Chapter II
Literary Review

2.1 Syntax

The review of the related literature consists of Syntax, Transformational Grammar, Tree Diagram, and Previous Studies.

Bornstein (1977:246) explained that syntax is the processes by which words and grammatical categories are combined to form phrase, clause and sentences in language. Then, Chomsky (1966:1) said that syntax is the study of the principles and process by which sentences are constructed in particular languages. A linguistics level such as phonemics, morphology, phrase structure is essentially a set of descriptive devices which are made available for the constructions of grammars, it constitute a certain method for representing utterances.

According to Matthews (1981:1), the term syntax is derived from the ancient Greek word syntax, a noun which literally means arrangement or setting out together words into phrases, or clauses and phrases or clauses into sentences.

Herman and Haegeman (1989:3) said that syntax or syntactic analysis may be defined as: (a) determining the relevant component parts of the sentence, (b) describing these parts grammatically. The component parts of a sentence are called

constituent. In other words, Matthews (1974:154) explained that syntax is concerned with their external functions and their relationship to other word within the sentence. Also, Laurel (2000:167) stated that the study of syntax is the analysis of the constituent parts of a sentence: their form, positioning, and function. Constituents are the proper subparts of sentence.

From the definitions above, the researcher concludes that syntax is a branch of linguistics which is very important to be used in analyzing a sentence. By using syntactic analysis, we can know the sentence patterns of the sentence such as N, VP, V, DET, and AUX. Therefore, it can be concluded that syntax is the science which studies about the arrangement and relationship among words, phrases, and clauses forming sentences or larger constructions based on grammatical rules.

2.1.1 Syntactic Categories

Lexical:	-Words that have meaning (semantic content) -Words that can be inflected -Includes **nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions**
Non lexical:	-Words whose meaning is harder to define -Words that have a grammatical function -Includes **determiners, auxiliary verbs, degree words, conjunctions**

2.2 Diagrams of Tree

According to Bornstein (1977:39-46) in Transformational Grammar (TG) that phrase structure rules are illustrated by means of tree diagrams that called phrasemakers, which show the hierarchical structure of sentence. Bornstein also symbolizes some of the common symbols used in phrase structure rules as follows:

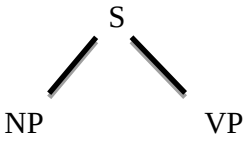
S: sentence	PP: prepositional phrase
NP: noun phrase	VP: verb phrase
N: noun	V: verb
D or	Det: determiner Pron : pronoun
Prop N: proper noun	Pred: predicate
Adv. P: adverb phrase	C : complement
Vt: transitive verb	Vi: intransitive verb
VL: linking verb	Prep: preposition
Adj. P: adjective phrase	Pres : present
M: modal	Be: the verb be

In transformational grammar, phrase structure rules are described by means of tree diagram called phrase-makers which show the hierarchical structure of the sentence. We begin with S (sentence) as the highest level, and go down to

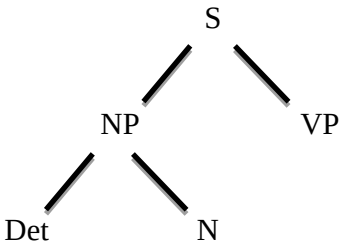
the lower levels until we get to maximally specific of terminal level where no additional symbols that can be written. This process is called a derivation of sentence.

The steps of derivation of a sentence are:

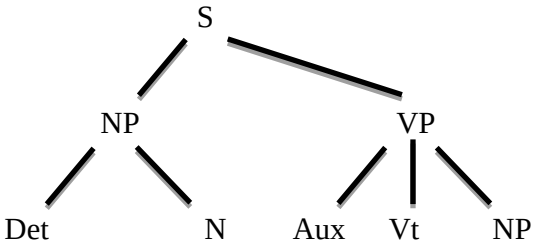
S → NP + VP



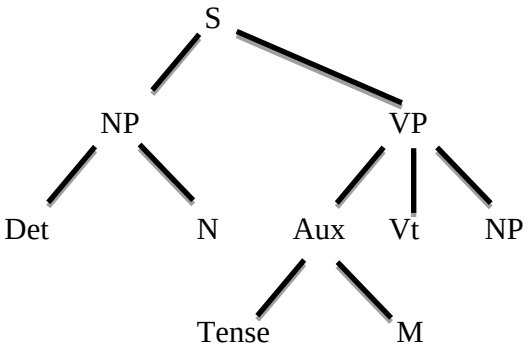
NP → Det + N



VP → Aux + Vt + NP



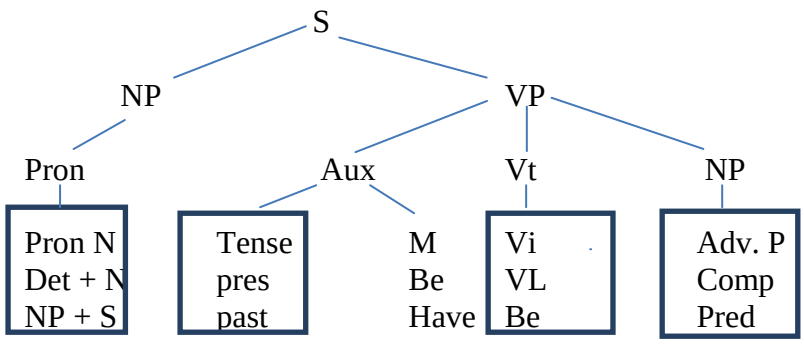
Aux → Tense (M)



The tree diagram above can be explained more detail as follows:

- S consists of NP and VP
- NP consists of Det (determiner) and N
- VP consists of Aux, Vt/Vi, NP
- Aux consists of Tense and M (modal)

According to Bornstein (1977:39), a tree diagram shows the hierarchical structure of the sentence. The sentence is considered the basic of the syntactic system. Instead of beginning with actual sentences, we begin with directions for generating or producing structural descriptions of sentences, which are set forth in phrase structure rules. The rules should be interpreted as an instruction to rewrite or expand the symbol on the left of the arrows as the sequence on the right.



Bornstein (1977:44-45) points of juncture in tree diagrams are called nodes.

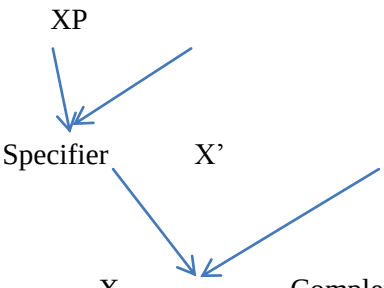
2.3 Phrase Structure Diagrams

An important part of our task in analyzing the grammatical structure of a sentence is to identify: (a) the constituent parts from which the sentence is formed;

and (b) the order in which these constituents occur. For example, the sentence in consists of three constituent parts: a noun phrase followed by a verb followed by another noun phrase. According Paul (2004:40).

Word level	**Phrasal**
N = Noun	NP = Noun Phrase
A = Adjective	AP = Adjective Phrase
V = Verb	VP = Verb Phrase
P = Preposition	PP = Prepositional Phrase
Adv= Adverb	S = Sentence or Clause
Det= Determiner	
Conj= Conjunction	

- Phrase Structure Trees



XP = NP, VP, PP

Spec = Det, Adv, Deg

X' = intermediate level (always present in repr)

X = head of XP = N, V, P

Comp = PP, NP, VP

Exemplify: a book on Shakespeare

Phrase Structure Trees show that a sentence is both a linear string o words and a hierarchical structure with phrases nested in phrases. They show three aspects of speakers' syntactic knowledge:

a. the linear order of the words in the sentence

b. the groupings of words into syntactic categories

c. the hierarchical structure of the syntactic categories

The trees represent in precise notational form the linguistic properties that are part of speakers' mental grammars.

Phrase Structure Rules (as shown in From Kin and Rodman – early versions)

S →NP, VP. Is it any variation possible?

NP →(Art) (Adj)* N (PP) How many types of NP can you think of?

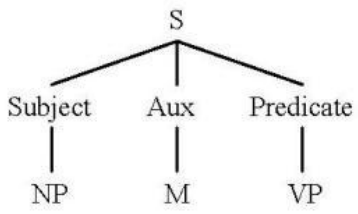
VP →V (NP) (PP) How many types of VP can you think of?

PP →P NP

2.3.1. *Ternary Branching*

Currently available textbooks adopt both ternary and binary branching trees arbitrarily without any comment on their respective merits and demerits. Part of earlier research of syntactic theory also employed ternary branching trees characterizing sentence structures as shown in (2) below (see Chomsky, 1965, p.69) , for such sentence as "Sincerity may frighten the boy". Beginners of syntax tend to draw ternary branching trees as shown in (3) below for the sole purpose of simplicity, as they put all the words in the same level and then merge them once and for all.

(2)



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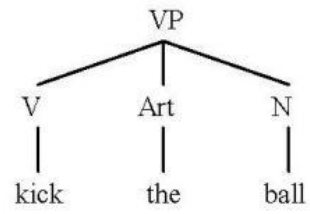
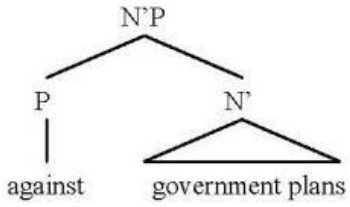


2.3.2. Improper Marking and Representing of Categories

Marking categories is a basic skill for drawing of tree diagrams. Nevertheless, categories in syntax are different from parts of speech, or word classes, in pedagogical grammar. Perfect comparison and contrast between the two can be found. Some students tend to use parts of speech in pedagogical grammar to mark categories in trees, e.g. marking auxiliaries such as *will*, *would*, *may* and *might* as Aux, a sentence as S, and a subordinate clause as S'. It is known that one of the theoretical goals of syntax is to pursue uniformity and generalization in characterizing phrase structures. In syntax, I(inflection) includes not only Aux but also the infinitival marker -*to* and inflectional morphemes such as -*end* and -*s*. Hence, shall be marked I. I am usually regarded as the head of a sentence, so a sentence is in fact a projection of me. That is why a sentence shall be marked as IP rather than S. A subordinate clause is usually composed of a complemented, or C, including *that*, *if*, *whether* and *for* in English, followed by a sentence, or IP. As C indicates whether the subordinate clause is declarative or interrogative, C is usually regarded as the head of a subordinate clause. In other words, a subordinate clause is a projection of C. Hence, a subordinate clause shall be marked as CP rather than S'.

In addition to category marking, problems with representing of categories are also found, as shown in (6) and (7) below.

(6)



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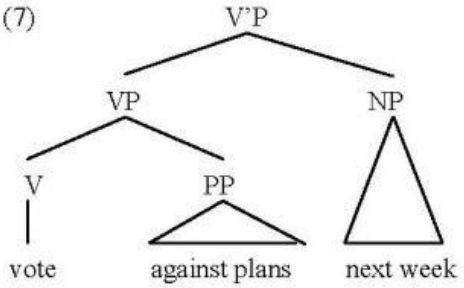
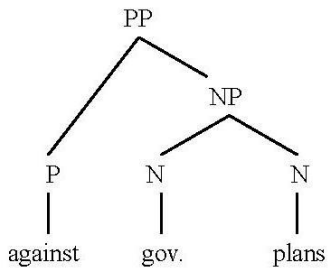


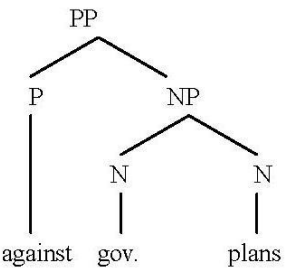
2.3.3. *Ill-formed Structural Hierarchy*

The linear sequence from left to right is a superficial property of sentence, but the structural hierarchy is its nature (Chomsky, 1957: 74). This point can and must be reflected on the tree. A large unit is composed of smaller units, but the relationship between units is different. A common example is subject-object asymmetry – the relationship of object with predicate verb is quite close, but the relationship between subject and predicate verb is not (Xu, 1988, p.26, 55). The hierarchy highlights the semantic closeness of constituents and the sequence of merge in a tree. When labeling the category for the phrase "against government plans", some students ignore its hierarchy, as (8a) shows:

(8a)



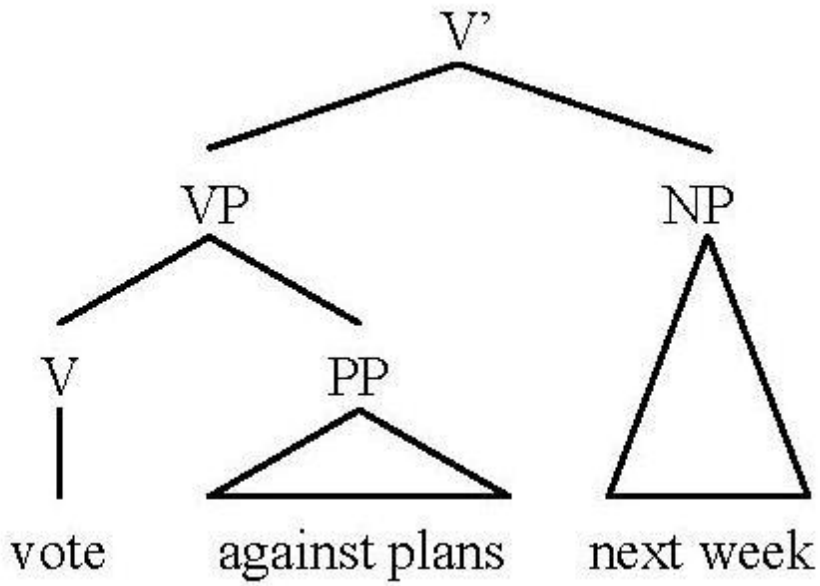
(8b)



2.3.4. Confused Relationship between Intermediate and Maximal Projections

In syntax, the projection higher than lexical categories and lower than maximal projection is called intermediate projection. It is not an ultimate category, that is to say, there are other constituents which have not been merged yet. They are usually written like N', N", V', V" with quotation marks. The maximal projection, also called phrasal projection, is a full phrase, with no more constituents to be merged, e.g. NP and VP. Therefore, in any two adjacent levels in the projection system, an intermediate projection must be below a maximal projection. There also exists above-below relationship within an intermediate projection. For example, V' and V" must be below VP, N" must be above N' and so on. It's found that some students make mistakes as (9) below:

(9)

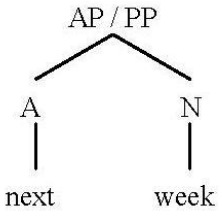


9) Confuses the relationship between an intermediate projection and a maximal projection. V’ must be the intermediate projection, and VP the maximal projection. The intermediate projection V’ must be below the maximal projection VP. The right practice is exchanging the positions of V’ and VP in (9), with V’ merging with NP, projecting into VP, a phrasal category.

2.3.5 *E. Projection from Incorrect Heads*

In syntax, any phrasal category comes from projection of its head, and therefore recognizing the head correctly is crucial to determine a phrasal category. Some students fail to locate the head correctly. As a result, the phrasal category has nothing to do with any lexical category in the tree, as (10) and (11) show.

(10)



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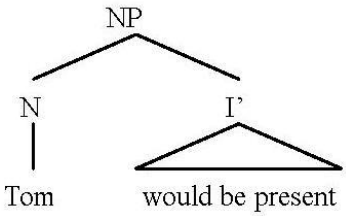
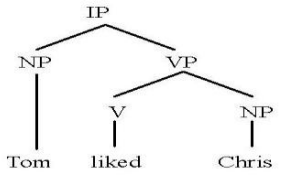


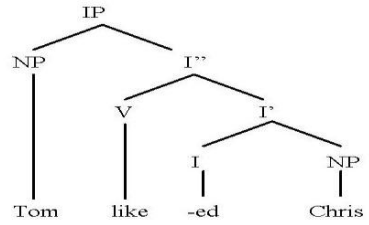
2.3.6 *F. No Separation of Inflectional Morpheme from Verb and / or Prepositioning of Infl*

With regard to sentences such as *Tom liked Chris* in which a verb is attached with an inflectional morpheme, some students do not separate the verb from its inflectional morpheme when they represent the tree derivation, as (12) shows, or separate the verb from its inflectional morpheme, but the order is not right, as (13) shows.

(12)

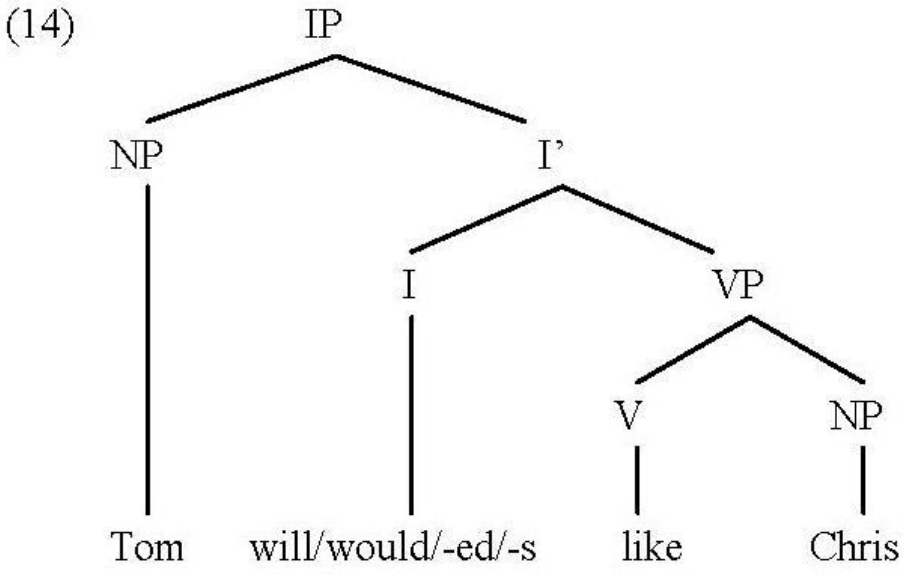


(13)



Here we focus on the separation of a verb from its inflectional morpheme and their linear order. In a tree, the reason for the separation of a verb from its inflectional morpheme and put the inflectional morpheme in front of the verb is for the purpose of uniformity in drawing tree diagrams. We know that use of I is based on syntactic analysis of complete or typical English sentence, such as *Tom will like Chris*, i.e. S-NP AUX VP. In syntax, different from pedagogical grammar, the verb "like" is not the head of a sentence. Instead, the auxiliary "will" becomes the head, because if we transform this sentence into its negative and interrogative counterparts, we have to rely on the auxiliary, and the tense is also reflected in the auxiliary. The phrase marker of the sentence is shown in (14) below.

(14)



2.4 The Phrase

A phrase is two or more words that do not contain the subject-verb pair necessary to form a clause. Phrases can be very short or quite long. Here are two examples: After lunch After slithering down the stairs and across the road to scare nearly to death Mrs. Philpot busy pruning her rose bushes Certain phrases have specific names based on the type of word that begins or governs the word group: noun phrase, verb phrase, prepositional phrase, infinitive phrase, participle phrase, gerund phrase, and absolute phrase.

2.4.1 Noun Phrases

A noun phrase includes a noun—a person, place, or thing—and the modifiers either before or after—which distinguish it. The pattern looks like this:

OPTIONAL MODIFIER(S) + **NOUN** + **OPTIONAL MODIFIER(S)**

Here are some examples:

The shoplifted pair of jeans

Pair = noun; ***the***, ***shoplifted***, ***of jeans*** = modifiers.

A cat that refused to meow

Noun phrases function as subjects, objects, and complements: ***The shoplifted pair of jeans*** caused Nathaniel so much guilt that he couldn't wear them. ***The shoplifted pair of jeans*** = subject. Jerome adopted ***a cat that refused to meow***.

A cat that refused to meow = direct object.

2.4.2 Verb Phrases

Sometimes a sentence can communicate its meaning with a one-word verb. Other times, however, a sentence will use a verb phrase, a multi-word verb, to express more nuanced action or condition. A verb phrase can have up to four parts. The pattern looks like this:

AUXILIARY VERB(S) + MAIN VERB + VERB ENDING WHEN NECESSARY

Here are some examples:

Had cleaned

Had = auxiliary verb; ***clean*** = main verb; ***ed***= verb ending.

Should have been writing

Should, ***have***, ***been*** = auxiliary verbs; ***write*** = main verb; ***ing***= verb ending.

Must wash

Must = auxiliary verb; ***wash*** = main verb.

Here are the verb phrases in action:

Mom ***had*** just ***cleaned*** the refrigerator shelves when Lawrence knocked over the pitcher of orange juice. Sarah ***should have been writing*** her research essay, but she couldn't resist another short chapter in her Stephen King novel. If guests are coming for dinner, we ***must wash*** our smelly dog!

2.4.3 Prepositional Phrases

At the minimum, a prepositional phrase will begin with a preposition and end with a noun, pronoun, gerund, or clause, the "object" of the preposition. The object of the preposition will often have one or more modifiers to describe it. These are the patterns for a prepositional phrase:

PREPOSITION + NOUN, PRONOUN, GERUND, OR CLAUSE

PREPOSITION + MODIFIER(S) + NOUN, PRONOUN, GERUND, OR CLAUSE

Here are some examples:

On time

On = preposition; ***time*** = noun.

Underneath the sagging yellow couch

Underneath = preposition; ***the***, ***sagging***, ***yellow*** = modifiers; ***couch*** = noun.

From eating too much

From = preposition; ***eating*** = gerund; ***too***, ***much*** = modifiers.

2.4.4 Infinitive Phrases

An infinitive phrase will begin with an infinitive [to + simple form of the verb]. It will often include objects and/or modifiers that complete the thought. The pattern looks like this:

INFINITIVE + OBJECT(S) AND/OR MODIFIER(S)

Here are some examples:

To slurp spaghetti

To send the document before the deadline.

2.4.5 Participle Phrases

A participle phrase will begin with a present or past participle. If the participle is present, it will dependably end in ***ing***. Likewise, a regular past participle will end in a consistent ***ed***. Irregular past participles, unfortunately, conclude in all kinds of ways [Check a dictionary for help]. Since all phrases require two or more words, a participle phrase will often include objects and/or modifiers that complete the thought. The pattern looks like this:

PARTICIPLE + OBJECT(S) AND/OR MODIFIER(S)

Here are some examples:

Flexing his muscles in front of the bathroom mirror

Ripped from a spiral-ring notebook

Driven crazy by Grandma's endless questions

Participle phrases always function as adjectives, adding description to the sentence. Read these examples:

The stock clerk ***lining up cartons of orange juice*** made sure the expiration date faced the back of the cooler.

Lining up cartons of orange juice modifies the noun ***clerk***.

Elijah likes his eggs ***smothered in cheese sauce***.

Smothered in cheese sauce modifies the noun ***eggs***.

Shrunk in the dryer, the jeans hung above John's ankles.

Shrunk in the dryer modifies the noun ***jeans***.

2.4.6 Gerund Phrases

A gerund phrase will begin with a gerund, an ***ing***word, and will often include other modifiers and/or objects. The pattern looks like this:

GERUND + **OBJECT(S) AND/OR MODIFIER(S)**

2.4.7 Absolute Phrases

An absolute phrase combines a noun and a participle with any accompanying modifiers or objects. The pattern looks like this:

NOUN + **PARTICIPLE** + **OPTIONAL OBJECT(S) AND/OR MODIFIER(S)**

Here are some examples:

His brow knitted in frustration

Brow = noun; ***knitted*** = participle; ***his***, ***in frustration*** = modifiers.

2.5 Sentences

The common weakness in writing is the lack of varied sentences. It is Becoming aware of three general types of sentences, simple, compound and

complex. The most effective writing uses a variety of the sentences types explained below;

2.5.1 Simple Sentences

It has the most basic element that make it a sentences : a subject, a verb, and completed thought, a simple sentence can also be referred to as an independent clause.

2.5.2 Compound Sentences

A compound sentence refers to a sentence made up of two independent clauses (or complete sentences) connected to one another with a coordinating conjunction.

2.5.3 Complex Sentences

A complex sentence is made up of an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses connected to it, a dependent clause is similar to an independent clause, or complete sentence, but it lacks one of the elements that would make it a complete sentence.

2.6 Transformational Grammar

According to Webster's World University Dictionary (1996:1420), transformational grammar generates the deep structures of a language and converts this to the surface structures by means of transformation. In transformational grammar, there are two levels for each sentence.Those are a deep structure that represents the meaning and a surface structurethat represents the sound. Yule (1985: 82) says that surface structure is thesyntactic form taken as actual English sentence, whereas deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determiningstructural interpretation are represented.

The concept of deep structure plays an important role in transformationalgrammar. The deep structures are derivation of a context free language. These trees are then transformed by a sequence of tree rewriting operation("transformations") into surface structure. In other words, deep structures andsurface structures are produced by two types of rules. Phrase structure rulesgenerate the sentences that are found in the deep structure. Transformationalrules change around these sentences, making them into surface structure(Bornstein, 1977:37).

Bornstein (1977: 39-99) says that transformations bring about variouskinds of changes; they can rearrange elements in a string of symbols, addelements that were not there before, delete elements, and substitute oneelement for another.