

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter contains critical review of some existing literature related with the topic of this study and previous study which conducted by some researchers.

A. Syntax

Syntax is one of the division of micro linguistics which study about the sentence. Chaer (2007) explained that syntax originally came from Greek “sun” means “together” and “tatein” means “place (v)”. So, those words mean: place some words together to become a group of word (sentence). The other experts also have the other definition about syntax. Anderson and Lightfoot (2002) stated that syntax was largely a promissory note to the effect that such sign-based analysis would eventually encompass the larger unit of phrases, sentences, etc.

B. Syntactic Structure

The structure of Syntax can be explained by various ways. Francis (1958) proposed four types of Syntactic structure, they are:

1. Structure of Modification

In structure of modification there two main components: head and a modifier. the modifier has meaning that serves to become quality, select, change, or in some other ways affect the meaning of the

head. There are four classes of word that can be as head, they are: noun, verb, adjective, and adverb.

a. Noun as head

The common modifiers that modify noun are:

- **Adjective.** E.g. *an expensive book, a handsome man*, etc. In this case, adjective is almost always come directly before the noun. Francis explained (1958: 298) that adjective may come after the head if (1) it is in a certain fixed phrases such as technical vocabulary or familiar quotation. E.g. *darkness visible, fee simple*, etc. (2) it is a part of larger structure or it is followed by the next utterance. E.g. *the book is thicker than my magazine*.
- **Noun.** Noun as modifier include appositive, possessive and noun adjunct. Let differentiate those types of noun by attending to the following examples:

Doctor Smith (appositive)

My family's doctor (possessive)

Student ability (noun adjunct)

In order to avoid ambiguities between possessive and noun adjunct, Francis (1958:300-301) gave brief note as the following:

- 1) The noun-adjunct is almost always singular, hence an ending in /-s, -z, -iz/ usually indicates the possessive.
- 2) Certain noun-determiners (*this/these* and *that/those*) exhibit the phenomenon of concord; that is, they have one form that goes with singular nouns and another that goes with plural nouns. This often helps to indicate whether the determiner goes with the head (in which case the modifier is a nounadjunct) or with the modifier (in which case the modifier is a possessive)
- 3) Most nonpersonal nouns of more than two syllables do not have the {-‘s} inflection, so that any form ending in /-s, -z, -iz/ must be a plural noun-adjunct.
- 4) A few nouns have four distinct forms, so that the possessive and the plural are always phonemically distinct.

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

E.g. *Running water* (present participle {-ing})

Baked potatoes (past participle {-ed})

Money to burn (to- infinitive)

From the examples above we can see that both present participle and past participle as noun modifier come before noun. Yet, sometimes the position of present participle may be after noun if it is followed by the next utterance. E.g. *water running in the street*. In this case “running” comes after the head “water”. While infinitive can modify noun if it comes after noun

- **Adverb.** Adverbs as noun modifier always come after noun. E.g. *the man here, the book over there, heavens above, my driving slowly*, etc.
- **Prepositional Phrase.** Prepositional phrase can be divided into three groups based on their morphemic structure, they are: (1) **simple prepositions** are the prepositions that have only one base. It includes *after, from, in, on, out, as, at, but, by, down, for, off, near, with, under*, etc. (2) **compound prepositions** are the prepositions that consist of two or more free bases. Some of compound prepositions are *across from, down from, together with, along with, due to, onto, up to, out of, instead of, inside of, without*, etc. (3) **phrasal prepositions.** It consists of three words: a simple preposition, a noun, and another simple preposition. Some examples of phrasal prepositions are *in regard to, on*

account of, in spite of, in addition to, in front of, in behalf of, on behalf of, by means of, etc.

A fish out of water

A fish from under water

The prepositional phrases “out of water” and “from under water” are modify the head “fish”

b. Verb as head

Miller (2002: 1) stated that a head can be modified by more than one modifier and may have no modifier. A head can also be modified by various way. According to Francis (1958: 314-318) verb as head can be modified by adverb, noun, adjective and verb. There are two possibilities in structure of modification which the head is verb. We must distinguish whether the head is only verb or the head is some other structure containing a verb.

(a) I read the text carefully

(b) I carefully read the text

(c) I has carefully read the text

In (a) we can notice that the adverb “carefully” not just modify the verb but the whole structure of complementation “I read the text”. While in (b) the adverb just modifies the verb. Some modifiers that can modify the verb are:

- **Adverb** as verb modifier may come before verb, after verb, and between auxiliary and verb. The example (a) and (b)

above are the verb as head and adverb as modifier which come before and after the verb. While in (c) the adverb comes between the auxiliary and verb

- **Noun** as verb modifier happen when it follow the verb.
- **Adjective.** A quite limited number may have an even more limited number of adjective as modifier. E.g. *the children runwild, the dog went crazy, the show felt flat*. It is noted that the verbs in structure oh this sort are of the type we shall define as intransitive, and that nothing can come between verb and adjective except a qualifier or an adverbial modifier of the adjective (Francis: 1958: 318)
- **Verb.** The verbs that can modify verb may be the present participle form or the infinitive.

E.g. *The children come running* (present participle as modifier)

He wants to succeed (infinitive as modifier)

- **Prepositional Phrase.** E.g. *he spoke about his work*

c. Adjective as head

- **Qualifiers.** The most commonly adjective modifier are qualifiers, like *very, rather* and *quite*. E.g. *very good, quite difficult*

- **Adverb.** When adverbs modify the adjective, they come immediately before the adjective-head, as in the following examples:

The widely famous singer

The totally beautiful dress

Furthermore, Francis (1958: 320) explained when the adjective is in the predicate after a linking verb, a following adverb may seem to modify it. But actually the adverb in this position modifies the whole structure of complementation of which the adjective is a part:

It is dark ahead

The house seems clean everywhere

- **Noun.** Many of adjective as head and noun as modifier combination take on the superfix {'+'} in some dialects or in some contexts; when they do, they can be considered compound words, rather than structures of modification. This is often recognized in writing by hyphenating them or even writing them as single words. E.g. *ice-cold lemonade*, *world-wide fame*, etc.
- **Verb.** In this case the verb is either in the present-participle inflection preceding the adjective head or in the infinitive form following the adjective-head. E.g. *freezing cold*, *hopping mad*, *hard to get*, *easy to know*.

- **Adjective.** On rare occasions adjective may be modified by other adjective. The expressions are likely to be stereotyped, such as the following: *dark blue, icy cold, crazy drunk*
- **Prepositional Phrases** are very common adjective-modifier, they come immediately after the adjective head. E.g. *hopeful of success, good for nothing*

d. Adverb as head

- **Qualifiers.** e.g. *very easily, happily enough*
- **Adverb.** E.g. *unusually eagerly, far away, sometimes below*
- **Nouns.** E.g. *a foot away, that easily*
- **Prepositional Phrases.** e.g. *away for a week, outside in the cold, behind in his work*

Moreover, in the range of sentence or clause analysis, structure of modification is found has verb as head and modified by various ways. Dikken (2013: 425) explained that the head of the sentence is verb. It is not only lexical verb which function as head of sentence but also non-lexical verb like an auxiliary, copula or modal.

2. Structure of Predication

The two immediate constituents of structure of predication are subject and predicate. Subject and predicate are essential part in sentence or clause. Meyer (2009: 136) stated that subject and predicate are the most component that clause contain. These component will be the first consideration to define the four types of sentence in English:

declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative sentence. From this explanation we know that the occurrence of subject and predicate can't be separated in sentence. Both of them come together in sentence and complete their function each other.

Each of **subject** and **predicate** may be a single word, a word with accompanying function word(s), a phrase, or one of the three other kinds of syntactic structures, modification, complementation, and coordination.

Predicates. Since the best distinguishing mark of a structure of predication is the predicate, we will begin with it. Once a predicate has been identified, its subject usually becomes apparent without difficulty. Whatever else predicate may consist of, it always has a verb or verb-phrase in key position. Thus if a predicate has only one word, that one word is a verb, as in *money talks*, *the sun set*. If the predicate is a structure of modification, its head is a *verb*. E.g. *the sun sets in the west*. Here, the prepositional phrase *in the west* modifies the verb *sets*. If the predicate is a structure of complementation, one of its immediate constituents is by definition a verbal element, which always has a verb at its core. E.g. *my neighbor **Painted** hishouse green*. If the predicate is a structure of coordination, its coordinate members are either verbs themselves or structures in which verbs are essentially elements: *we **walked and talked**, people either **like** this place **orhate** it*.

According to Miller (2002) The verbs exhibit formal distinction which can be classed under seven head: **person, tense, phase, aspect, mode, voice, and status**. These distinctions are made by means of inflections, auxiliaries and other function words, word order, and prosody.

a. *Person*. All English verbs except the modal auxiliaries have two persons, they are **common** and **third singular**. Verb forms consisting of base form + {-s} inflection are in the **third singular** person. Francis (1958: 331-332) gives more explanation that third singular person is used whenever a simple verb is the head-verb in a predicate whose subject is one of the following:

- 1) A noun for which *he, she* or *it* may be substituted. E.g. *the man walks; the sun sets; snow falls*
- 2) One of the pronouns *he, she* or *it*. E.g. *he feels; she speaks*
- 3) The function nouns *this* or *that*. E.g. *this looks good; that goes here*
- 4) A structure of modification of which one of the above is head. E.g. *the tall man in the car drives*
- 5) Any other part of speech beside a noun, or a structure of modification or complementation with such part of speech as head or verbal element. E.g. *eating candy causes tooth decay*.

- 6) One of certain special structure of predication: the included clause and the infinitive clause. E.g. *how it got there remains amystery*
- 7) A structure of coordination in which the coordinator is *or, nor, (n)either ... (n)or, or not only ... but also* and in which the last coordinate element belongs to (1)-(6) above. E.g. *either his mistakes or his bad luck keeps him poor*

While the **common** person is all other kind of subjects which do not include in third singular person 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*.

- b. *Tense*. All English verbs except a few auxiliaries have two tenses, the **common tense** (present) and the **past tense** (preterit). 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}).
- c. *Phase*. All English verbs except a few auxiliaries have two phases, the **simple** and the **perfect**. The **perfect** phase is marked by the use of various forms of the auxiliary *have* with the past-participle form of the verb, e.g. *he has spoken, we may have been, I should have worked*. In addition, certain verbs, all of the kind we shall later define as **intransitive**, have a

resultative phase, formed with the auxiliary *be* and the past-participle form of the verb, e.g. *he is gone, they are finished with the work*. Verbs not formally marked as in the perfect or resultative phase are in the **simple phase**.

- d. *Aspect*. English verbs have two aspects, the **simple**, the **durative**, and the **inchoative**. The **simple** aspect is unmarked. The **durative** is formed by the auxiliary *be* and the present participle (*be* + base + {-ing}) form of the verb, e.g. *he is talking, she was swimming*. The **inchoative** aspect is formed by the auxiliary *get* and the present participle (*get* + base + {-ing}) form of verb, e.g. *we got talking, let's get going*.
- e. *Mode*. The modes can be classified on the basis of form into two groups: (1) those formed by the **modal auxiliaries** (*can, may, shall, will, must, dare, need, do*) with the base form of the verb, e.g. *he can go; he does study; you will* and (2) those formed by certain **other auxiliaries** (*have, be, be going, be about, used, ought, get, have got*) with the infinitive (other auxiliaries + *to* + base) form of verb, e.g. *they have to go; she used to sing; he has got to study*. A verb-phrase may belong to two modes at the same time. In such case, only one may be from the modal-auxiliary group, and its auxiliary always comes first in the phrase. E.g. *he will be able to do it*, not *he will can do it*, or *he is going to can do it*.

f. *Voice*. English verbs have two voices, the **normal** or **active voice** and the **passive voice**. Passive voice forms consist of some form of the auxiliary *be* with the past-participle form of the verb. Another passive, formed with *get* as auxiliary and the past-participle, seems to be increasing in frequency, though grammarians are at present not agreed as to its status. Three types of voice forms are illustrated in the following examples:

ACTIVE	PASSIVE	
	Be-	Get-
He kills	He is killed	He gets killed
They built a house	The house was built	The house got built
We have done the homework	The homework has been done	The homework has got done

g. *Status*. English verbs have four statuses, the **affirmative**, the **interrogative**, the **negative**, and the **negative-interrogative**. The **interrogative** status is marked by a change in word order, involving the inversion of the subject and the auxiliary, (e.g. *is he working?*; *has he worked?*;) or the first auxiliary if more

than one are present. Verbs which have no auxiliary in the affirmative status use the auxiliary *do/does/did* to form the interrogative, except *be*, which always simply inverts subject and verb, and *have*, which may invert or may use the forms of *do*. Furthermore, Francis (1958: 337) stated that the auxiliaries *get, used (to)* also use the forms of *do*. E.g. *does he work?; did he get killed?; does he have to work?*. The **negative** status is marked by the insertion of the special function word *not* immediately after the first auxiliary. The **negative-interrogative** status combine the two former, as its name indicates.

All of the seven heads of verb have been discussed, let's try to analyze the following sentence: *They should not have been working*. The analyzing of that sentence are: *person-common; tense-past; phaseperfect; aspect-durative; mode-shall; voice-active; status-negative*.

3. Structure of Complementation

Structures of complementation consist of Verbal Element and Complement. The verbal element may be:

- A simple verb : he gives lessons
- A verb-phrase : we are learning grammar
- An infinitive : a boy to run errands

- A structure of modification with verb as head: I never in my life said that this was in the long run a mistake
- A structure of coordination: We caught and at the fish

Verbal Element is divided into three main groups:

a. Linking verbs

Linking verbs are thought of as a structural link between subject and complement. Some linking verbs are: be (as a full verb, not an auxiliary), was, became, seemed, remained, looked, and sounded.

E.g. *the man was hungry*.

Linking verb has complement but has passive form

b. Intransitive verbs

Verbs which may appear in the active voice as complete predicates without any complement. They may be modified in various way, but since they have no complement, they can't appear as verbal elements of structures of complementation. E.g. *the machine is running, the sun sinks in the west, the rain stopped*.

Intransitive verb has neither complement nor passive form

c. Transitive verbs

Verb which always have a complement when in the active voice and which have passive forms. E.g. *the man sold his car*

Transitive verb has both complement and passive form. The sentence above can be change into passive form by changing the

verb “sold” become “was sold” and the complement “his car” be shifted to subject. So the sentence become: *his car was sold by him*

Complement as the component of structure of complementation has some types, they are:

a. ***Subjective complement*** is the complement appearing with linking verb. Subjective complements may be single words, with or without related function words, or they may be structures of varying degrees of complexity. Some examples of objective complement using single word are:

- Noun : *the woman is a nurse*
- Function Noun : *ripeness is all*
- Adjective : *the corn is ripe*
- Adverb : *the time is now*
- Verb(Infinitive) : *his wish is to die*
- (Present Participle) : *his hobby is writing*
- (Past Participle) : *this meat is canned*
- Prepositional Phrase : *the train is on time*

Some examples below are objective complement using complex structure:

- Structure of Modification: *his plan is to retire peacefully to Florida*

- Structure of Coordination: *the day was dark, gloomy and cold*
- Structure of Complementation: *his job is to supervise the operation of this machine*
- Structure of Predication (included clauses): *the trouble is that he doesn't want to do it*

b. **Object** is the complements appearing with transitive verbs. Francis (1958: 349-350) said that objects that appearing after transitive verb can be divided into two types, they are: (1) *Direct object* is complement of a transitive verb which consists of a single object, whether it be single word or a complex structure, and (2) *Indirect object*. Complement of structure of complementation whose verbal element is transitive consist of two objects. One of them is always a *direct object*. The other is either an *indirect object* or an objective *complement*.

The following examples are direct object consisting of single word:

- Noun : *he found a friend*
- Pronoun : *I saw him*
- Function verb : *we sent several*
- Infinitive : *they want to go*
- Present participle : *she likes walking*

Direct object consisting of complex structure are:

- Structure of Modification : *she likes walking alone in the rain*
- Structure of Coordination : *the party needs a new platform and anew leader*
- Structure of Complementation : *they dislike studying grammar*
- Structure of Predication : *I know he is here*

Some examples of indirect object:

- Noun as Indirect object: *he told the policeman his name*
- Function noun as Indirect object: *we gave each a present*
- Pronoun as Indirect object: *the agent sold them a house*
- Structure of Modification as Indirect object: *she made a hungrytramp a sandwich*
- Structure of coordination as indirect object: *he gave his father andmother a present*

Criteria of indirect object

According to Francis (1958: 351) the criteria of indirect object are:

- With active verbs it occurs only in company with a direct object, as part of a complex complement
- In such complement, it always comes before the direct object
- Its referent is different from that of the direct object

- When verbal elements appearing with such complements are changed to the passive voice, either object may be made subject
- An indirect object may be changed to a prepositional phrase without major change in the total meaning of the structure

c. Objective complement is also the complement which occurs with the transitive verb. Its appearance follows direct object. Here are the examples of objective complement:

- Noun as Objective complement: *we made him a member*
- Adjective as Objective complement: *he painted his house green*
- Adverb as Objective complement: *we found him alone*
- Past Participle as objective complement: *they considered the job finished*
- Prepositional phrase as objective complement: *he left her in tears*
- Structure Of modification as objective complement: *we made him a member of our club*
- Structure Of coordination as objective complement: *he painted his house white, red and green*

Criteria of objective complement

- With active verbs, an objective complement occurs only in company with a direct object as part of a complex complement
- In such complements, it always follows the direct object
- Its structural referent is the same as that of the direct object
- When verbal elements appearing with such complements are changed to the passive voice, only the first (direct) object may be made subject

d. Object with passive verb. A verbal element in the passive voice can have a complement, but it always consists of a single word. This may be direct object, indirect object or objective complement.

E.g. *He was given a book* (direct object)

A book was given him (indirect object)

He was elected president (objective complement)

Gelderen (2002:89) classified the types of verb and the complements that follows them as on the table below:

Types of verbs	Examples	Complements
Intransitive	Swim, arrive	-
Transitive	See, eat, read	Direct object

Ditransitive	Give, tell	Direct & indirect object
Copula (linking verb)	Be, become	Subjective predication
Complex transitive	Consider, know	Direct object & objective predication
Prepositional	Refer, glance	Prepositional object
Phrasal	Switch on, give in	Direct object
Phrasal preposition	Get down to	Prepositional object

4. Structure of Coordination

A structure of coordination consists of two or more syntactically equivalent units joined in a structure which function as a single unit. The units joined may be any of 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 Or	Along with	Both ... and
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The coordinator in the first column always appear between the elements which they join. Those in the second column may appear in that position: they may also mark in certain split constructions, and those in the third column, which are called correlative, are in two parts, the first part appearing at the beginning of the structure and the second between its last two components.

A structure of coordination which more than two components is called a series. E.g. *red white and blue*. The fact that coordinators are not always used between members of structure of coordination means that such structures may frequently be structurally ambiguous. Consider the following sentence:

My father invites his friend a teacher and a singer

If we ignore the punctuation, the sentence above has three possible meaning:

- a. *A teacher and a singer* is a modifier of *his friend*. Therefore *friend, teacher* and *singer* all have the same referent, only one person was invited by *my father*.

- b. *His friend* is an indirect object and *a teacher and a singer* is direct object of structure of complementation. In this case, *my father* invited *a teacher and a singer* for *his friend*.
- c. *His friend a teacher and a singer* is a series of structure of coordination.

Another ambiguity may appear in the sentence below:

He paints pictures and plays guitar well

Such sentence may has two possible meanings:

- a. The adverb *well* modifies the whole structure of coordination, so it applies to both verbs
- b. The adverb *well* only modifies the structure of complementation *plays guitar*, so it does not apply to *paints* at all

The structure in which a single component is assumed to be functioning in two different position in a structure of coordination (or in which it is “understood” to be repeated) can properly be called an **elliptical structure**. Notice the examples below:

- 1) *I like fresh fish not salted*
- 2) *He told John to come at ten and Bill at noon*
- 3) *The house was painted white and the barn red*

In 1), it is clear that *fresh fish* and *salted* are joined by the coordinator *not* to make a structure of coordination which function as the direct object of *like*. But these two components are not syntactically equivalent; to make them so we have to repeat *fish* or use a function noun like *ones* after *salted*. In such a case, analysis is made simpler by assuming an imaginary or omitted repetition of *fish* in this position:

I like fresh fish not salted (fish)

Let's we compare with the following sentence: *fresh not salted fish* In such case, *fresh not salted* is modifier of the head *fish*. So there is nothing elliptical about this structure. While in examples 2) and 3), we can do the same with the example 1). *To come* may be understood as repeat between *bill* and *at*, and *was painted* may best be repeated in example 3).

Split structure of coordination. Normally, the constituents of a structure of coordination appear right next to one another, with the coordinator, if any, between them. But with coordinators of the second group on the previous page, such as *rather than*, split and inverted structures like the following are common:

Rather than starve he chose to eat insect

This is most simply analyzed as an inversion of

He chose to eat insect rather than starve

Correlative structure. In the usual structure of coordination in which one of these appears, the first constituent comes between the two parts of the correlative and the second constituent comes immediately after the second part:

- 1) *I bring not peace but a sword*
- 2) *He is either extremely clever or totally mad*
- 3) *A man both popular and in good repute*

In 1), *not peace but a sword* is a correlative structure of coordination, direct object of *bring*. In 2), *either extremely clever or totally mad* is a correlative structure of coordination whose constituents are themselves structure of modification. In 3), *both popular and in good repute* is a correlative structure of coordination. In this case, the two components of the structure of coordination are formally equivalent; *popular* is an adjective and *in good repute* is a prepositional phrase. But they are syntactically equivalent, since both are modifiers of the same head *man*.

C. Sentence and Clause

1. Sentence

Some experts stated that sentence is a construction of a particular kind, normally, we think of a sentence as a well-formed construction containing one or more "predications" that is a construction that has at least one "subject" and one "predicate." Although it might be possible to articulate rules governing the combination of sentences into narratives, or orations, or whatever, the study of grammar, strictly speaking, normally stops at the level of the sentence.

Francis (1958:372) had another definition about sentence. According to him, sentence is as much of the uninterrupted utterance of a single speaker as is include either between the beginning of the utterance and the pause which ends the sentence-final contour or between two such pauses.

According website (<http://esl.fis.edu/learners/advice/syntax.htm>) there are four types of sentences based on the clauses they contain, they are:

- a. Simple: Contains a single, independent clause.

E.g. - *I don't like dogs.*

- *Our school basketball team lost their last game of the season 75-68.*

- *The old hotel opposite the bus station in the center of the town is probably going to be knocked down at the end of next year.*

- b. Compound: Contains two independent clauses that are joined by a coordinating conjunction. (The most common coordinating conjunctions are: *but, or, and, so*. Remember: **boas**)

E.g. - *I don't like dogs, and my sister doesn't like cats.*

- *You can write on paper, or you can use a computer.*

- *A tree fell onto the school roof in a storm, but none of the students was injured.*

- c. Complex: Contains an independent clause plus one or more dependent clauses. (A dependent clause starts with a subordinating conjunction.

Examples: *that, because, while, although, where, if*.)

E.g. - *I don't like dogs that bark at me when I go past.*

- *She did my homework, while her father cooked dinner.*

- *You can write on paper, although a computer is better if you want to*

correct mistakes easily.

- d. Compound-complex: Contains 3 or more clauses (of which at least two are independent and one is dependent).

E.g.- *I don't like dogs, and my sister doesn't like cats because they make her sneeze.*

- *You can write on paper, but using a computer is better as you can easily correct your mistakes.*

- *A tree fell onto the school roof in a storm, but none of the students was injured, although many of them were in classrooms at the top of the building.*

2. Clause

According to Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, clause can be defined as a group of words, consisting of a subject and a finite form of a verb (the form that shows the tense and subject of the verb) which might or might not be a sentence. From such definition we know that a clause may form part of a sentence or it may be a complete sentence in itself.

For example:

He was eating a bacon sandwich.
[clause]

She had a long career	But she is remembered mainly for one early work.
[clause]	[clause]

Clause as a part of sentence has some types. In dividing the types of clause, this website (<http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/words/clauses>)

explain two types of clauses that may occur in a sentence. (1) *Main Clause*. Every sentence contains at least one main clause. A main clause may form part of a compound sentence or a complex sentence, but it also makes sense on its own, as in this example:

He was eating a bacon sandwich.
[main clause]

Compound sentences are made up of two or more main clauses linked by a conjunction such as *and*, *but*, or *so*, as in the following examples:

I love sport	And	I'm captain of the local football team.
[main clause]	[conjunction]	[main clause]

She was born in Spain	But	her mother is Polish.
[main clause]	[conjunction]	[main clause]

(2) *Subordinate clause*. A subordinate clause depends on a main clause for its meaning. Together with a main clause, a subordinate clause forms part of a complex sentence. Here are two examples of sentences containing subordinate clauses:

After we had had lunch,	we went back to work.
[subordinate clause]	[main clause]

I first saw her in Paris,	where I lived in the early nineties
[main clause]	[subordinate clause]

Subordinate

clause itself has two types: **conditional clauses and relative clauses**. A **conditional clause** is one that usually begins with *if* or *unless* and describes something that is possible or probable:

<i>If it looks like rain</i>	<i>a simple shelter can be made out of a plastic sheet</i>
[conditional clause]	[main clause]

<i>I'll be home tomorrow</i>	<i>unless the plane's delayed for hours.</i>
[main clause]	[conditional clause]

While a **relative clause** is one connected to a main clause by a word such as *which, that, whom, whose, when, where, or who*:

I first saw her in Paris,	where I lived in the early nineties.
[main clause]	[relative clause]

She wants to be with Thomas,	who is best suited to take care of her.
[main clause]	[relative clause]

I was wearing the dress	that I bought to wear to Jo's party.
[main clause]	[relative clause]

D. Previous Studies

In conducting this research, the researcher is inspired by some researchers in the field of analysis on text media.

The first, the research was conducted by Halimah (2016) entitled “The Syntactical Structure in Hello Magazine” the resercher used a descriptive qualitative research and she is as key instrument in order to reach the detail explanation. the purpose of this research is to obtain deep understanding of the syntactic patterns on surface and deep structures in Hello magazine gossip article sentences.

The second, the research was conducted by Anita Munfaati Azizah (2013) entitled “A Study on Structure of Modification Used in Jakarta Post Headline”. The purpose of this study is to know the types of structure of modification found in Jakarta Post headlines. The result of this research as follow: the types of structure of modification is divided into simple and

complex pattern. In simple pattern, the structure of modification appears noun as modifier of noun, adjective as modifier of noun, function word as modifier of noun, noun as modifier of verb, adverb as modifier of verb. While in complex pattern appears noun modifying, adjective modifying and prepositional phrase modifying.

In the present research, the researcher uses the same area of Linguistics. Halimah (2016) and Anita (2013) also focus on the syntactic structures, the differences can be seen from the objective studies. Both previous studies focus on describing the syntactic structures by applying chinese boxes and tree diagram. while, in this research, the objectives study are to find the types of syntactic structure, componential variety form the syntactic structures and the frequency of components form each syntactic structure