositional verb functions like a transitive phrasal verb that requires an object as in the example above, an intransitive phrasal verb does not, for example, *I give up*. or *The discussion went on for a long time*.

Another type of prepositional verb has two objects: a direct object and a prepositional object. The direct object comes before the particle, and the prepositional object follows the particle, i.e. *He blamed the accident on the weather.* or *They were making fun of you*. The last type of prepositional verb also has two objects, but the first is an indirect object, i.e. *She forgave me for my rude remark*. or, *I congratulated her on her promotion*.

Finally, there are two types of phrasal-prepositional verbs, which have two particles (an adverb followed by a preposition). The first type has just the prepositional object, i.e. *I have been catching up on my reading*. or, *They look down on their neighbours*. And the second type has a direct object and a prepositional object, i.e. *I have put his problem down to inexperience.* or, *We put him up for election*.

In all examples so far, we used only a single verb as the predicator. Verb, however, can consist of one or more than one elements. These elements form a **verb group (Vgp)**. In the example below, (a) has only a single verb, and the rest (b - e) has more than one element.

(a). They *killed his dog*.

(b). They *are killing his dog*.

(c). They *will kill his dog*.

(d). They *have killed his dog*.

(e). They would have killed his dog.

(f). The dog *was killed by them*.

All examples above have one thing in common, in that they contain the verb *kill* in one form or the other (i.e. killed, killing), which carries the meaning of the verb group. The verb *kill* is called a **lexical verb (V)**. All complete verb groups must include a lexical verb, which appears last in the group and forms the **head** of the verb group. The lexical verb can appear alone as in (a) or with additional elements as in (b) to (e). These elements are **auxiliary verbs (AUX)**. They function to modify lexical verbs by indicating **modality**, **aspect** or **voice** as well as **tense**. Tense will be indicated here simply under the same category (i.e. AUX).

In syntax, the verb group must be included, and in order to describe its elements in detail the verb phrase must consist initially of a verb group (Vgp), and the verb group in turn consists of auxiliary (AUX) and the lexical verb (V). This composition may be put into the phrase structure rules as **VP=Vgp + NP**, where Vgp=AUX + V (AUX may indicate modality, aspect or tense).

The following description will elaborate more about tense, modality, and aspect/ voice. There are two tenses in English: the present tense (pres) and the past tense (past). For example, *The child goes to school.* (present) and *The child went to school.* (past). The future does not exist as tense in English because it is indicated by modal auxiliaries.

**Modal auxiliary (MOD)** indicates modality which allows us to express whether a state of affairs is likely, possible, necessary, and so on. The modal auxiliaries in English are *will* and *would* (indicate volition or prediction), *can*, *could*, *may* and *might* (indicate possibility or probability), *shall*, *should*, *must* and *ought to* (signify obligation), and *need*, *dare* and *used to* (marginally). A modal auxiliary does not carry tense and always appears with an infinitive (either with *to* before it or a bare infinitive (without *to*). For example, *I may see you later*.

**Primary auxiliaries** are auxiliary verbs which are not included in modals. They are *have*, *be* and *do*. Our discussion here is restricted only to HAVE and BE which are used to signify **aspect (ASP)** and **voice**. Aspect has to do with time and the relationship of actions or states to periods of time or duration. There are two kinds of aspects: perfect and progressive. The **perfect aspect (PERF)** is indicated by the presence of the auxiliary HAVE and is followed by the third form of verbs or the past-participle, i.e. *The boy has gone to school*. (present). Unlike modal axillaries, primary auxiliaries carry tense. Tense is ineligible when the modal auxiliary is combined with the perfect. Although various auxiliary types are allowed to coexist, each type can only do so once in a verb-group structure, for example, *The child might have gone to school*.

On the other hand, the **progressive aspect (PROG)** is indicated by the presence of the auxiliary BE and is followed by the base verb + {-ing} or often called the present participle. For example, *The boys are sleeping in the bush.* (present) or *The boys*

*were sleeping in the bush*. (past). The progressive can also combine with MODAL and/or PERFECT Auxiliaries, as the following examples:

a) The boy *will be studying* English in the room. (PROG combined with modal)
b) The boy *had been studying* English for two years. (PROG combined with past perfect)
c) The teacher *might have been teaching* English for two decades. (PROG combined with modal and perfect)

A sentence's **voice** refers to whether it is in the ACTIVE or PASSIVE. So far, all of our examples have been in active voice. Since the majority of the utterances and sentences are active, there is no obvious marking that indicates this voice. But occasionally, individuals will use passive voice. For example, *The man killed the snake*. (active voice, where *the man* = S, *killed* P, *a snake* = dO).

Because of the way the elements are arranged in this structure, it is clear that either *the snake* or *the dog* is the direct cause of the *killing* action. We must first replace the roles of the agent and the patient before we can convert the sentence into PASSIVE VOICE. To do so, we must change the verb group in the structure in order to maintain the original meaning (i.e., the dog is doing the killing and a snake is being killed). The agent or the doer is put into a prepositional phrase indicating that it is the noun in the phrase that commits the action mentioned in the verb group. The structure, then, becomes *A snake was killed by the dog*. (past tense).

The last part of this discussion of verb phrases will concern the **primary auxiliary DO**. The primary auxiliary DO turns up to lend support to lexical verbs only in certain construction and where there is no other auxiliary verb already present. The constructions in which the primary auxiliary DO appears are:

a) In the negating structures: *The boy doesn't like the cakes.* (present)
b) In the question structures: *Do you like the cake?* (present) or *What do you like?*
c) In the construction used for emphasis: *The boy does like the cakes.*

### 5.2.3 Adjective Phrase

An adjective is the primary word in an adjective phrase. The following example illustrates the structure of a typical adjective phrase; the parentheses denote any potential missing structure components:

**(pre-modifiers) adjective (post-modifiers)**

Modifiers qualify in some respect what is denoted by the adjective, and they are optional. The pre-modifier comes before the adjective and the post-modifier comes after it. Some post-modifiers complete what is implied in the meaning of the adjective. For example, if we say *Tom is afraid* we intend this to mean that Tom is filled with fear in some respect.

Here are some examples of possible structures of adjective phrases:

| | |
|---|---|
| **adjective** | ***happy*** |
| **pre-modifier + adjective** | ***very happy*** |
| **adjective + post-modifier** | ***happy to see you*** |
| **pre-modifier + adjective + post-modifier** | ***very happy that you could join us*** |

These are the main possible functions of adjective phrases:
a) pre-modifier in a noun phrase: He was a *tall* man, dressed in a *blue* suit.
b) subject complement: The photographs were *quite professional*.
c) object complement: My parents made me *aware of my filial responsibilities*.

d) post-modifier in a noun phrase: The method makes good use of the memory *available*.

Indefinite pronouns, such as *somebody*, require the adjective phrase to follow them, e.g. You should choose somebody *older*. Or, I bought something *quite expensive* today. There are also some set expressions (mostly legal or official designations) where the adjective follows the noun, e.g. heir *apparent*, attorney *general*, court *martial*, and notary *public.*

Adjectives can be partially converted into nouns and then like nouns can function as heads of noun phrases. Typically, such phrases refer to well-established classes of persons, such as *the disabled*, *the poor*, *the sick*, *the unemployed*, and *the young*. Nationality adjectives are commonly used in this way, too: *the British*, *the English*, *the French*, and *the Irish*. These noun phrases are plural, even though the adjectives do not have a plural ending, e.g. *The sick require immediate attention*. Or, *The British are coming*.

Some adjectives, particularly superlatives, function as heads of noun phrases that are abstract. These noun phrases are singular, e.g. *The best is yet to come*. or, *The latest is that our team is winning*.

### 5.2.4 Adverb Phrase

An adverb is the primary word in an adverb phrase. The main difference between the structure of a typical adverb phrase and an adjective phrase is the main word's class.

**(pre-modifiers) adverb (post-modifiers)**

Here are some examples of possible structures of adverb phrases:

| | |
|---|---|
| **adverb** | ***surprisingly*** |
| **pre-modifier + adverb** | ***very surprisingly*** |
| **adverb + post-modifier** | ***surprisingly for her*** |
| **pre-modifier + adverb + post-modifier** | ***very surprisingly indeed*** |

An adverb often adds information in relation to circumstances of **manner**, **time**, or **place**. Such this type of adverb, which mostly ends in **-ly,** is therefore called a **circumstance adverb**. They answer the question HOW, WHEN and WHERE.

Adverbs have two main functions, but particular adverbs may have only one of these:

a) modifier of an adjective or an adverb in phrase structure:
   The description was *remarkably* accurate.
   The new drug was hailed, *somewhat* prematurely, as the penicillin of the 1990s.
b) adverbial in sentence structure or sentence adverb:
   *Fortunately*, American automobile manufacturers are *now* concentrating on improvements in economy and safety. or,
   *Certainly,* we should be grateful for the ways in which he *inadvertently* challenged our beliefs, *deeply* and *seriously*.

Semantically, most of the modifiers are **intensifiers**. They express the degree to which the meaning of the adjective or adverb applies on an assumed scale. The most common intensifier is *very*. In addition, there can be another adverb that is used to modify or limit the sense of another adverb. Adverbs of this type include, among others, *quite*, *too*, *highly*, *extremely*, *more*, *less*, *rather*, etc. They are called **degree adverbs**. This sort of adverb tells us to what extent or to what degree something is done, e.g. *She snores very loudly*.

Some adverbials seem to be closely linked to the verb or perhaps the predicate, as in *She spoke vigorously* or *She spoke her mind vigorously*, but it is difficult to be precise about the scope of such adverbials. For the range of meanings of adverbials, many adverbs can function both as modifiers and as adverbials. The intensifier *entirely* is a modifier of an adjective in [a] and an adverbial in [b]:

a) Michael's amendment is *entirely* acceptable.
b) I *entirely* agree with you.

When an adverb modifies the entire sentence (**sentence adverbs**), it has the ability to appear in a range of sentence positions and often expresses an attitude or evaluation. They include words, such as *frankly*, *certainly*, *actually*, *perhaps*, *unfortunately*, etc. The ability to appear in a number of different positions in a sentence distinguishes the sentence adverb from other types of adverbs.

### 5.2.5 Prepositional Phrase

Preposition (P) is a group of closed class categories which expresses relations of place, direction, time or possession. A prepositional phrase (PP) may consist of only a single word, that is a preposition, or of a preposition followed by a noun phrase or so-called prepositional complement:

**preposition complement (noun phrase)**

The prepositional complement is typically a noun phrase, but it may also be a nominal relative clause or an -ing clause. Both the nominal relative clause and the -ing clause have a range of functions similar to that of a noun phrase.

a) complement as a noun phrase: through *the window*
b) complement as nominal relative clause: from *what I heard* (or, from *that which I heard*)
c) complement as -ing clause: after *speaking to you*

The preposition, or "preceding position," usually comes before the prepositional complement, as its name implies. However, there are a few instances where the complement is moved and the preposition is left standing alone. When the complement is changed into the sentence's subject, the stranding is required. For example, *Your case will soon be attended to*. or, *This ball is for you to play with*. or, *The picture is worth looking at*.

In questions and relative clauses, the prepositional complement may be a pronoun or adverb that is fronted. In that case, the preposition is normally stranded, e.g. *Who are you waiting for?* In formal style, the preposition is fronted with its complement, e.g. *For whom are you waiting?*

Prepositional phrases have three main functions:

a) post-modifier of a noun: I took several courses *in history*. or, The local council is subsidizing the installation *of energy-saving devices*.
b) post-modifier of an adjective: We were not aware *of his drinking problem*. or, I was happy *with my marks* last term.
c) adverbial: *After the storm*, the sky brightened. or, *In my opinion*, people behave differently *in crowds*.

Two or more prepositional phrases may appear independently side by side, e.g. *I read stories to the children at home in the evening*. This is a sentence with three prepositional phrases, each functioning as a separate adverbial.

Furthermore, a prepositional phrase can have a number of grammatical functions. These functions depend on the type of the verb functioning as the head or predicator in the structure.

a) Prepositional phrases functioning as adverbial (Adv.)
   When a prepositional phrase functions as an adverbial, it answers the question HOW, WHERE and WHEN, e.g. Mary looks *up the chimney.*
b) Prepositional phrases functioning as indirect objects (IO)

It is generally found in sentences with ditransitive verbs, such as *give* and *tell*, e.g. Mary gave a book *to her friend*.

c) Prepositional phrases functioning as a subject complement (SC)
It appears with an intensive verb (which is sometimes referred to as a relational verb, linking verb or copular). The presence of a prepositional phrase in the structure relates back to the subject, i.e. it describes the state of the subject, e.g. Mary is *in the garden*.

d) Prepositional phrases functioning as object complement (OC)
It occurs with a complex-transitive verb, such as *put*, e.g. Mery put a worm *in the ditch*.

e) Prepositional phrases functioning as a prepositional object (PO)
It occurs with prepositional verbs, i.e. those verbs require a prepositional phrase in order to complete a sentence. Verbs such as *glance at*, *lean on*, *refer to* and *consist of* fall into this class, e.g. Mary glanced *at the picture*.

## 5.3 Clause Categories

A clause contains a subject and a finite verb. A clause forms a sentence or part of a sentence and often functions as a noun, adjective, or adverb. Clauses are classified into dependent and independent clauses or ordinate and subordinate clauses. A clause can also be regarded as a basic sentence. However, a sentence is not necessarily a clause, but a clause can be a sentence. Consider the following structure:

*The new student from America was there when I met my new supervisor.*

| | |
|---|---|
| **Phrase** | *the new student from America, my new supervisor* |
| **Clause** | *the new student from America was there (main clause)*<br>*I met my new supervisor (adverb clause)* |

**Sentence** *The new student from America was there when I met my new supervisor.*

Depending on what types of clauses are combined, Miller (2002) and Burton-Roberts (2011) distinguish two types of multi-clause sentences: **main clauses** in **compound sentences** and **subordinate clauses** in **complex sentences**. The main clause can be single (e.g. *Wickham eloped with Lydia.*) but can also consist of several clauses. Compound sentences consist of two or more clauses joined by conjunctions, for example, *Henry Crawford loved Fanny but Fanny loved Edmund.*

Concerning the subordinate clause, complex sentences consist of a main clause and one or more other clauses subordinate to it. That is, one clause, the main clause, is preeminent in a complex sentence and the other clauses, the subordinate clauses, are subject to certain limitations. The major types of subordinate clauses include complement clause or **noun clause**, **relative clause**, and **adverbial clause**.

### 5.3.1 Noun Clause or Complement Clause

The noun clause functions in a similar way as a noun phrase does. A noun clause, therefore, can have various syntactic functions including subject, object, and complement. The complement clauses can occur to the right of the verbs in the main clauses, but can also occur to the left of verbs. For example, *Lucy regretted that she had met John*. and *That Lucy was in conversation with John dismayed Louis.*

With respect to its position in a sentence, a noun clause can apply several functions, as follows.

a) Noun Clause as Subject
   *What you told me* is interesting.
b) Noun Clause as Direct Object
   I hate *what you told me*.
c) Noun Clause as Indirect Object

I will give *whoever wins* a price.

d) Noun Clause as Subject Complement
   This is *what I think*.
e) Noun Clause as Object Complement
   She will name him *whatever she wants to*.

### 5.3.2 Adjective Clause/ Relative Clause/ Modifying Clause

A relative clause, as its name suggests, is a clause that post-modifies a head noun. A relative pronoun, such as *that*, *which*, *where*, or *who* connects the subordinate clause with the main clause. For example, *The cottage which Mrs Dashwood accepted was rather small*.

The relative clause *which Mrs Dashwood accepted* post-modifies the noun head *The cottage*. As with other examples of post-modifier, this means that the NP *the cottage* and the relative clause *which Mrs Dashwood accepted* both function together at a higher level as one constituent, that is as the subject of the sentence.

Since adjectives can also modify nouns, relative clauses are sometimes referred to as adjective clauses in older descriptions. Of course, they don't appear in the same place as adjectives in English because, in a noun phrase, adjectives usually come before the noun while relative clauses come after.

In certain circumstances, the WH word or *that* can be omitted, as in *The building (that) we liked is in Thornton Lacey*, with the relative clause *we liked.*

### 5.3.3 Adverb Clause

Adverbial phrases can take the shape of complex structures that contain clauses. The name 'adverbial' suggests that adverbial clauses can modify both verbs and whole clauses. Since they are frequently optional sentence constituents, their other important characteristic is that they are adjuncts. Adverbial

clauses of reason, time, concession, manner, or condition, among others, for example, are traditionally categorized according to their meaning, as shown below.

a) Reason
   *Because Marianne loved Willoughby*, she refused to believe that he had deserted her.
b) Time
   *When Fanny returned*, she found Tom Bertram very ill.
c) Concession
   *Although Mr D'Arcy disliked Mrs Bennet,* he married her.
d) Manner
   Henry changed his plans *as the mood took him*.
e) Condition
   *If I don't eat breakfast,* I always get hungry during class.
f) Purpose
   I'm going to cash a check *so that I can buy my textbooks*.
g) Comparison
   I do not swim *as well as he does*.

Adverbs clauses are introduced by the use of conjunctions such as *because*, *when*, *although*, *as*, *if*, *so that*, *as well as*, etc. The type of an adverb clause is determined by the meaning of the conjunction used.

To conclude about the clauses, there are reliable rules for recognising different types of clauses, as follows.

a) Does it modify another clause? If it does, it is an ADVERBIAL CLAUSE. For example, *When we sell the house, we'll probably leave most of the furniture*. The clause in the underline modifies the entire clause in the rest. It establishes a time for the entire situation of leaving the furniture behind and is an adverbial clause of time.
b) Does it modify a verb? If it does, it is a (VERB) COMPLEMENT CLAUSE. For example, *A motorist has reported that the road is blocked by snow at Soutra Hill*. The clause in the underline modifies the verb *reported*. Indeed, the clause *A motorist has reported* is incomplete without the complement clause. Verb

complement clauses function as the subject or object of a clause.

c) Does it modify a noun? If it does, it could be a RELATIVE CLAUSE or a COMPLEMENT CLAUSE.
   a. Is the subordinate clause introduced by a WH word such as *who*, *which*, *where*, or by a prepositional phrase such as *in which*? If it is, it is a relative clause. For example, *The Labrador ate all the food <u>which we left on the kitchen table</u>*.
   b. Is the subordinate clause introduced by *that*? If it is, it could be either a relative clause or a complement clause. If it is a relative clause, *that* can be replaced by *which* and so on, as in *I like the book <u>that you gave me</u>*. can be changed to *I like the book <u>which you gave me</u>.* If it is a complement clause, *that* cannot be replaced by a WH word, as shown by *We like the idea **<u>that</u>** <u>the city centre will be pedestrianized</u>*. It cannot be changed to *We like the idea ***<u>which</u>** <u>the city centre will be pedestrianised</u>*.

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# CHAPTER VI
# SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE

**By Neneng Yuniarty**

## 6.1 Introduction

In general, syntax implies a group of grammar principle on words or clauses in building sentences. We can notice syntax element in the form of words or clauses which we often indicate to subject, verb, and object in written and spoken sentences.

Subject, verb, and object in syntax rules are always sequential. In meantime, in some cases, it acknowledges other words or clauses such as adverbs or adverbs that define subjects, verbs, and objects to be added.

## 6.2 Syntactic Structure

According to Francis that the syntactic structures have four types, they are: (1) Structure of Modification, (2) Structure of Predication, (3) Structure of Complementation and (4) Structure of Coordination (Sipahutar, Pangaribuan and Sihombing, 2017).

### 6.2.1 Structure of Modification

This type of structure has two fundamental parts: head and a modifier. the modifier holds definition distributing to turn into value, preference, difference, or can affect the implication of head. Noun, verb, adjective, and adverb are the classes that can be a head.

**a. Noun as head**

Noun can be modified by certain modifiers below:

- **Adjective**

  For example: *an adorable cat, a big black dog*. From those examples, we can conclude that adjective consistently appeared immediately before the noun. On the other hand, Francis stated we can put adjective after the noun (head) when: 1. it is in a permanent phrase or common. For example: *darkness visible, fee simple*, 2. The modifier becomes an element of bigger construction or maybe it is followed by the next utterance. For example: *The bag is smaller than my dictionary* (Sipahutar, Pangaribuan and Sihombing, 2017).

- **Noun**

  Noun as modifier can be noun adjunct, possessive, and. We can see the difference by using it in the sentence.

  For examples:

  *Doctor Strange* (appositive)

  *My school's guard* (possessive)

  *The children capability* (noun adjunct)

- **Verb**
  Verbs may appear as noun modifier are present participle, past participle and infinitive.

  For example:

  Sleeping child

  *Burnt cookies*

  *House to build*

The example of both present participle and past participle are as noun modifier that appear before noun.

However, occasionally the location of present participle can appear after noun provided that it is followed by the next utterance, such as water boiling in the kitchen. From the example, we can see that 'boiling' appear after the head 'water'. Whereas infinitive can modify noun if it appears after noun.

- **Adverb**

  If adverbs as modifier usually appear after noun. For example: sky above, *a pen over here, her walking quicky*.

- **Prepositional Phrase**

  It is classified into three category bases on their morphemic structure:

  (1) **simple prepositions**
  It only has one base. For example: till, over, than, before, of, up.

  (2) **compound prepositions**
  It has two or more free bases. For example: in between, except for, in conjunction with,

  (3) **phrasal prepositions**
  It composes of three words, they are a simple preposition, a noun, and another simple preposition. For example: in lieu of, in view of, with respect to, in love with.

**b. Verb as head**

According to Miller that one modifier or maybe no modifier can modify a head. It is also that many different form can modify a head. Francis stated that adverb, noun, adjective, and verb can modify a verb. When the verb is as a head, we ought to determine either the head is really just a verb or the head is any additional construction consisting of a verb (Sipahutar, Pangaribuan and Sihombing, 2017).

For example:

(a) Albert eats each cake delightfully.

(b) Albert eats delightfully eats each cake.

(c) Albert has delightfully eaten each cake.

As we can see from the example sentence (a), the adverb "delightfully" modifies the entire structure of complementation not only verb "Albert eats each cake". On the other hand, the second example (b), "delightfully" just modifies "eats".

There are certain modifiers which may can modify the verb:

- **Adverb.**

  When adverb is as verb modifier, it can appear in every position in the sentence: before verb, after verb, and between auxiliary and verb. In the first (a) and the second example, we see that the adverb as modifier which is located before and after a verb. In the meantime, in the third (c) example, "delightfully" appears between "has" (the auxiliary) and "eaten" (the verb).

- **Noun.**

  Noun can be as a verb modifier; it occurs when it follows the verb.

- **Adjective.**

  A fairly restricted number may have an even more limited number of adjectives as modifier. For example: That *concert had gone bad, the TV show went wrong, the mother feels happy, the man run wild, the cat goes mad, some cakes tasted weird.* It is acclaimed that the verbs in structure on this sort are of the kind we will determine as intransitive, and that nothing may appear between verb and adjective but a qualifier or an adverbial modifier of the adjective (Sipahutar, Pangaribuan and Sihombing, 2017)

- **Verb.**

The verb may modify by verb. It is by using present participle and infinitive as modifier.

For example:

The boys stop laughing.

She wanted to go.

- **Prepositional Phrase**.

For example: Jenny talks about her son.

**c. Adjective as head**

- **Qualifiers.**
Adjective modifier that usually appear is qualifier, such as *very, rather,* and *quiet*. For example: very interesting, quite good.

- **Adverb.**
Adverb appears directly prior to adjective-head if it modifies the adjective.
For example:

The deliciously chocolate cake

The awesomely gorgeous performance.

In addition, Francis described that if after the linking verb appear predicate, the adverb appearing after it seems to modify it. (Sipahutar, Pangaribuan and Sihombing, 2017). However indeed, the entire construction of complementation of which the adjective is a section if the adverb is placed in this location.

For example:

It is bright ahead.

The building looks empty everywhere.

- **Noun.**

The combination between adjective and noun takes on the superfix {'+'} in some accents or in some situations; it regards as compound words, instead of those structures of modification. It is frequently acknowledged in written text by hyphenating them or even writing them as one word.

For example:

ice-cold tea, world-wide beautician.

- **Verb.**

  The form of the verb is either in the present-participle inflection that appears earlier before the adjective or in the infinitive form that appears after the adjective. In this form the adjectives act as head.

  For example:

  Boiling hot, laughing mad, happy to hear that, sad to see.

- **Adjective.**

  Infrequently another adjective may modify the adjective. The interpretation is probably to be conventional, for example: pinkish white, light grey, icy cold.

- **Prepositional Phrase.**

  It is a very typical adjective-modifier. It appears directly after the adjective head.

For example: glorious of greatness, happy for the news

**d. Adverb as head**

- Qualifiers. For example: pretty badly, *rather well*
- Adverb. For example: *far away, sometimes below*
- Nouns. For example: *a foot away, that easily*
- Prepositional Phrases. For example**:** *away for a month, outside in the hot, behind in his painting.*

Furthermore, the structure of modification is discovered to have verb as head and modified by many kinds of form. Dikken stated that verb is the head of the sentence. It can be both lexical verb and non-lexical verb that have capacity to be

a head of a sentence, such as auxiliary copula, or modal (*Kajian Teori Syntactic Structure*, 2007).

### 6.2.2 Structure of Predication

The subject and predicate of a sentence are the actual element of structure of predication. Both of them are the important element in a clause or in a sentence. It is also stated by Meyer that subject and predicate are the most part that clause has (*Kajian Teori Syntactic Structure*, 2007). These elements shall be the fundamental concern to determine the four types of sentences in English: declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative sentence. Based on the description above, we understand which the existence of subject and predicate cannot be set apart in a sentence. The subject and the predicate appear simultaneously in a clause or a sentence and accomplish each other's function.

The **subject** and **predicate** can be one word. It is a word with following function word(s), a phrase, or it include from the three other kinds of syntactic structures: modification, complementation, and coordination.

**Predicates**. Predicate is a distinctive signature in the structure of predication. If we have identified the predicate of a sentence, we are easily to get the subject of a sentence. Predicate will consist of a verb or a verb phrase. Accordingly, when a sentence has just a single word predicate, that single word is definitely a verb, as *in the wind blows, the rain pours*.

Miller said that the verbs present formal feature that may be classified into seven head: **person, tense, phase, aspect, mode, voice,** and **status.** They are created by the factors of the inflections, auxiliaries, and other function words, word order, and prosody (*Kajian Teori Syntactic Structure*, 2007).

*a. Person*.
Most of English verbs have two persons, they are **common** and **third singular**. The third singular person has the verb form including the base form + {-s} inflection:

1) A noun for which *he, she* or *it* may be substituted.

   For example:

   *The girl talks;*

   *The bird tweets;*

   *The rain pours.*

2) One of the pronouns *he, she* or *it*.

   For example:

   *She sees;*

   *He runs*

3) The function nouns *this* or *that*.

   For example:

   *This stands over there;*

   *That puts over there.*

4) A structure of modification of which one of the above is head.

   For example: T*he bald man at the party falls.*

5) Types of other part of speech except a noun, or a structure of modification or complementation with such part of speech as head or verbal element.

   For example: swimming makes us healthy*.*

6) The distinguished construction of predication: the included clause and the infinitive clause.

   For example: *what you did last summer stays a secret.*

7) Using structure of coordination: *or, nor, (n)either … (n) or,* or *not only … but also*.

For example: n*either the students nor the teachers wear the uniform today.*

The **common** person is different type of subject as the above, such as the pronouns *I, you, we, they, me, him, her, us, them;* the function nouns: *these* and *those;* structures of coordination with coordinators *and, both … and*.

a. *Tense.*

In English actually has two tenses. The common tense or usually we call it the present tense and the past tense, except few of auxiliaries. The past tense form consists of the base + the inflectional suffix {-ed; the common tense forms are the base alone and the third singular (base + {-s}).

b. *Phase.*

The verbs other than a few auxiliaries hold two phases, the **simple** and the **perfect**. The **perfect** phase is featured by using different form of auxiliary *have* which is immediately followed by past participle verb form, for example: S*he has eaten, we should have been, he could have come*. Furthermore, other form of verbs, we can identify them as **intransitive**, which has a **resultative** phase. This phase is set with the auxiliary *be* and the past- participle form of the verb, for example: S*he was gone, they are fed up with the schedule*. The rest of the verbs which are not regularly set in the perfect or resultative phase are in the **simple phase**.

c. *Aspect.*

There are three aspects in English verbs. They are the **simple**, the **durative**, and the **inchoative**. The **simple** aspect in unmarked. The **durative** is made by the auxiliary *be* and the present participle (*be* + base + {- ing}) form of the verb, for example: I *was walking, we are discussing*. The **inchoative** aspect is made by the auxiliary *get* and the present participle (*get* + base + {-ing}) form of verb, for example: They *will get discussing, let's get dancing.*

d. *Mode.*

Based on the form of the verbs, mode can be categorized within two groups: (1) Verb which is formed by the **modal auxiliaries** (*can, may, shall, will, must, dare, need, do) and* immediately followed by the bare infinitive, for example: S*he can dance; I do try; you can talk* and (2) verb that is formed by other specific **auxiliaries** (*have, be, be going, be about, used, ought, get, have got*) and immediately followed by the infinitive (other auxiliaries + *to* + base), for example: He has to sing*; he used to dance; They have got to listen.* A verb-phrase can be part of two modes in the meantime. In addition, just one can be from the modal-auxiliary category, and its auxiliary regularly appears first in the phrase. For example: s*he should be able to make it,* not s*he should can make it*.

e. *Voice.*

As we all know that in English verbs consist of two voices, the **normal** or **active voice** and the **passive voice**. The passive voice patterns have the pattern of the auxiliary *be* with the past-participle verb. The other passive patterns have *get* as auxiliary also with the past participle form of the verb. The *get* as auxiliary is not very common. We can see the table example below to show the illustration of voice in English:

| ACTIVE | PASSIVE | |
|---|---|---|
| | Be- | Get- |
| Ali beats. | Ali is beaten. | Ali gets beaten. |
| She wrote the novel. | The novel was written. | The novel got written. |
| I have submitted the paper. | The paper has been submitted. | The paper has got submitted. |

*f. Status.*

The **affirmative**, the **interrogative**, the **negative**, and the **negative-interrogative are** the four statuses in English**.** The **interrogative** is characterized by a shift in word order, for example: are they leaving*? has she cried?* or the first auxiliary if more than one is present. Verbs that do not have auxiliary in the affirmative use the auxiliary *do/does/did* to form the interrogative, except *be*, that constantly merely reverses subject and verb, and *have*, that can reverse or use the forms of *do*. In addition, according to Francis that the auxiliaries, such as *get, used (to)* apply the forms of *do* (Sipahutar, Pangaribuan and Sihombing, 2017). For example: *does she eat breakfast? did they get lost? does she have to go?* The **negative** is characterized by the insertion of the special function word not directly after the first auxiliary. The last status is the **negative-interrogative** mix the two previous statuses.

### 6.2.3 Structure of Complementation

This structure consists of verbal element and complement. There are some forms of verbal element:

- A simple verb: She sings a beautiful song.
- A verb-phrase: The students were playing skateboard.
- An infinitive: A boy to clean up the mess.
- A structure of coordination: I prepared dinner and served it to the guesses.

There are three main classifications of this element:

a. Linking verbs

It is considered as structural connection between subject and complement. Some linking verbs are: be (as a full verb, not an auxiliary), become, seem, remain, look, and sound.

For example: The child seems happy.

b. Intransitive verbs

This type of verb can appear in the active voice as complete predicates without any complement. Intransitive verb has neither complement nor past form. The verb can be modified in difference form, but due to no complement, they cannot occur as verbal elements of structures of complementation.

For example:

This fridge is working,

The sun rises in the east,

The snow drops.

c. Transitive verbs

This verb usually has a complement if in the form of active voice and also have past forms.

For example: A rich *woman bought two houses.*

This verb has both complement and past form. The sentence on the example is able to change into passive form by changing the predicate "bought" change into "were bought" and the complement "two houses" change the position into subject, Two houses were bought by a rich woman. Complement as the component of structure of complementation has some types, they are:

1) ***Subjective complement*** is the complement appearing with linking verb. This complement can be a word, with or without connected function words, or they are structures that have various degree of complicatedness. On the example below, we can see some sentences of objective only using single word:

   - The man is a doctor.

- Ripeness is all
- The mango is sour.
- The time is now
- Her dream is to be with her kids.
- Robert is cooking in the kitchen.
- The plants are watered.
- You came in time.

These are the examples of objective complement using complex structure:

- Structure of Modification: her strategy was to leave quietly without making noises.
- Structure of Coordination: the cookies are sweet, crunchy, and delicious.
- Structure of Complementation: her duty is to watch the process of making doughnut using automatic equipment.
- Structure of Predication (included clauses): the problem is that the little child does not remember the way home.

2) ***Object*** is the complements occurring with transitive verbs.

There are two type of objects that appear after the transitive verb, the direct object and the indirect object (Sipahutar, Pangaribuan and Sihombing, 2017).

These are the example of direct object that only have one word:

- Noun: She take the offer.
- Pronoun: he watches her.
- Function verb: they offer some.

- Infinitive: I like to eat.
- Present participle: my husband stops smoking.

These are the example of direct object that have complex structure:

- Structure of Modification: he loves hiking in the mountain alone.
- Structure of Coordination: the building will need bigger rooms and wider window.
- Structure of Complementation: He likes reading novel.
- Structure of Predication: He knew she came.

These are the examples of indirect object:

- Sam passed Alberta the plate.
- They will ask each a question.
- My father brought me a homemade chicken soup.
- He bought a poor guy a burger.
- She teaches her son and daughter a math lesson.

3) ***Objective complement*** is the complement that appear in the sentence with transitive verb that is directly followed by direct object.

For example:

- They make him a leader.
- She will color her room pink.
- I find her sad.
- we have considered the work done.
- She will leave him in madness.
- I make her the leader of the group.
- I will color my room green, yellow, and purple.

There are certain requirements to be objective complement:

- When we use active verbs in the sentence, we can only use objective complement with a direct object.

- The objective complements usually occur after the direct object.
- The structural referent of objective complement is similar with direct object.
- Verbal element only occur if the sentence in the passive voice structure.

4) ***Object with passive verb.*** A verbal element in the passive voice may acquire a complement, yet it usually involves of one word. It can be direct object, indirect object or objective complement.

For example:

She is bought a car. (direct object)

A car is bought to her. (indirect object)

She was elected major. (objective complement)

Gelderen has grouped the classification of verbs and the complements that accompanies as we can see on the table below (*Kajian Teori Syntactic Structure*, 2007):

| **Verbs classifications** | **Examples** | **Complements** |
|---|---|---|
| Intransitive | Cry, die, come | - |
| Transitive | Kick, hit, bring | Direct object |
| Ditransitive | Buy, call, build | Direct & indirect object |
| Copula (linking verb) | Be, seem, feel | Subjective predication |
| Complex transitive | Suggest, think, believe | Direct object & objective predication |

| Verbs classifications | Examples | Complements |
|---|---|---|
| Prepositional | Agree with, approve of | Prepositional object |
| Phrasal | Turn off, move out, put on | Direct object |
| Phrasal preposition | come up against, face up to, get on with | Prepositional object |

### 8.2.4 Structure of Coordination

The structure has of two or more syntactically equivalent units united in a structure that which work as a single unit. The units united can be anything in the parts of speech, function words, or more complex structures.

| Middle | Split | Correlative |
|---|---|---|
| And | Rather than | Not only … but also |
| But | As well as | Either …. or |
| Nor | Together with | Neither …. nor |
| Not | Along with | Both …. and |
| Or | | |

In the first column, they usually occur in between to join the element. In the second column, they occur that kind of location: they can still register in definite split structures, and in the third column, correlative, have separate parts. The first part

occur at the beginning of the construction and the second part is between its last two components.

We can call a series of a structure of coordination if it has more than two. For example: *navy, green, and grey*. Actually, the coordinators are not usually applied between the construction of coordination implies that the construction can be commonly having more than one meaning, as you can see from the sentence example below:

My mother calls her colleague friend a doctor and an engineer.

When we do not use the punctuation, the sentence will have three likely meaning:

a. *a doctor and an engineer* is a modifier of *her colleague*. Therefore colleague*, doctor,* and *engineer* three of them has the same reference, just a person was invited by *my mother*.

b. *Her colleague* is an indirect object and a doctor and an engineer is direct object. In this case, *my mother* invited *a doctor and an engineer* for *her colleague*.

c. *Her colleague a doctor* and *an engineer* is a series of structure of coordination.

Another vague meaning can occur as in the sentence below:

*She walks and dances gracefully.*

The example above can have double meanings:

a. The adverb gracefully modifies the entire construction of coordination, so it is appropriate for both of the verbs.

b. The adverb gracefully just modifies *dances*, so it does not include with *walks* at all

The structure in which a single component is believed to be working in two different positions in this structure can correctly be called an **elliptical structure**. Here are some examples:

1) He wants rare steak not medium.

2) She asked Maria to go at eight and Jane at eleven.

3) The building was painted light grey and the ware house brown.

In the first sentence, we can see that *rare steak* and *medium* are united by the coordinator *not* to make a structure of coordination which work as the direct object of *wants*. But these constructions are not syntactically equivalent. If we want them to be equivalent, we must to put *steak* or use a function noun like *ones* after *medium*. But in some cases, it is easier to assume that the *steak* in the structure is omitted or just imaginary due to repetition like the sentence below:

He wants rare steak not medium (steak).

Shall we compare with the following sentence: *rare not medium steak,* in this case, *rare not medium* is modifier of the head *steak*. We can conclude that there is no ellipsis on the structure. Now we see the examples of 2) and 3), we can do the same with the example 1). *To go* can be comprehended as repetition between *Maria* and *at*, and *was painted* may best be repeated in example 3).

## REFERENCES

Sipahutar, R.A., Pangaribuan, T. and Sihombing, P. (2017) 'Syntactic Structure Analysis of the Third Semester Students of English Department at FKIP UHN Pematangsiantar (A Government Binding Perspective) Reina', *JETAFL Publishing*, (December), pp. 69–88.

# CHAPTER VII
# ENGLISH SENTENCE ANALYSES USING CHINESE BOX

**By Stefanus Igolois Grenga Uran**

## 7.1 Introduction

In linguistics, the phrase "syntactic category" is used in a variety of ways. Syntactic category functions as a node in a syntactic representation of a diagram, most often in a syntactic tree diagram. As introduced in the previous chapters, sentences are not more than just strings of words of various kinds. Rather, they have structures. Most syntacticians assume that words are grouped together to form larger units or phrases of various kinds. Such a grouping is known as a **constituent structure** (Miller, 2002; Radford, 2004; Carnie, Sato and Siddiqi, 2014).

There are several ways of representing constituent structure. They include Labelled and Bracketing Strings, Chinese Boxes, and Tree Diagrams. Using **labelled bracketing** is a difficult task to present a syntactic structure. This technique is also rarely used in syntactic descriptions because it does not clearly demonstrate the syntactic characteristics of the structure being described. In contrast to other strategies, this kind of presenting syntactic structures will not be completely disregarded for the time being; rather, it will be used only when it is deemed necessary. On the other hand, the structure of a sentence can be visually displayed using **tree diagrams** (Radford, 2004), also known as Phrase-Markers (PM). The diagram resembles an upside-down tree with branches growing

downward from a central node. It is a collection of positions or nodes with associated syntactic categories and relationships.

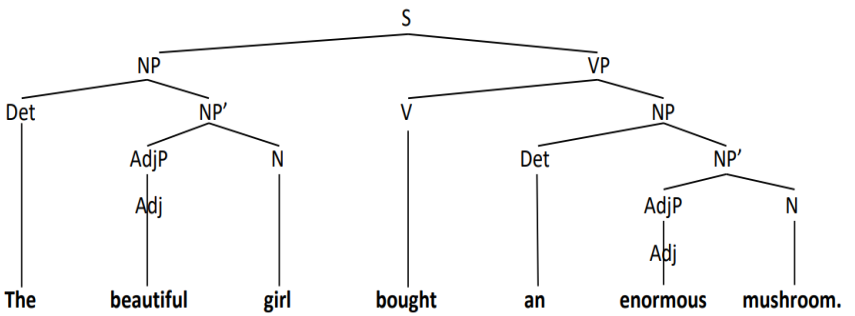
**Chinese Box**, surprisingly, is rarely found in several pieces of literature. Therefore, this chapter will focus more on the Chinese Box as a tool to analyse constituent structures in English sentences. Chinese box, or the so-called nested box (Carnie, Sato and Siddiqi, 2014), consists of layers of boxes one within the other showing the hierarchical order of the lexical items that build up the structure. Consider the following sentence example in a Chinese box while being compared to labelled and bracketing string and tree diagram.

*The beautiful girl bought an enormous mushroom.*

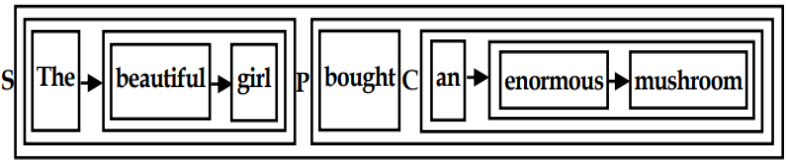
Labelled bracket:

[S[$NP_1$[Det $the_2$][$NP_2$[Adj $beautiful_3$][N $girl_3$]]][$VP_1$[$V_2$ bought][$NP_2$[Det $an_3$][$NP_3$[Adj $enormous_4$][N $mushroom_4$]]]]]

Tree Diagram:




Chinese Box:




Unlike the tree diagram, a Chinese Box does not tell in detail any syntactic and grammatical features that the sentence has. Even though some syntactic relationships are indicated by using some symbols, phrasal categories of each element building up the structure are not presented. Some symbols used in presenting a syntactic structure using Chinese Box are:

1. An arrow (→) shows a modified-modifier relationship; the arrow points toward the head in the structure, so the arrow points to the left when the head is on the left (←).
2. **P** indicates subject-predicate relationship; when the verb (predicator) is on the right, the symbol is written as it is (the letter "**P**"), but when the predicator is on the left, the "**P**" is written reversely (**q**).
3. **C** shows a verb-complement relationship; when the complement is on the right, the symbol is written as it is (the letter "**C**"), but when the complement is on the left, the "**C**" is written reversely (Ↄ).

In this chapter, the analysis of sentence structure is based on the Chinese box only. The sentence structure will mostly refer to the basic sentence structure with some compound sentences.

## 7.2 Basic Sentence Structure in Chinese Boxes

Several grammatical functions build up an English basic sentence. They include **subject**, **object**, **subject complement**, **object complement**, **modifier**, and **predicate (verb)**. There are also several Basic English sentence patterns in English based on the types of sentence elements that make up the structure. The

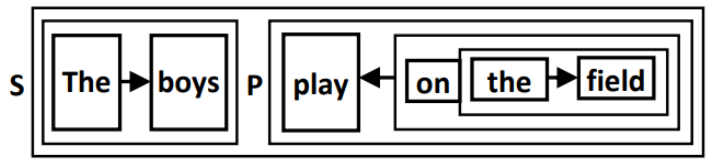
patterns are described one by one with their representation on the Chinese Boxes in the following.

### 7.2.1 Subject + Intransitive Verb

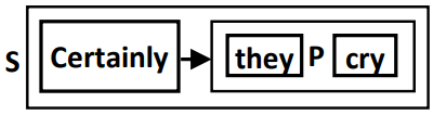
The subject and the intransitive verb are the only two required elements in this pattern. Without an object, a verb is said to be intransitive. This pattern may be supplemented with an adverb, such as an adverb of *time*, *place*, *manner*, or *frequency*. This pattern may appear with or without adverbs because they are optional. Time, place, and manner adverbs are typically positioned at the end of the pattern. When this occurs, they proceed in the following more-or-less set order: place-manner-time. When an adverb modifies the entire sentence, it is called a *sentence adverb*. This type of adverb has the ability to appear in a range of sentence positions and often expresses an attitude or evaluation. Adverbs phrases may be in the form of complex structures within which there may exist clauses.

Consider the following examples (red indicates subject, blue indicates intransitive verb, and green indicates optional adverb):

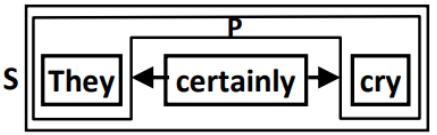
*a) The boys play on the field.*



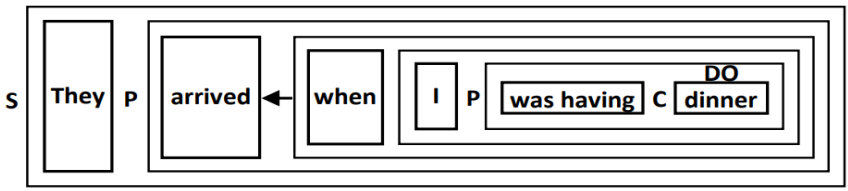

*b) Certainly, they cry.* Or, *They certainly cry.*




*or,*



*c) They arrived when I was having dinner.*

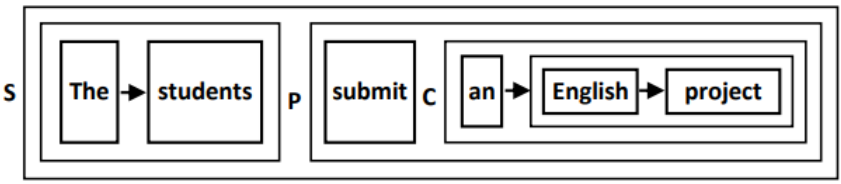



### 7.2.2 Subject + Transitive Verb + Object

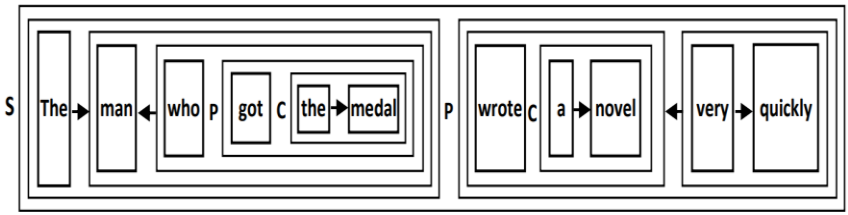
This pattern has three main sentence components: a *subject*, a *transitive verb*, and an *object*. Due to the necessity of these three components, a sentence may become incoherent and incomplete if any one of them is missing. Like the previous pattern, this pattern may be enlarged by adding adverbial elements, such as adverbs of manner, time, place and frequency.

Consider the following examples (red indicates the subject, blue indicates a transitive verb, orange indicates an object, and green indicates an optional adverb.

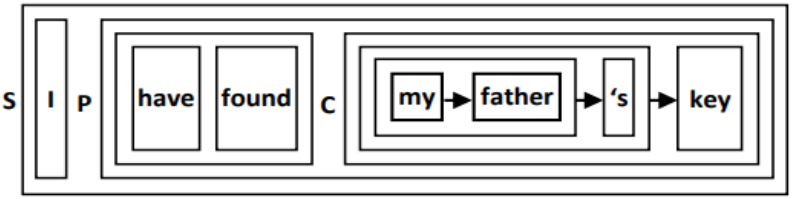
*a) The students submit an English project.*




*b) The man who got the medal wrote a novel very quickly.*



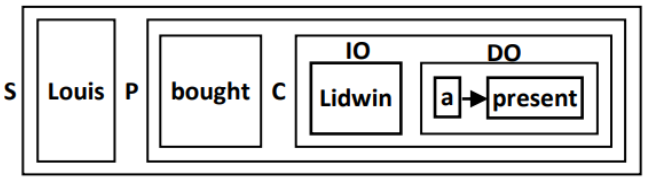
*c) I have found my father's key.*



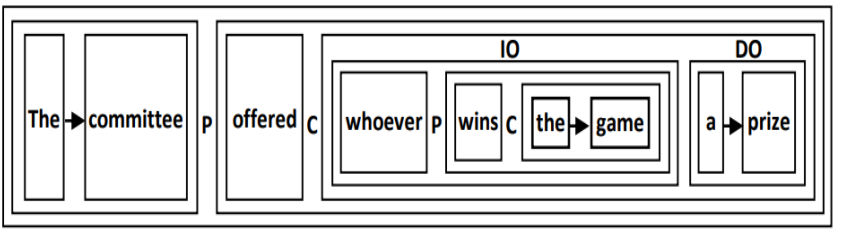

### 7.2.3 Subject + Ditransitive Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object

The subject, the verb (which is ditransitive because it needs two objects), and two objects—an indirect object and a direct object—make up the pattern's four essential components. This pattern frequently appears with certain verbs: *bring*, *get*, *give*, *hand*, *leave*, *offer*, *pass*, *send*, *take*, *tell*, *read*, *write*, *teach*, *buy*, *sell*, *fix*, and *make*. Consider the following examples (red indicates a subject, blue indicates a ditransitive verb, orange indicates an indirect object, and green indicates a direct object).

*a) Louis bought Lidwin a present.*



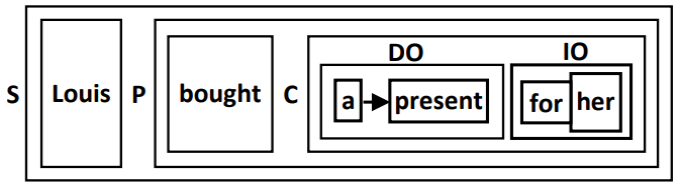

*b) The committee offered whoever wins the game a prize.*



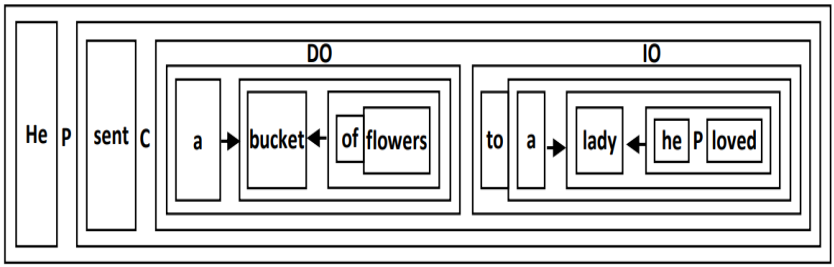
### 7.2.4 Subject + Ditransitive Verb + Direct Object + Indirect Object

It can be challenging to distinguish between the direct and indirect nature of the two objects, though. The person to whom, or occasionally for whom, something (the direct object) is *given*, *sent*, *told*, and so forth is known as the *indirect object*. It is the one that can be expressed in a prepositional phrase when the structure is constructed in another way. All of the aforementioned verbs (cf. 7.2.3)—aside from *buy*, *fix*, and *make*—can be followed by a prepositional phrase using the preposition "to." *Buy*, *fix*, and *make* are only followed by the prepositional phrase "for". Consider the following examples (red indicates a subject, blue indicates a ditransitive verb, green indicates a direct object, and orange indicates an indirect object).

*a) Louis bought a present for her.*




*b) He sent a bucket of flowers to a lady he loved.*

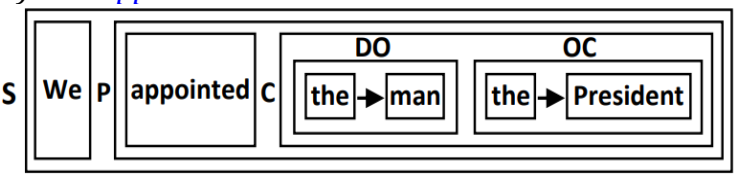



### 7.2.5 Subject + Transitive Verb + Object + Noun as Object Complement

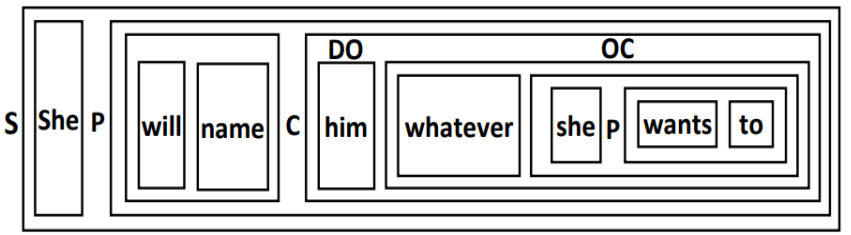
This pattern initially seems to be very similar to pattern 7.2.3 because the object complement in this pattern can be a noun. But upon closer inspection, it turns out to be quite different.

In Pattern 7.2.3, the two nouns that occur after the verb are not related to each other. Instead, each has its own relationship to the verb. One is a Direct Object and the other is an Indirect Object. In this current pattern, however, the two nouns after the verb are really two different names for the same person or thing. The second noun renames the first and adds to its meaning. In addition, the verbs like *appoint*, *elect* and *name* require a noun as the object complement. Consider the following examples (red indicates the subject, blue indicates the transitive verb, orange indicates an object, and green indicates object complement).

*a) We appointed the man the President.*




*b) She will name him whatever she wants to.*



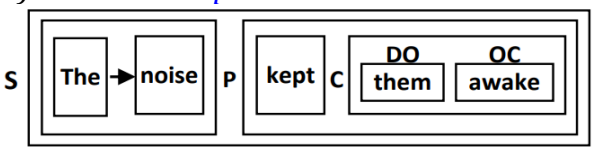

The first noun phrase after the verb in the sentences above is the direct object; the second noun phrase or noun clause is the object complement. The object complement is necessary to complete the sentence and to complete the meaning of the direct object.

### 7.2.6 Subject + Transitive Verb + Object + Adjective as Object Complement

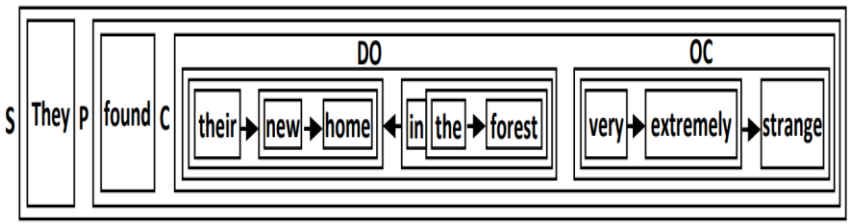
Another variation of the pattern S+TV+O+OC contains an adjective as an object complement. The adjective refers back to the same noun as the direct object and adds meaning to it. In this

variation, most of the verbs that were used in the previous variation work just as well. Some verbs, like *like* and *keep*, however, demand only an adjective as the object complement. Consider the following examples (red indicates the subject, blue indicates the transitive verb, orange indicates an object, and green indicates object complement).

*a) The noise kept them awake.*



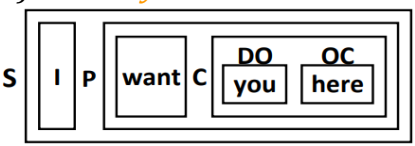

*b) They found their new home in the forest very extremely strange.*



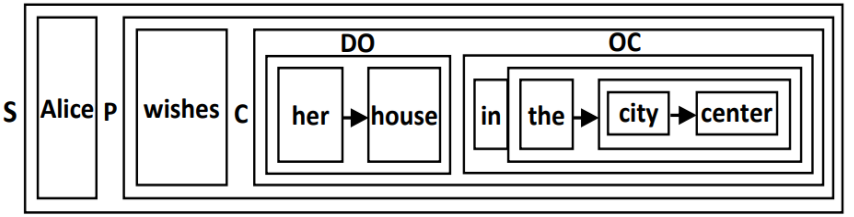

### 7.2.7 Subject + Transitive Verb + Object + Adverb as Object Complement

Another variation of this pattern (S+TV+O+OC) may require an adverb as an object complement. Consider the following examples (red indicates the subject, blue indicates the transitive verb, orange indicates an object, and green indicates object complement).

*a) I want you here.*



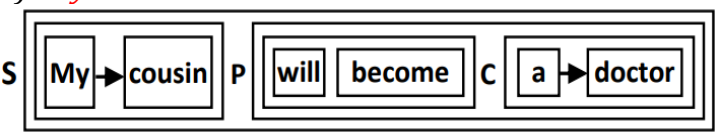
*b) Alice wishes her house in the city center.*



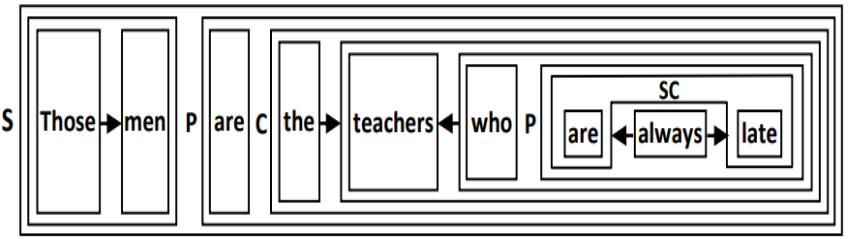

### 7.2.8 Subject + Linking Verb + Noun as Subject Complement

In this pattern, a linking verb connects the subject of the sentences to a complement, which is a noun, that tells something about or renames the subject. The complement can be a noun or pronoun and is often called the *predicate nominative*. The most common linking verb used in this pattern is *BE*. However, such verbs as *become*, *remain*, *continue*, *prove*, and *stay* may also be used in this pattern. Consider the following examples (red indicates subject, blue indicates linking verb, and green indicates subject complement).

*a) My cousin will become a doctor.*



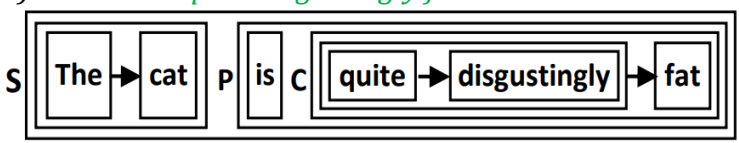

*b) Those men are the teachers who are always late*



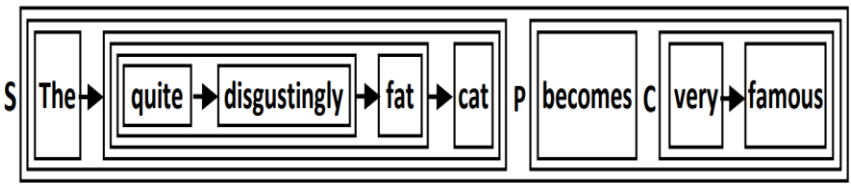
### 7.2.9 Subject + Linking Verb + Adjective as Subject Complement

The subject complement used in this pattern is an adjective which tells something about or qualifies the subject. The most common linking verb used in this pattern is *BE*, however, such verbs as *remain*, *stay*, *become*, *appear*, *continue*, *look*, *feel*, *grow*, *seem*, and *taste* may be used as linking verbs. Consider the following examples (red indicates subject, blue indicates linking verb, and green indicates subject complement).

*a) The cat is quite disgustingly fat.*



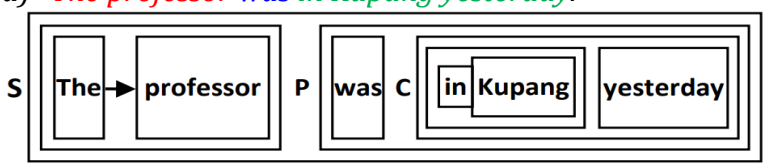

*b) The quite disgustingly fat cat becomes very famous.*




### 7.2.10 Subject + Linking Verb + Adverb as Subject Complement

Notice that the only linking verb used in this pattern is *BE* and that the adverb may be either an adverb of time or place. When both adverbs occur simultaneously in the same pattern, the adverb of place normally goes before the adverb of time. Consider the following example (red indicates subject, blue indicates linking verb, and green indicates subject complement).

*a) The professor was in Kupang yesterday.*

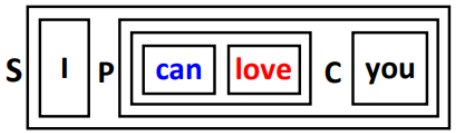


## 7.3 Some Other Sentence Structures

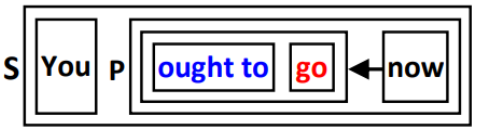
### 7.3.1 Sentence with Modal Auxiliary

Modal auxiliary (MOD) denotes a modality that enables us to express whether a situation is *likely*, *possible*, *necessary*, etc. The modal auxiliaries include the verbs WILL and WOULD, which denote volition or prediction, CAN, COULD, MAY, and MIGHT, which denote possibility or probability, SHALL, SHOULD, MUST, and OUGHT TO, which denote obligation, and marginally NEED, DARE, and USED TO. A modal auxiliary does not carry tense and always appears with an infinitive, either with *to* before it or a bare infinitive (without to). Consider the following example.

a) *I can love you.*




b) *You ought to go now.*




### 7.3.2 Sentence with Primary Auxiliary HAVE and BE

Our discussion here is limited to the auxiliary HAVE and BE, which stand for aspect (ASP) and voice, respectively. Aspect has to do with timing and how actions or states relate to durations or time periods. Aspects come in two types: perfect and progressive. The auxiliary HAVE indicates the *prefect aspect (PERF)*, which is then followed by a verb in the *-en* tense, also known as the *past participle*. Primary auxiliaries, as opposed to modal axillaries, carry tense. The first element in a verb group without a modal is always designated for tense; this is the element that comes after tense. If there is only one element in the verb

group, it is the element that carries tense, but if there is a primary auxiliary, the auxiliary carries it.

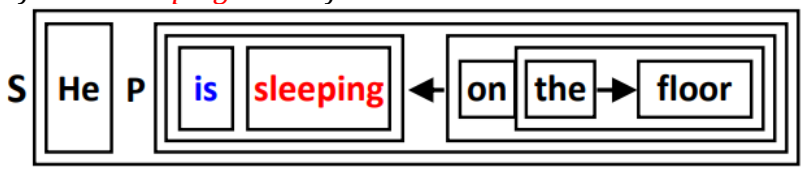
a) *The children have finished their homework.*


Tense is ineligible when the modal auxiliary is combined with the perfect. Although various auxiliary types are allowed to coexist, each type can only do so once in a verb-group structure.

b) *They might have submitted their papers.*

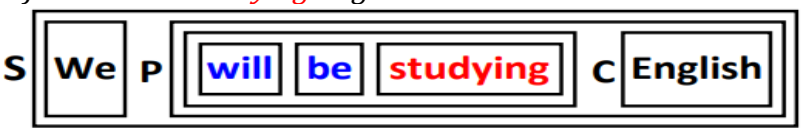

The progressive aspect is indicated by the presence of the auxiliary BE and is followed by *base verb + {-ing}* or often called the *present participle*, as shown below.

c) *He is sleeping on the floor.*

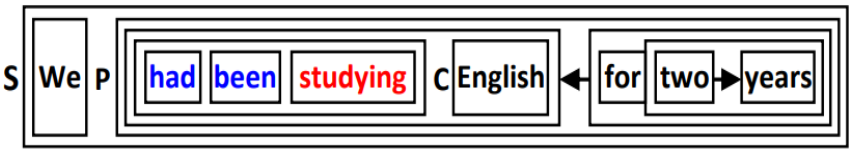



The progressive can also combine with MODAL and/or PERFECT Auxiliaries, as in the following examples.

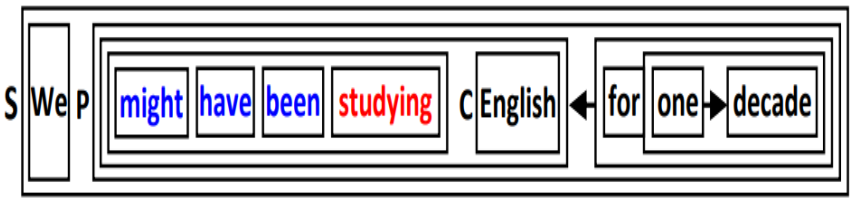
d) *We will be studying English.*



e) *We had been studying English for two years.*



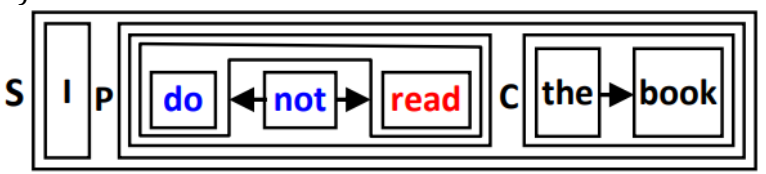

f) *We might have been studying English for one decade.*



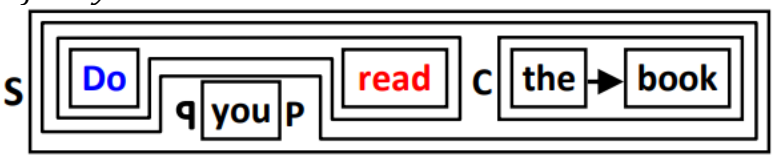

### 7.3.3 Sentence with Primary Auxiliary DO

When no other auxiliary verb is already present and a specific construction calls for it, the primary auxiliary DO appears to support the lexical verb. The primary auxiliary DO can be found in *negative sentence structures*, *question structures*, and *emphasis-based constructions*, as in the following examples, respectively.

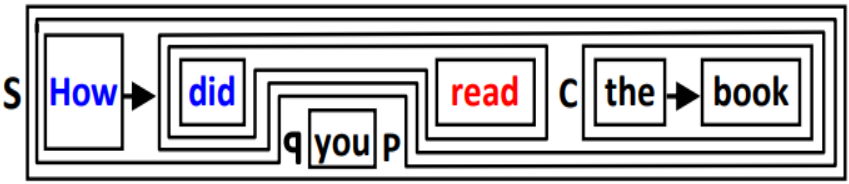
a) *I do not read the book.*



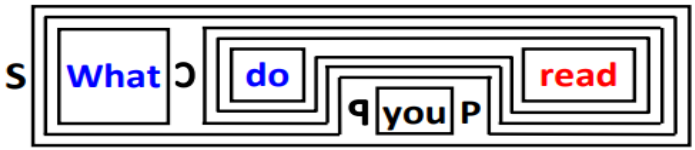

b) *Do you read the book?*



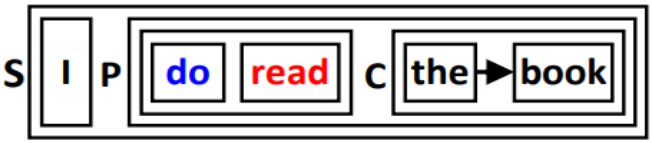
c) *How did you read the book?*




d) *What do you read?*



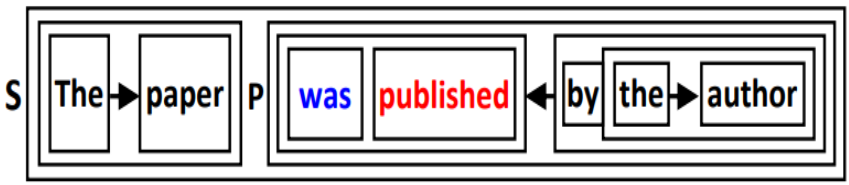

e) *I do read the book.*




### 7.3.4 Sentence Structure with Passive Voice

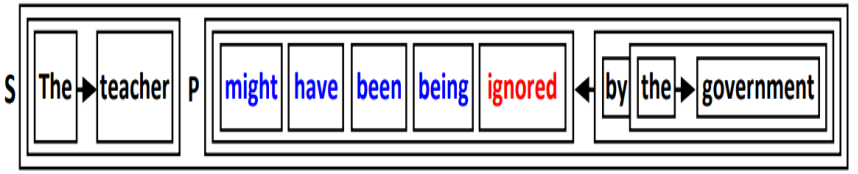
To change the sentence into PASSIVE VOICE, we first switch the position of the agent and the patient from the ACTIVE VOICE. To retain the original meaning, we must modify the verb group in the structure. The agent or the doer is put into a prepositional phrase indicating that it is the noun in the phrase that commits the action mentioned in the verb group.

*a) The paper was published by the author*




Passive can also appear with other auxiliaries. We therefore may have the structures as described in the following.

b) *The teacher might have been being ignored by the government.*




An analysis of the constructions that occur in sentences reveals patterns of similarity. For example, there is a recurrent pattern in which one of the constituents seems to be a head of some kind and the other constituent a modifier. Such a construction is called a structure of modification. Thus a structure of modification consists of a head and a modifier, whose meaning serves to broaden, qualify, select, change, describe, or in some other way affect the meaning of the head.

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# CHAPTER VIII
# SENTENCES ANALYSIS TREE DIAGRAM

**By Suzanna Widjajanti**

## 8.1 Introduction

As in the previous chapters, Both syntax and morphology discuss and relate to the structure. Morphology studies the grammatical relationships in the self-word, meanwhile, syntax studies the grammatical relationship of the words in the sentence or the structure of phrases and sentences. Syntax is the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages. (Chomsky in Wang, 2010)

The principles and processes of organizing words into sentences adhere to two basic principles of sentence organization make **linear order and hierarchical structure**. Linear order regards that the words in the sentence must be constructed in a particular sequence to get the desired meaning, for example, the following sentence:

(1) William stared at Kate

If the sentence order is changed into the following sentence (2) becomes nonsense (ungrammatical expression ):

(2) Kate William stared

or with a sentence whose meaning is distinctly different from that of (1):

(3) Kate stared at William.

The ordering of the words in sentences determines, in part, whether a grammatical sentence and what the sentence means. However, referring to the use of rule words in the sentence, language varies in how they order words, as in the following example:

(4) French:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| la | soeur | de | Jean |
| [la | sőʁ | dð | žã] |
| The | sister | of | Jean |

"Jean's sister" → English

Whereas, hierarchical structure regards the words in the sentence as organized into natural, semantically coherent groupings in sentences ( from the smallest of individual words to the larger grouping). These groupings within a sentence form are called **constituents** of the sentence. The relationship between constituents in a sentence form the **constituent structure** of the sentence.

There are two ways to analyze the constituency of the sentence. Firstly, using a constituent test and secondly, using a tree diagram, however, this chapter is more elaborate using a tree diagram to analyze the constituency of the sentence. The tree diagram of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis. (Chomsky, 1957, p.11). Therefore, this chapter is more focused on the tree diagram and constituent structure at the basic phrase structure rule.

## 8.2 Tree diagrams

The tree diagrams are one way to present a graphical structure sentence in which words are grouped to form constituents, which, in turn, formed larger constituents by labeling each of the **nodes,** or points that indicate syntactic category both lexical or phrasal category in the tree diagram. (Department of Linguistics, 2001) For example, as follows:

(5) My father is an artist

The phrasal constituent of the sentence can be written by labeling them and seen as follows:

(a) my father (NP)
(b) is an artist (VP)
(c) an artist (NP)
(d) my father is an artist (S)

thus, they can be presented in a tree diagram as follows:

(6)

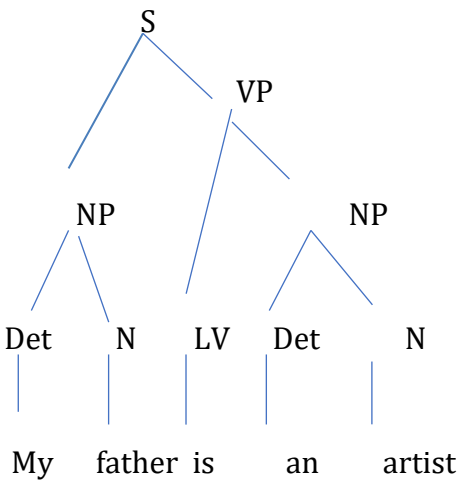



**Figure 8.1.** Tree diagram for my father is an artist

The tree diagram represents many aspects of the structure of a sentence. Firstly, the words come up in some specific order, proper order. Secondly, the categories to which words and phrases belong are indicated; such as the noun *father* is labeled as an N, and the phrase my father is labeled as an NP. Furthermore, the hierarchical structure is represented by the line, which indicates which words group to form constituents, and, in turn, which constituents join to form larger constituents such as the line from the DET above an and the line from the N above *artist* at a node to indicate that the DET+N form a constituent. This constituent joins with the LV above to form another constituent,

as indicated by the lines above NP and LV, which join at a node labeled VP.

Moreover, in drawing tree diagrams, it is known as ternary and binary branching trees. They have been familiar with the study syntax. Using them to represent the words categories and hierarchical structure of a constituent sentence such as *" My friend will borrow my book"*. Beginners of syntax tend to draw ternary branching as shown in (7),

(7)

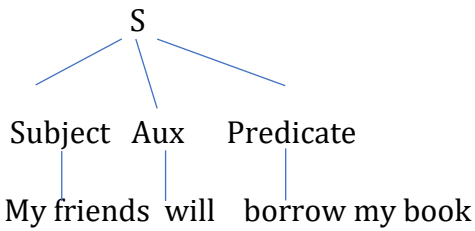



**Figure 8.2.** Ternary branching of a tree diagram for my friends will borrow my book.

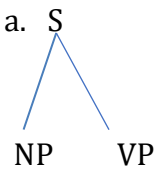
Undoubtedly, using a tree diagram in analyzing the hierarchical structure of a constituent sentence inherently with a set of rules called **phrase structure rules**(PS rules) as means for studying the syntax of human languages. Phrase structure rules in English are simple instructions for building larger constituents from smaller ones and information about the order in which constituents appear and their categories. This explanation can be seen as follows: PS rule in (7a) instructs (7b) and (7c)

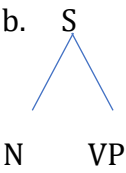
(8) a. S ⟶ NP VP

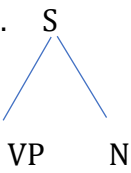
b. To build a constituent of the category S, form a constituent of the category NP and combine it with another constituent of the category VP

c. In building an S constituent in this manner, put the NP constituent first and the VP constituent after it.

The instruction of building a constituent lying on its order and categories can be graphically presented in tree diagrams as followed:

(9) a. 


b. 


c. 


(8a) it descriptively shows that a sentence is formed from an NP and a VP in that order and (9a) it graphically shows the derivation of the sentence into a tree structure, an NP and a VP, as consequently there is a direct connection between PS rules and tree structure. However, in (9b) and (9c), their tree structures are not included in (9a), they are numerous other trees.

Refers to Phrase Structure Rule, what kind of structure enables appeared of the simplest nodes NP and VP or extension of them, and also how to present them in the tree diagram?

As mentioned that an S (sentence) is made up of an NP (Noun Phrase) followed by a VP (Verb Phrase)

(10) S → NP VP
NP → Det N
VP → V NP

In the sentence, a single NP enables to construct as follows:

(11) a. house (N)
b. the houses ( D N)
c. the three houses ( D Num N)
d. the three wooden houses ( D Num Adj N)
e. the three wooden houses in the woods near the river by town (D Num Adj N PP PP PP)

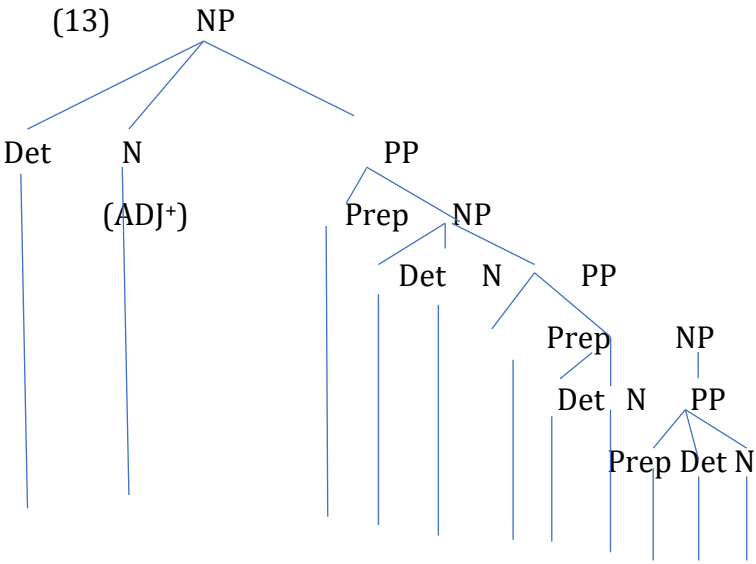
after abstracting all of the elements and writing them into general PS rules, NPs in the parentheses, then put a subscript ”n” indicates

that element can be repeated any number of times and is optional, thus it can be seen as follows:

(12) NP → (Det)n (Num)n (Adj)n N (PP)n

An NP consists of a determiner(n), followed by a numeral (n), followed by an adjective(n), then N(absolute), and a prepositional phrase (n). From these PS rules, it is found that ”NP” undergoes expansion like another PP inside it, this is called **recursion.** (Anderson, 2018). It can be represented in a tree diagram as follows:

(13)




the (three wooden houses) in the woods near the river by the town

**Figure 8.3.** Tree diagrams for the three wooden houses in the woods near the river by the town

Relate to recursion, the Phrase Structure Rule for NPs refers to prepositional phrases (PP) that belong to fewer possible shapes than NPs and generates after that abstracting of a single phrase structure rule:

(14) NP → Det N PP
PP → Prep NP

This descriptively shows that every NP is allowed to contain PP, which in turn contains an NP, which in turn contains a PP, and so on. This set of rules assumes that there is in principle no bound on the length of a noun phrase.

Furthermore, a single NP can be inserted by any number of adjectives, however, an infinite number of structures could be generated just adhered to or from two rules, NP PP, and turn into one. Thus, for abstracting PS Rules with some extra notation. The symbol "+" on a constituent in PS rules. It means that using" one or more", meanwhile, parentheses around a constituent shows that it is optional. It can be seen in the sentence follows:

(15) She is a little, furry, cute, friendly cat.

Thus, PS rules as follows:

(16) NP → Det (ADJ$^{+}$) N

Another constituent, VP itself enables to put intransitive VPs, that don't require an object or just a verb, transitive VPs with one NP, and ditransitive VPs with two NPs. The phrase structure rule is as follows:

(17) a. VP → Vintrans

b. VP → Vtrans NP

c. VP → Vditrans NP NP

d. VP → Vditrans NP PP

thus, a single VP enables to modify by putting adverb phrases at the beginning or end of VPs, such as the sentence, "*the children always put the books on the shelf neatly and orderly*.", so

the general phrase structure rule for this VP can be seen as follows:

(18) VP → (AdvP) V (NP) (NP/PP) (AdvP)n

Regarding this sentence, PS rules can be seen in some tree diagrams.

(19)

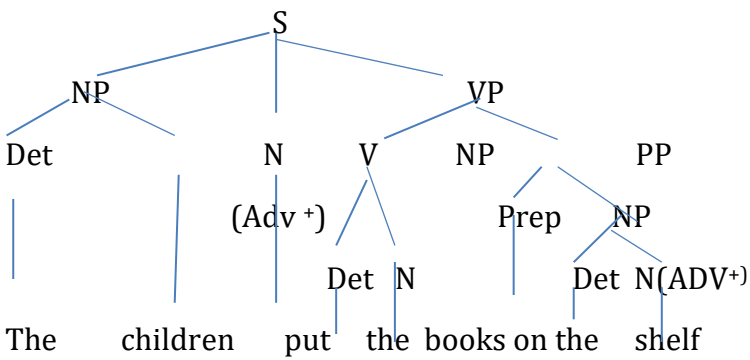



**Figure 8.4.** The tree diagram for the children always put the books on the shelf neatly and orderly, it can be seen that the recursion, with putting adverb in constituent VP in the tree diagram no need appeared.

## 8.3. Some problems in making tree diagrams

### 8.3.1 Transformation of PS rules with auxiliary

Categories in syntax are different from parts of speech, word classes, and pedagogical grammar. Parts of speech are mostly used in labeling categories in trees, e.g. labeling auxiliaries such as will, would, may, and might as Aux, a sentence as S, and a subordinate clause as S'. As be found in Xu in Wang, 2010). However, in syntax inflection (I) is not only Aux but also the infinitive marker -to, and inflectional morphemes structures such as -ed and –s. Therefore, in this way the basic PS rules are regarded as a sentence that has three ( not just two) basic elements: a subject NP, an auxiliary, and a verb phrase such as the

sentence, Mary will go out the room. The tree diagram of this sentence as follows:

(20)

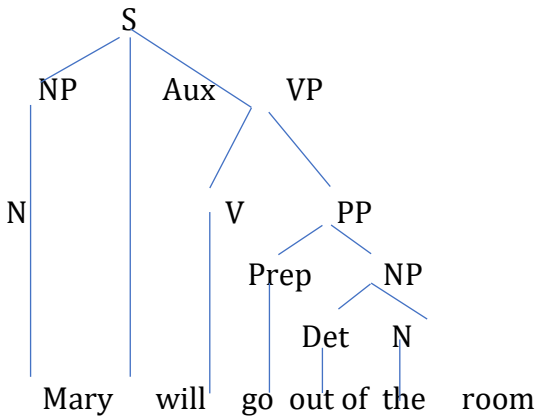
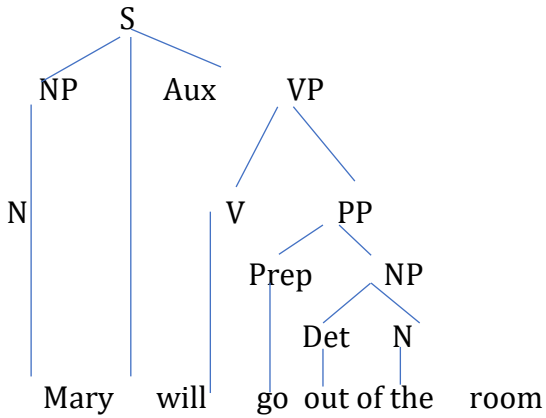



**Figure 8.5.** Tree diagram for Mary will go out of the room

### 8.3.2 The question transformation.

It is difficult to form yes/no questions. It is supposed to make the sentence into a statement and move the first auxiliary to the left of the subject NP. For the sentence in (20), Mary will go out of the room can be generated into the question. Will Mary be gone out of the room? Yes/no question transformation involves PS rules and lexical insertion. The tree diagram for this transformation is as follows:

(21)




(22)

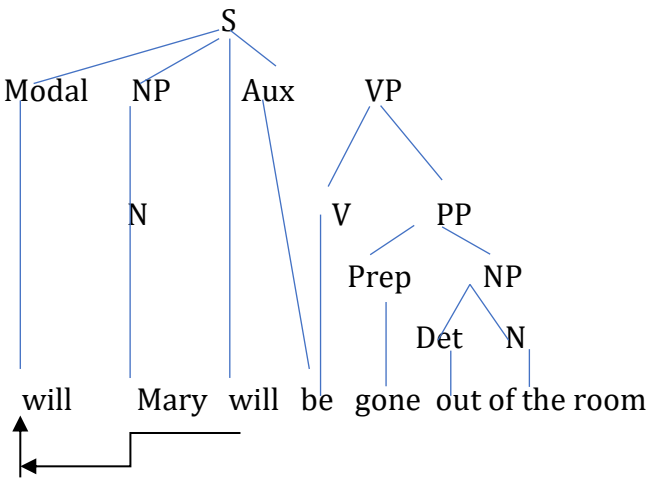



**Figure 8.6.** Tree diagram for yes/no question transformation of Will Marry be gone out the room?

### 8.3.3 The passive transformation

As previous discussion that yes/no questions can not use PS rules alone to change from a declarative sentence into question one, it needs transformational rules, as well as, a passive sentence. The passive sentence belongs to a special characteristic in the sentence, a phrase (after headed by the preposition **by**. as consequently, no need for any changes in PS rules. To make a

passive statement is just moving the subject in NP rules is put it as an object in the sentence. It can be seen in a sentence as follows:

(23) The dog ate the food
The food was eaten by the dog.

Therefore, tree diagrams for the sentence are as follows:

(24)

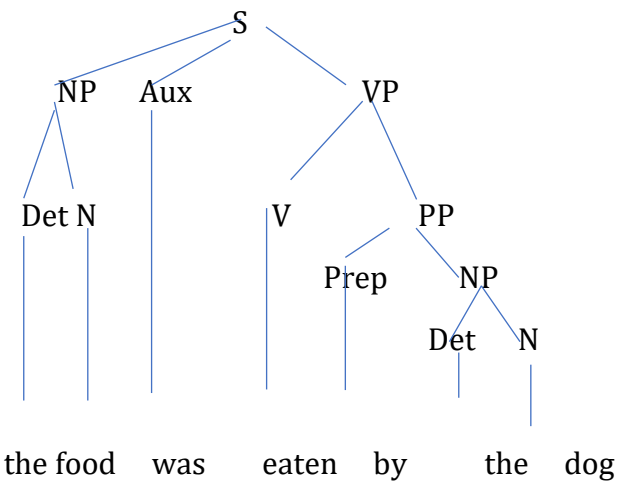



**Figure 8.7** The tree diagrams for passive transformation "the food was eaten by the dog"

## 8.4. Summary

The prior of this chapter reveals tree diagrams in syntax. They are closed to the phrase structure rules as a core in interpreting constituents' sentences. The discussion of scope is to analyze how constituents' sentences enable labels to ease drawing at the basic level structure.

There are many problems to find out in syntax, but the writer tried to discuss them, including tree diagrams using auxiliary, yes/no questions, and passive sentence form.

Rather than using of constituents test, tree diagrams be considered more effective and in detail, merely they are shown by nodes and lines on each constituent.

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# CHAPTER IX
# THEORIES IN MODERN SYNTAX

**By Ivan Rifai**

## 9.1 Introduction

Modern syntax is a branch of linguistics that focuses on understanding the structure of sentences and how they are generated by the human mind (Mair and Leech, 2008). It seeks to uncover the rules that determine how words and phrases are combined to create sentences and express meaning. Modern syntax incorporates elements from linguistic theory, cognitive science, and computer science to develop theories and models of sentence structure. The main objectives of modern syntax include exploring the connection between words and phrases in a sentence, examining how people generate and comprehend sentences, and investigating the process of language acquisition in the human brain (Mair and Leech, 2008). Those are ongoing areas of research and discussion in the field of modern syntax.

## 9.2 Fundamental Schools in Modern Syntax

In the field of modern syntax, several theories have been developed to explain the structure of sentences and the principles that govern them. Some of the most widely recognized theories include generative grammar, cognitive grammar, construction grammar, minimalism, head-driven phrase structure grammar (HPSG), and systemic functional grammar (SFG).

### 9.2.1 Generative grammar

Generative grammar was first introduced by Noam Chomsky in the 1950s and is a theory of syntax. It posits that the human mind has an inborn capability to produce an unlimited number of sentences, governed by a set of inherent grammar rules and principles (Halle, 1962).

The core concept of generative grammar is the existence of an innate set of grammar rules and principles in the human mind. This enables us to create an unlimited amount of grammatically correct sentences. This inherent knowledge of grammar is referred to as Universal Grammar (UG) and is believed to be present in all individuals from birth.

Generative grammar theory posits that there are two levels of representation in the mind: the deep structure and the surface structure (Chomsky, Gallego and Ott, 2019). The deep structure represents the inherent meaning of a sentence, while the surface structure represents the specific words and phrases used to convey that meaning. The language's grammar transforms the deep structure into the surface structure.

Generative grammar theory also proposes that there are multiple levels of linguistic analysis, including phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics (Chomsky, Gallego and Ott, 2019). Phonology is concerned with the sounds of language, morphology focuses on the structure of words, syntax deals with sentence structure, and semantics looks at the meaning of sentences.

Generative grammar theory has had a significant impact on the study of linguistics and has been applied to explain many language phenomena. Despite this, it has faced criticism for neglecting the social and practical aspects of language and for a lack of well-defined concepts and empirical evidence.

Here is an example of sentence based on generative grammar theory and its analysis:

**Sentence:**

*The boy is kicking the ball*

**Analysis:**

- The sentence is composed of three distinct elements: "*the boy*", "*is kicking*", and "*the ball*".
- "*The boy*" is a noun phrase and acts as the subject of the sentence.
- "*Is kicking*" is a verb phrase and acts as the predicate of the sentence.
- "*The ball*" is a noun phrase and acts as the direct object of the verb "*kicking*".
- Based on the theory of generative grammar, the sentence can be represented in terms of its constituent structure, which is a hierarchical tree-like structure that represents the relationships between the elements in the sentence. In this case, the structure would look something like this:

[S [NP [Det **the**] [Noun **boy**]] [VP [Verb **is**] [VP [Verb **kicking**] [NP [Det **the**] [Noun **ball**]]]]]

The generative grammar theory asserts that the sentence can be generated from a set of rules that specify the relationships between elements in a sentence and the way in which they can be combined to form a well-formed sentence.

The Minimalist Program, a more recent evolution of generative grammar, aims to reduce the number of necessary principles and rules for generating the surface structure of a sentence and to concentrate on the fundamental features of language (Ash and Ida, 2006) . The Minimalist Program also stresses the principle of economy, suggesting that the human

mind employs the simplest grammatical rules to produce an unlimited number of sentences.

### 9.2.2 Cognitive grammar

Cognitive grammar is a linguistic theory that highlights the cognitive processes involved in language usage. It was created by Ronald W. Langacker in the 1980s and 1990s. The theory asserts that grammar is a mental phenomenon and that the structure of language originates from the functioning of the human mind (Kok and Cienki, 2016).

Cognitive grammar asserts that grammar is not merely a collection of abstract rules, but a system of patterns and regularities that are tied to our thought processes (De Wit and Brisard, 2014). The theory places a strong emphasis on the role of meaning in grammar and contends that grammar is not just a set of rules for creating sentences, but also a means of encoding and communicating meaning.

Additionally, cognitive grammar emphasizes the significance of imagery and the use of metaphor in language and claims that many grammatical structures stem from metaphorical extensions of fundamental conceptual structures.

Here is an example of sentence based on cognitive grammar theory and its analysis:

**Sentence:**

*John broke the vase*

**Analysis:**

From a cognitive grammar perspective, this sentence is seen as a construction that combines a number of conceptual and grammatical components. The subject "*John*" is a noun phrase that refers to a particular individual and functions as the agent of the action. The verb "*broke*" is a basic event

schema that represents the action of causing something to become separated into pieces. The direct object "*the vase*" is a noun phrase that refers to a particular physical object and is the recipient of the action.

The combination of these components into a sentence reflects a process of conceptual blending, where different conceptual elements are integrated into a single mental representation. In this case, the mental representation involves John causing the vase to become separated into pieces.

The analysis of this sentence based on cognitive grammar would also consider the way in which the construction is used in context and the way in which it interacts with other constructions in the language system. For example, the construction "*John broke the vase*" could be used to express a range of meanings depending on the context, including an accident, an act of carelessness, or an intentional act of destruction.

Cognitive grammar is regarded as a grammar theory that is grounded in cognition, based on usage, and non-formal. It is also recognized for its interdisciplinary nature, incorporating insights from linguistics, cognitive science, and philosophy.

### 9.2.3 Construction grammar

Construction grammar is a linguistic theory that puts emphasis on the significance of constructions, or established combinations of form and meaning, in language (Fried and Östman, 2005). It maintains that the structure of language can be comprehended as a system of constructions that are retained in the mind and utilized to produce and comprehend language.

The Construction Grammar approach was established in the 1980s and 1990s by a group of linguists headed by Ronald Langacker and Charles J. Fillmore.

In construction grammar, the basic element of linguistic analysis is seen as constructions. Each construction comprises both a form, which is the arrangement of words or sounds that convey the meaning of the construction, and a meaning, which is the purpose or purposes that the construction serves in language.

Construction grammar posits that there are two categories of constructions: idiomatic and compositional (Fried and Östman, 2005). Idiomatic constructions have a fixed form and meaning that cannot be derived from the meanings of their parts, such as the expressions *"kick the bucket"* or *"Break a leg"*. In contrast, compositional constructions have meanings that can be deduced from the meanings of their components, such as the sentence *"The boy is running"* which is composed of the meaning of *"boy"* and *"running"*.

Construction grammar places significant emphasis on the role of usage and context in the formation of linguistic structure. This theory holds that the meaning and form of a construction are influenced by how it is utilized in various situations, and can evolve and change as it is utilized in different manners over time.

Here is an example of sentence based on construction grammar theory and its analysis:

**Sentence:**

*John gave the book to Mary*

**Analysis:**

Based on construction grammar theory, this sentence is seen as a realization of a more abstract grammatical construction, known as the "give construction". The give construction is a

recurrent pattern of meaning and form that is stored in the speaker's mental grammar. The elements of the sentence *"John"*, *"gave"*, *"the book"*, and *"to Mary"* are seen as fillers of this construction.

The analysis of this sentence based on construction grammar theory would focus on the meanings and forms associated with the elements and their relationships within the give construction. For example, *"John"* is the experiencer or the source of the action, *"gave"* is the verb that instantiates the give construction, *"the book"* is the theme or the patient of the action, and *"to Mary"* is the goal or the recipient of the action. The analysis would also consider how this sentence is related to other instances of the give construction and how it may be modified to express different meanings.

The theory of Construction Grammar is utilized across various disciplines such as computational linguistics, natural language processing, cognitive science, and cognitive psychology. As a theoretical framework, it has been applied to the analysis of various linguistic elements and phenomena, including syntax, semantics, phonology, and pragmatics, in many different languages.

### 9.2.4 Minimalism

The minimalist theory, created by Noam Chomsky, is a theory of syntax that operates within the framework of generative grammar. It is the latest evolution of Chomsky's ideas, beginning in the 1990s, and aims to establish a minimal set of basic principles and operations that are capable of explaining the syntactic structure of human language.

Minimalism posits that the human mind has an innate linguistic capability that generates sentence structures, using a small set of fundamental principles and operations. This computational system is triggered by inputs from the sensory-motor system. The theory proposes that the syntactic structures of sentences are generated by this innate linguistic grammar, composed of a minimal set of principles and operations (Ash and Ida, 2006).

The minimalism theory places great importance on simplicity and efficiency in the way the grammar functions. It asserts that the grammar should only include what is necessary to generate grammatically correct sentences in a particular language. The theory highlights the concept of "derivations", which are the steps taken to transform input into output, and "representations", which are the intermediary stages of the derivations.

Minimalism also incorporates the concept of "merge," which refers to the operation that enables the combining of two elements, such as words or phrases, into a larger constituent.

Minimalism also highlights the concept of "movement" which entails relocating elements from their original place in a sentence to another place. This movement operation is believed to be vital in explaining various syntactic phenomena like relative clauses, wh-questions, and specific types of passives (Ash and Ida, 2006).

Here is an example of sentence based on minimalism theory and its analysis:

**Sentence:**

*The boy is reading a book*

**Analysis:**

Its analysis would involve identifying the deep structure (or the underlying meaning) of the sentence, which would be represented as:

[**The boy**] [VP **is** [V' **reading** [NP **a book**]]]

In this representation, the noun phrase *"the boy"* is the subject of the sentence, the verb phrase *"is reading"* is the predicate, and the noun phrase *"a book"* is the direct object. The analysis would then involve applying transformations and operations to simplify the structure and identify the core properties of the sentence, such as its argument structure, thematic roles, and lexical properties. This would help to understand how the sentence is generated from the underlying rules of the language and how it conveys meaning.

The minimalism theory has had a major impact on syntax and has resulted in extensive research in areas such as phrase and clause structures, syntactic operations, and the connection between syntax and semantics. Despite its impact, it has also sparked much criticism and disagreement among linguists. Some criticize it for being too limiting and not encompassing the intricacies of natural language, while others believe it is too abstract and lacks concrete evidence to support its claims.

### 9.2.5 Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG)

Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG) is a theory of syntax that was created in the 1980s and 1990s by Carl Pollard and Ivan Sag, leading a group of linguists. It falls within the generative grammar framework.

HPSG theory posits that the syntax of sentences can be depicted through a collection of phrase structure rules that define the connections between various components in a sentence (Müller *et al.*, 2021). These rules are believed to be activated by input from the sensory-motor system.

One of the key principles of HPSG is the "Head Principle", which states that the syntactic structure of a phrase is determined by the head of the phrase. The head of a phrase is defined as the element that determines the grammatical category of the phrase (e.g., noun, verb, adjective) and the distribution of the other elements within the phrase (Müller *et al.*, 2021).

HPSG theory suggests that the syntactic structure of a sentence can be depicted using "feature structures". These feature structures serve as abstract representations of the elements within a sentence and define the linguistic and semantic characteristics of those elements.

In HPSG, the concept of "unification" plays a crucial role. This process merges two feature structures into a larger one, akin to the idea of "merge" in minimalism.

HPSG has a "type-driven" or "constraint-based" approach which asserts that the structure of a sentence is decided by the grammatical categories of its components and the connections between these categories, as opposed to being established by a set of phrase structure rules.

Here is an example of sentence based on HPSG theory and its analysis:

**Sentence:**

*The cat chased the mouse*

**Analysis:**

- *"The cat"* is a Noun Phrase (NP) and its head is the noun *"cat"*, which determines the grammatical category of the NP as a noun.
- *"chased"* is a Verb Phrase (VP) and its head is the verb *"chased"*, which determines the grammatical category of the VP as a verb.
- *"the mouse"* is another NP and its head is the noun *"mouse"*.
- The NP *"the cat"* is the subject of the sentence, and the NP *"the mouse"* is the object of the sentence.
- The head of the entire sentence is the verb *"chased"*, which determines the distribution of the other elements within the sentence.

This analysis demonstrates how HPSG applies the "Head Principle" to determine the syntactic structure of the sentence based on the heads of the phrases within the sentence.

HPSG has been applied to study various linguistic aspects like syntax, semantics, phonology, and pragmatics. Additionally, it has been utilized for the creation of computational models for natural language processing. Despite its extensive use, it has faced criticism for being overly complicated and lacking the ability to make accurate predictions.

### 9.2.6 Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG)

The Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) theory was formulated by Michael Halliday in the latter part of the 20th century (Bavali and Sadighi, 2008). It takes a social semiotic approach to language and considers the situational context in which language is employed.

SFG posits that language is not just a way of transmitting information, but also a way to establish and determine meaning between speakers and listeners (Taverniers, 2011). According to the theory, language has three functions: the ideational, the interpersonal, and the textual.

The ideational metafunction deals with the expression of experience, covering topics like things, happenings, and states. The interpersonal metafunction handles the regulation of social relationships, encompassing views, mood, and degree of certainty. The textual metafunction covers the arrangement of discourse, including the establishment of coherence and the development of context.

The theory of SFG highlights the concept of lexicogrammar, which examines the interplay between vocabulary and grammar in creating meaning in language (Bavali and Sadighi, 2008). According to the theory, words are not considered as isolated entities but instead, they are members of specific grammatical categories with unique grammatical properties.

SFG follows a functional perspective in its analysis, focusing on the role of language in context rather than its structure. This approach prioritizes the social and communicative purposes of language and the way in which linguistic choices shape and are shaped by the context (Taverniers, 2011).

Here is an example of sentence based on SFG theory and its analysis:

**Sentence:**

*John loves Mary*

**Analysis:**

- Ideational metafunction: This sentence represents an experience, specifically a state of affection.
- Interpersonal metafunction: This sentence shows the speaker's attitude towards the relationship between John and Mary, which is positive.
- Textual metafunction: This sentence is a simple declaration, with a subject and a verb, but it also creates a context for further discourse.

In terms of lexicogrammar, the words *"John"* and *"Mary"* are proper nouns, while *"loves"* is a verb that shows the relationship between the two nouns. The grammatical structure of the sentence is simple, with the subject-verb-object pattern, but it also has meaning beyond its form. For example, the word *"loves"* not only represents the action of love, but also shows the speaker's attitude towards that action.

SFG has been utilized in various disciplines including linguistic examination, language education, and computational linguistics. Despite this, it has faced criticism, with some asserting that it is overly complicated and abstract, while others argue that it places too much emphasis on context and not enough on linguistic structure.

## 9.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, modern syntax theories provide various frameworks to analyze and understand the syntactic structure of natural languages. Theories such as generative grammar, cognitive grammar, construction grammar, minimalism, head-driven phrase structure grammar (HPSG), and systemic functional grammar (SFG) have been developed to provide a comprehensive understanding of the syntactic structure of sentences and the principles that underlie them. These theories have been highly influential in the field of syntax and have led to significant research in areas such as the structure of phrases and clauses, the nature of syntactic operations, and the relationship between syntax and semantics. However, they have also been the subject of much critical discussion and debate among linguists, with some arguing that they are too restrictive or too abstract and lack concrete evidence for their claims. In any case, these theories continue to be an important tool in the study of the structure of natural languages.

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