**Chapter 2**

**Literature Review**

In this chapter, the writer would like to discuss some theories about participial adjective. It begins with definition of syntax, definition of adjective, adjective classifications, adjective derivation, and the rule of participial adjective itself.

**2.1. Syntax**

Syntax is the study of the structure of the sentence. It attempts for uncover the underlying principles, or rules, in order to constructing a well-formed sentence of a particular language.

Refereeing to Matthew (1982: 1), in Valin (2004:1), said that:

The term ‘syntax’ is from the ancient Greek *sỳntaxis,* a verbal noun which literally meant ‘arrangement’ or ‘setting out together’. Traditionally, it refers to the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words, with or without appropriate inflections, are arranges to show connections of meaning within the sentence.

Thus, syntax deals with how sentences are constructed, and users of human languages employ a striking variety of possible arrangements of the elements in sentences. One of the most obvious yet important ways in which the languages differ is the order of the main elements in a sentence. In English, for example, the subject comes before the verb and the direct object follows the verb. Have a looking at this sentence below:

The teacher is reading a book

S V DO

The set of rules is underlying the grammar of that language. The rules must be produced only well-formed sentences and all well-formed sentences of language. By all sentences, the writer includes not only all actual sentences, but all the possible sentences as well which may have never been uttered but must be accepted by native speaker as a well-formed. One such possible sentence could be Green cheese will fall from the moon tonight. The state of affairs predicted by the sentence is unlikely to obtain, but the sentence is nonetheless grammatically correct.

Grammatical sentence, according to Valin (2004:3), are those that are in accord with the rules and principles of the syntax language, while ungrammatical sentences violate one or more syntactic rules or principles.

**2.2. Syntactic Categories**

Words and phrases can be grouped according to their sentence building functions. Syntactic categories of words are traditionally called parts of speech.

**2.2.1. Adjectival**

According to Bache (2000: 233), adjectivals typically have one of the following functions, as follows:

**DEP (dependents):** The ‘clever’ girls told their ‘anxious’ mother nothing.

**Cs (subject complement):** Jane is ‘exceptionally intelligent’.

**Co (object complement):** They drove him ‘mad’.

Naturally, adjectival also function as conjoint in compound units, for example:

**CJT (conjoint):** She sent him a ‘long’ and ‘rather boring’ letter.

Adjectivals are often used as complements in verbless adverbial clauses:

**Cs:** If ‘necessary’, I can help her.

‘However disagreeable’ their presence, you have to let them in.

Adjectives serving as dependents in (pro)noun groups are called attributive adjectives while adjectives with subject or object complement function are called predicative adjectives.

In addition to attributive and predicative uses, adjectival may assume adverbial function:

**A (adverbial):** Unhappy with the result’, he decided to resign.

Dicky hurried in ‘breathless’, wearing his new trenchcoat.

Expressionless he drew his head back in again.

Adjectivals in this last category are sometimes referred to as ‘independent’ or ‘free’ complements rather than adverbials.

Adjectival is a cover term for a single adjective or a word group with an adjective as a head. Bache (2000: 233) also mentioned that adjectival is a word or phrase that functions as an adjective to modify a noun.

**2.2.2. Verbal**

In traditional grammar, according to Bache (2000: 121), a verb form that functions in a sentence as a noun or a modifier rather than as a verb. Verbals include infinitives, gerund, and participles. Unlikely ordinary verbs, verbals are not inflected for person and tense.

1. Infinitives

Usually preceded by the particle ‘to’, infinitives are verbals function as nouns, adjectives, or adverb.

1. Gerund

Known as –ing forms, gerund is verbals that end in –ing and function as nouns.

1. Participles

Also known as –ing forms and –ed or –en forms, participles are verbals that function as adjective.

Refereeing from Bache (2000:123), it was caused by derived from verbs, verbals retain some of the abilities of verbs. They can carry objects or take modifiers, and complements.

At the same time, verbals possess abilities unknown to the typical verb, the abilities of other parts of speech. In this way, verbals, may perform the duties of two parts of speech simultaneously.

**2.3. Adjective**

**2.3.1. Definition of Adjective**

Most, but not all, languages do have adjectives. Here are the definitions of adjective and adjectival by the experts:

1. Wilson said that *adjectival is a grammatical term that has to do with the functions of adjectives.* He was also said that *an adjective is a part of speech that modifies noun or other nominal. (1993: 74)*
2. In The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language, adjectives are characterized as expression “that alter, clarify, or adjust the meaning contributions of nouns”, in order to allow for the expression of “finer gradations of meaning” than are possible through the use of nouns alone. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002. p.526)
3. Adjective is a term used in the grammatical classification of words to refer to the main set of items which specify the attributes of noun. (Crystal, 2008. p.11-12)
4. Adjectives are descriptive words. An adjective is a word which qualifies a noun, that is, shows or points out some distinguishing mark or feature of the noun. (Eastwood, 2009:111)

**2.3.2. Adjectives Classification**

Frank (1990:109) divides kinds of adjective into two, determiner and descriptive adjectives. Coming to the first kind of adjective, determiner is also be named as limiting adjective as it functions to limit the explained noun. Frank (1990: 109) states determiners consist of a small group of structure words without characteristic form. Further, Frank subdivides determiners into six categories.

Below are the subdivisions of determiners adjectives:

1. Article
2. Demonstrative Adjectives
3. Possessive Adjectives
4. Numeral Adjectives

* Numeral
* Cardinal

1. Adjective of Indefinite Quantities
2. Relative an Interrogative Adjective

Frank (1990: 110) mentions that the next adjective is descriptive adjective. This descriptive adjective is very different from the previous one, as Frank (1990: 110) states that descriptive adjectives usually indicate an inherent quality, e.g. beautiful, intelligent, or a physical state such as age, size, and color (seven years old, large (L), blue). Inflectional and derivational endings can be added only to this type of adjectives,

Based on the statement above, there is an elaboration that all adjectives words stand for quality, physical condition as age, size, color, mentioned as descriptive adjective. While determiner is impossible to get any inflectional and derivational endings, descriptive adjective is very common to get such affixes.

Frank also mentions the subdivisions of descriptive adjective:

1. Proper Adjective
2. Participial Adjective
3. Adjective Compounds

An adjective is a word which qualifies a noun, that is, it shows or points out some distinguishing mark or feature of the noun; as, a blue sky.

Adjectives have three forms called degree of comparisons:

1. The Positive
2. The Comparative
3. The Superlative

**2.3.3. Types of Use the Adjective**

A given occurrence of an adjective can generally classified into one of two kinds of uses:

**2.3.3.1. Predicative Adjective**

Predicative adjectives are linked via copula or other linking mechanism to the noun or pronoun they modify; for example, the word *happy* is a predicative adjective in *they are happy* and in *that made me happy*.

Predicative adjective divides into two position of use, those are predicative adjective over the subject and over the object. Have a look at the following sentences below:

1. That idea was brilliant

S to be adjective

(2) They painted the wall blue

S V O adjective

The word *brilliant* in (1) sentence is a predicative adjective over the subject. It describes that *that idea* is *brilliant*. Differ with the word *blue* in (2) sentence is a predicative adjective over the object. It describes that *the wall ­­*was painted with *blue*.

**2.3.3.2. Attributive Adjective**

Attributive adjectives are part of noun phrases headed by the noun they modify; for example, *happy* is an attribute adjective in *happy people*. In some languages, attributive adjectives precede their nouns; in others, they follow their nouns; and in yet others, it depends on the adjective, or on the exact relationship of the adjective to the noun. In English, attributive adjectives usually precede their nouns in simple phrases, but often follow their nouns when the adjective is modified or qualified by a phrase acting as an adverb.

There is an example of attributive adjective: The *that idea was brilliant* is a predicative adjective. It can be changed into this following noun phrase:

That brilliant idea

Noun Phrase

That brilliant idea

DP Adjective N

The *that brilliant idea* sentence above is an attributive adjective. The word *brilliant* is as an adjective which is describing the DP (Demonstrative Pronoun) *that* and the noun *idea*.

**2.4. Adjective Derivation**

According to Booij (2012: 74), derivation is the formation of lexemes by means of affixation, conversion, reduplication, and root-and-pattern morphology.

Adjective derivation is the process of creating a new word out of an old word. It is an adjective formed from the process of forming a derivative word, in which the derived adjective will have a different meaning with the old word.

According to Crystal (2005: 237), the definition of derivational is as follows:

Derivational morphology studies the principle governing the construction if new words, without reference to the specific grammatical role a word might play in a sentence. In the formation of *drinkable* from *drink,* or *disinfect* from *infect,* for example, we see the formation of new words, each with its own grammatical properties.

**2.4.1. Suffixation**

Suffixation is a letter or group letters added to the end of a word or root (i.e., a base form), serving to form a new word or functioning as an inflectional ending. A derivational suffix (such as the addition of *–ly ­*to an adjective to form an adverb) indicates what type of word it is. Differ with an inflectional suffix (such as the addition of *–s* to a noun to form a plural) tells something about the word’s grammatical behavior.

When a derivational suffix is added to the end of a word, it changes the meaning of the word, and is usually a different part of speech. But the new meaning is related to the old meaning—it is *derived* from the old meaning. In some cases, more than one derivational suffix can be added to a word. For example: *derive* (verb) + *tion* = *derivation* (noun) + *al* = *derivational* (adjective).

**2.4.2. Prefixation**

According to Peters (2004: 437), the explanations about prefix are as follows:

Prefixes are generally set solid with the rest of the word. Hyphens appear only when the word attached begins with (1) a capital letter, as with *anti-Stalin,* or (2) the same vowel as the prefix ends in, as with: *anti-inflationary, de-escalate, micro-organism.* Yet in well-established cases of this type, the hyphen becomes optional, as with *cooperate, coordinate,* and their derivatives.

Prefixation is a letter or group of letters attached to the beginning of a word that partly indicates its meaning. Common prefixes include *anti-* (against)*, co-* (with)*, mis-* (wrong; bad)*, and trans-* (across). A prefix will rarely change syntactic category in English. The derivational prefix *un-* applies to adjectives *(healthy = unhealthy),* some verbs *(do = undo)*, but rarely nouns. A few exceptions are the prefixes *en-* and ­*be-. En- (em-* before labials) is usually used as a transitive marker on verbs, but can also be applied to adjectives and nouns to form transitive verb: *circle* (verb) *= encircle* (verb)*;* but *rich* (adjective) = *enrich* (verb); *large* (adjective) = *enlarge*; *rapture* (noun) = *enrapture* (verb), *slave* (noun) = *enslave* (verb).

**2.4.3. Conversion**

According to Crystal (2011: 13), intended to describe the conversion, that:

Shakespeare was the conversion expert. ‘I eared her language.’ ‘He words me.’ Some of his conversions seem really daring. Even the name of a person can become a verb. ‘Petruchio is Kated’. But all he was doing was tapping into a natural everyday usage that is still with us. Conversion is a linguistic process that assigns an already existing word to a new word class (part of speech) or syntactic category. This process is also known as a *functional shift* or *zero derivation*.

According to Valera and Bauer (2005:12), meaning is crucial to the system of word-classes, as it is to the recognition of instances of conversion. Even if it were not for the homophonous noun *plane* ‘carpenter’s tool,’ we would not wish to relate *to plane* ‘smooth a piece of word’ and *a plane* ‘aircraft’ by conversion, because their meanings are not sufficiently close.

What sufficiently is close meaning (and how it can be defined) remains an open question. A slightly dubious example is *to bank* ‘turn an aircraft’ and *a bank* ‘side of a hill’ which, despite their etymological relatedness, may no longer be close enough semantically for us to wish to say that the same relationship holds between them as between *to bridge* and *a bridge.*

**2.5. The Participial Adjective Rule**

Participial adjective is a traditional term for an adjective that has the same form as the participle of a verb (that is, a verb ending in *–ing* or *–ed/-en*) and that usually exhibits the ordinary properties of an adjective. It is also called a verbal adjective or an adjectival adjective. Both present and past participle are used with the verbs *to be* and *to have* to create common verb tenses, but they can also be used as adjectives. Since there is a slight difference in meaning between the present and the past participles when they are used as adjectives, it is very important to choose the appropriate form.

According to Birch (2013: 173), participial adjectives end in *–ed* because they are derived from past participles of verbs. He also said that:

The meaning of participial adjective depends on the participle they come from. The *–ing* adjective (*boring, interesting, amazing, exciting, following)* have a progression or active meaning. The *–ed* adjectives (*advanced, alleged, bored, complicated, excited, exhausted*) have a completed or passive meaning.

Tirumalesh (2000; 179) said that as regards the time reference of participial adjectives in general is as follows:

Jespersen (1951) was probably one of the first grammarians to caution us against the common assumption that the present participial adjective always refers to the [present](http://grammar.about.com/od/pq/g/prestenseterm.htm) time and the past participial adjective to the [perfective](http://grammar.about.com/od/pq/g/perfectterm.htm) time. In the same vein he also questioned the common belief that the present participial adjective has an [active voice](http://grammar.about.com/od/ab/g/activevoiceterm.htm) reading and the past participial adjective a [passive voice](http://grammar.about.com/od/pq/g/pasvoiceterm.htm) reading. To remove these common errors, Jespersen introduced the terms *first participle* and *second participle* in the place of present (active) participle and past (passive) participle.

1. Predicative Participial Adjective Rules

Have a look at these four sentences:

**Table 2.1. Examples of several sentences with –ing form.**

|  |
| --- |
| The film is terrifying (1) |
| The film is *very* terrifying (2) |
| The film is terrifying the children (3) |
| The film is *very* terrifying the children (4) |

1. The (2) sentence indicates that *terrifying* is an adjective in this construction. In (3) sentence, the verbal nature of *terrifying* is indicated by the fact that we cannot add a *very,* as in the (2) sentence. It is further indicated by the presence of *the children* (the direct object) after *annoying.* Notice also that we can turn the (3) sentence into a passive sentence (*the children were terrified by the film*). In this case, *terrifying* is the main verb of the sentence, and it is preceded by the progressive auxiliary verb is. In the (1) sentence, there is only one verb, the main verb *is.*

We can distinguish between the following pairs using the same criteria:

**Table 2.2. –Ing Form Adjectival and Verbal**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Adjectival** | **Verbal** |
| Your comments are alarming | Your comments are alarming the people |
| The defendant’s answer were misleading | The defendant’s answer were misleading the jury |

1. We can also identify the *–ing* forms as verbal if it is possible to change the *–ing* form into a non-progressive verb:

**Table 2.3. Progressive and Non-Progressive Sentences**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Progressive** | **Non-progressive** |
| (1) Your comments are alarming | Your comments alarms |
| (2) Your paper was interesting | Your paper interested |

Compare the change from the (2) progressive to the non-progressive. In these instances, the inability to produce fully acceptable non-progressive sentences indicates the adjectival use. Similar indeterminacy occurs with the *–ed* forms. Again, we can generally use *very* to determine whether the *–ed* word is adjectival or verbal:

**Table 2.4. –Ed/–En Form Adjectival and Verbal**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| The bomb was detonated | The bomb was very detonated |
| This document is hand-written | This document is very hand-written |
| My house was built in only twelve weeks | My house was very built in only twelve weeks |

The inability to supply *very*in these cases indicates a verbal rather than an adjectival construction. However, this test is less reliable with the*-ed* forms than it is with*-ing* forms, since *very*can sometimes be supplied in both the adjectival and the verbal constructions:

**Table 2.5. –Ed Form Adjectival and Verbal**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Adjectival** | **Verbal** |
| I was embarrassed  I was very embarrassed | I was embarrassed by your behavior  I was very embarrassed by your behavior |
| She was surprised  She was very surprised | She was surprised by my reaction She was very surprised by my reaction |

The presence of a *by-*agent phrase (*by your behavior, by my reaction*) indicates that the *–ed* form is verbal. Conversely, the presence of a complement, such as a *that-*clause, indicates that it is an adjectival. Compare these following two constructions:

**Adjectival :** The jury was convinced that the defendant was innocent

**Verbal :** The jury was convinced by the lawyer’s argument

Here are some further examples of adjectival constructions (with complements) and verbal constructions (with *by*-agent phrases):

**Table 2.6. Adjectival and Verbal Construction**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Adjectival** | **Verbal** |
| I was delighted to meet you again | I was delighted by his compliment |
| John is terrified of losing his job | John is terrified by his boss |
| I was frightened that I would be late | I was frightened by your expression |
| I was disappointed to hear your decision | I was disappointed by your decision |

If the *–ed* form is verbal, we can change the passive construction in which it occurs into an active one:

**Passive Verbal :** I was delighted by his compliments

**Active Verbal :** His compliments delighted me

1. Similarly, the problem does not arise if the main verb is not *be*. For example, the participial forms in *this book seems boring*, and *he remained offended* are all adjectives. Compare the following:

John was depressed

John felt depressed

According to Kibbort (2005: 2),

a resultant participle, which is semantically oriented towards the affected participant, is both an adjective and a verb and can function as either: (a) the head of the predicative complement to the main predicator, with *be* as the main verb, head of verbal phrase, alternating with other copular verbs such as *appear, look,* or *seem;* or (b) the main verb of the passive construction, with *be* as an auxiliary alternating with *become* or *get.*

**Table 2.7. Participial Adjective (Active and Passive)**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Active** | **Passive** |
| She looks interesting | He become interested |
| The book seems boring | They get bored |
| That boys look annoying | She feels annoyed |
| It seemed confusing | It became confused |

1. Attributive Participial Adjective Rules

Have a look at these four sentences:

**Table 2.8. Examples of Attributive Participial Adjective**

|  |
| --- |
| What an alarming noise (1) |
| I had never seen such a boring film (2) |
| I see a confessed killer (3) |
| She looked like a practiced liar (4) |

1. The (1) sentence indicates the *–ing* form *alarming* is an adjective which describes the article *an* and the *noise which is/was alarming*. The *–ed* form *confessed* in the (3) sentence is also an adjective which describes the article *a* and the noun *killer who has confessed.* Both are usually called a noun phrase, but they have a different meaning.
2. Similarly with the (2) sentence, it indicates the *–ing* form *boring* is an adjective which describes the article *a* and the noun *film* *which is/was boring*. The *–ed* form *practiced* in the (4) sentence is also an adjective which describes the article *a* and the noun *liar who has practiced.*
3. Those four sentences are verbal which have adjectival noun phrase. Have a look at this sentence:

They shared an excited story

S V NP

The NP (Noun Phrase) is adjectival. It describes that *they shared a story which has excited*.

Differ with this following sentence:

They shared an exciting story

S V NP

The NP (Noun Phrase) is adjectival. It describes that *they shared a story which is/was exciting.*