CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discuse the underlying theories related to this study. The major issues raised here are: word, phrase, kinds of phrases, the function of phrase, and the meaning of phrase, sentence, songs' lyrics and previous study.

A. WORD

Word is what utterence by someone in speaking/ communicating, here the researcher found definition of word that will be explained by:

Jackson, et al. (2000:48) they said that "a word is a minimal free form, the term word is used to designate an intermediate structure smaller than a whole phrase and yet generally larger than a single sound segment". The simple manner to know what the meaning of word is usually it's listed in dictionaries, and may be separated in speech by pauses. Words consist of one or more morphemes and which typically occures in the structure of phrases.

According to Jackson, et al. (2000:50) they state that "there are four characteristics considered essential in definition of the word in English", these are:

First, the word is an uninteruptible unit. When elements are added to a word to modify its meaning, they are never included within that word. They respect the

internal stability of the word are added either as the beginning as prefixes of the word or at the end as suffixes.

For example: The prefix *un-* added to the words *aware* $\longrightarrow$ *unaware*

The suffix *–able* added to the words *drink* $\longrightarrow$ *drinkable*

Secondly, the word may consist of one or more morphemes. When it consists of one morpheme only, then it cannot be broken down into smaller meaningful units. Example: dog, hand, man, out, work. These are called 'simple' words, which are typically 'minimum free forms', in sense that they may stand by themselves. When words consist of more than one morpheme, they may be either complex or compund.

- Complex words may be broken down into one free form and one or more bound forms. Example: *dog-s, happi-ly, quick-er, work-ing*
- Compund words consist of more than one free form. Example: *birth-day, black-bird, candle-stick, coat-hanger.*

Thirdly, the word occurs typically in the structure of phrases. Then morphemes are used to build words, words to build phrases, phrases to build clauses, and clauses to build sentences.

Finally, it is also an important characteristic of each word that it should belong to a specific word class or part of speech. According to Quirk et al. (1985:67) in Jackson, et. al. (2000) distinguish word as follow:

a. Closssed classes: preposition, pronoun, determiner, conjunction, auxiliary verb.

b. Open classes: noun, adjective, verb, adverb.

c. Lesser categories: numeral,interjection

d. A small number of words of unique function: the particle *not* and the infinitive marker *to*.

According to Quirk et al. (1985:67) state that "The clossed classes is called 'grammatical' or 'function' words, which generally serve the grammatical construction of sentences. They are small classes, with a restricted and largely unchanging membership. The open classes, by contrast, are larger, and they are constantly being added to. The member of the open classes are the 'content' words, carrying the main meaning of a sentence, they are the words likely to be retained in a telegram or a headline. It is not gerally possible to tell which word class a belongs to, simply by looking at it, though inflections may provided a clue". Example:

A word ending in –*ing* is likely to be a verb,

And one ending in –*est* an adjective

However, to be sure it needs to study about a word's behaviour in sentences. All words that function in the same way are deemed to belong to the same word class. For example, consider the following sentence:

on

The book was *in* the cupboard

Under

Since they behave the same way in the sentence, they belong to the same word class, which is called 'preposition'. The nation of word class is therefore useful because it allows us to make general and economical statements about the way the words of a language behave.

B. PHRASE

Phrases are groups of word contains with determiner, pre-modifier, head, post-modifier they do not contain subject and predicate. As like Richard, et al. (1985:39) said that "a phrase is a group of word which forms a grammatical unit, a phrase does not contains a finite verb and does not have a subject-predicate structure".

Gelderen, Elly Van. (2002:43) assumes that "a phrase is a group of words forming a unit and united around a head, ex: a noun or a verb. Since phrases are syntactic units, a number of rules apply to them".

Besides that I find some definition about phrase from different sources. Some of them are:

Prastowo, Panca (2009:65) states that definition of phrase is: *"Penggabungan dua atau lebih kata, dimana terdapat satu kata yang menjadi kata sentralnya. Hasil dari penggabungan itu dapat semakin memperjelas makna frasanya atau menimbulkan pengertian yang baru"*.

Dalahunty and Garvey (2000:274) state that "Traditional *phrase* is defined as a group of words that does not contain a verb and its subject and is used as a single part of speech."This definition entails three characteristics: (1) it specifies that only a group of words can constitute a phrase, implying that a single word cannot; (2) it distinguishes phrases from clauses; and (3) it requires that the groups of words believed to be a phrase constitute a single grammatical unit".

Verspoor, and Kim Sauter (2000:118) in their books *English Sentence Analysis.An Introductory Course.* State that "a phrase can consist of one word or more words. If it consists of more words, it usually has one main word that is the most important one as far as meaning is concerned".

For example: in the phrase *the cushion in the chair in the garden* the thing talked about is the cushion. This main word is called the *head* of the phrase. Since the main word is realized by a noun, the whole phrase is called a *noun phrase*. Beside of those they explain the function of phrase. Phrase can be used as subject, object, and predicate and so on of a sentence or a clause. But phrases can also be parts of other phrases.

B.1 KINDS/TYPES OF PHRASES

Prastowo, Panca. (2009:65) assumes that there are eight types of phrases, they are: noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverbial phrase, prepositional phrase, infinitive phrase, gerundive phrase, and participle phrase.

By contrast, Verspoor, and Kim Sauter (200:119) state that "phrases can also be analyzed into constituents, each with a function and realization. The head of a phrase is realized by noun/pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, and preposition. In total there are five kinds of phrase". Greenbaum, Sidney (1991:39) adds an opinion in his book "*An Introduction to English Grammar*". He also mentions "there are five types of phrases that is built a simple sentence (noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverbial phrase, prepositional phrase)". These are:

1.1. Noun Phrase

The possible constituents of noun phrases are determiner, pre-modifier, head and post-modifier. The central element of a noun phrase is called its head. The head may have words before it called determiners and pre-modifier and word after it called post-modifier. Pre-modifier of nouns are always realized as adjective phrases. Note even when there is only one word to modify a noun, it is still called a phrase because potentially it could have more than one word.

Example: dark   eyes

Premod:adj   head:noun
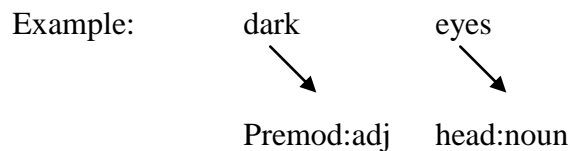
The main word in a noun phrase is a noun or a pronoun. There are a number of subclasses of noun and pronouns that will be discussed later. The structure of typical noun phrase may be represented schematically in the following way, where the parentheses indicate elements of the structure that may be absent:

Determiners	Pre-modifiers	Noun	Post-modifiers

Determiners introduce noun phrase. Modifiers are units that are dependent on the main word and can be omitted. There are two modifiers, pre-modifiers (come before the noun) and post modifiers (come after the noun). Here are examples of possible structures of noun phrases.

Noun	books
Determiner + noun	those books
Pre-mod + noun	history books
Determiner + pre-mod + noun	some long books
Noun + post-mod	books about Canada
Determiner + noun + post-mod	some books on astronomy

Pre-mod + noun + post-mod   popular books on psychology

Det + pre-mod + noun + post-mod   some popular books on astronomy

a) DETERMINERS

Greenbaum, Sidney (1991:39) explains that "A determiner is a word used before a noun to give more information about the noun". There are three classes of determiners:

1. Pre-determiners, eg: all, both, half

2. Central determiners, eg: a(n), the, those

3. Post-modifiers, eg: other, two, first.

By contrast, Verspoor and Sauter, Kim (2000:122) explain one additional constituent of the noun phrase functions as determiner. Determiners are words somewhat like adjectives in that they come before a noun, but they are different in that they do not say anything about the quality or status of the 'thing', but tells 'where' (in relation to the speaker) the thing/person can be found. Determiners may be the articles (*a/an*) or (*the*) or any of the dependent pronouns and numerals, including some expressions like *a few, a number of, a lot of* and so on, which we also call indefinite pronoun.

Articles, dependent pronouns, and dependent numerals are often used in combination. Many books sub-classify the determiners into pre-determiners, central determiners, and post-determiners, but we will avoid this sub-classification and call them all determiners. Often, it is difficult to argue which of the determiners is the more important. Then it will name them separately.

When we analyze a phrase, we name the constituents at phrase level (head, determiner, and modifier) and its realization.

Example: All   the   books   we read

Det:indefpron det: art   head: noun   post-mod

T. Givon, (2001:6) in his book *Syntax. An introduction.* He explains about determiners. As noted, "English determiners follow the definite quantifier slot. Various occupants of the determiner slot in English are:

1. **Deictic**

    This, that, these and those are known as deictic determiner; they describe the position of an object, seen from the speaker's viewpoint. This and these (used for singular and plural nouns respectively) refer to objects that close by. While, that and those (used for singular and plural nouns respectively) refer to objects that are further away. The closeness can be physical or psychological.

For example: This car is expensive

That horse run fast

2. **Definite**

Definite determiners, which imply that the referent of the resulting noun phrase is defined specifically:

Example: The woman

3. **Indefinite**

A and an are indefinite articles that serve the same purpose, but they cannot be used interchangeably, because 'a' is only used before words that begin with consonants, and 'an' is used only before words that begin with vowels. (Note: 'an' before 'h' when it is silent, as in 'hour' and 'honour'; 'a' before 'u' and 'eu' when they sound like 'you', as in 'European' and 'university'.

Example: a girl, an umbrella

4. **Non-referring/ Quantifier**

Quantifiers used to give someone information about the number of something, to refer both count and uncount nouns and refer the abstract nouns.

Example: Any milk, no trouble

5. **Possessive**

Possessives, including those corresponding to pronouns – *my*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *their*, *whose*.

Example: My boy, john's work, the woman's son

b) **MODIFIERS**

Greenbaum, Sidney (1991:42) explains the noun phrase may have more than one pre-modifiers or post-modifier:

Example: a *long* hot summer

Acute, *life-threatening* crises

A *nasty* gash *in his chin which needed medical attention*

There are two post-modifiers in the last example because each separately modifiers gash: *a nasty* gash *in his chin, a nasty* gash *which needed medical attention.* The modifier may itself be modified:
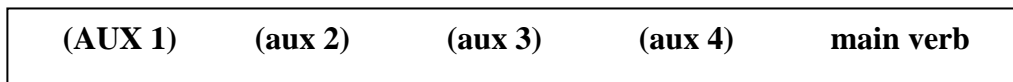
A <u>comfortably</u> *cool* room

The reduction *of violence* <u>to children</u>

Those eye witnesses *willing* <u>to testify about what they had seen</u>

1.2 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.

(AUX 1)	(aux 2)	(aux 3)	(aux 4)	main verb

It is very unusual for all four auxiliaries to appear in one verb phrase, but if two or more auxiliaries co-occur they must appear in the sequence indicated in the diagram, for the four subclasses will be explained as follow:

Regular main verbs have four forms that are constructed in this way.

1. **Base form**

   The base form is what we find in dictionary entries: laugh, mention, play.

2. **–s form**

   The –s form adds to the base form an ending in –s: laughs, mentions, plays.

3. **–ing participle**

   The –ing participle add to the base form an ending in –ing: laughing, mentioning, playing.

4. **–ed form (past or –ed participle)**

   The –ed form adds to the base form an ending in –ed: laughed, mentioned, played. The –ed form represent two distinct functions that are differentiated in the forms of some irregular verbs:

   4a. past

   4b. –ed participle

Contrast the one form for *laugh* in the following sets of sentences with the two form of *give* and *speak*:

Past: She *laughed* at us

She *gave* us a smile

She *spoke* to us

-ed participle: She has *laughed* at us

She has *given* us a smile

She has *spoken* to us

Irregular main verbs have either fewer or more forms than regular main verbs. For example, put has only three forms: put, puts, putting. Put serves as the base form and also as the –ed form in the function of the past and of the –ed participle:

Base form   they always *put* the cat out at night

-ed form/ past   they *put* the cat out last night

-ed form/ -ed participle   they have *put* the cat out

➢ **The irregular verb *be* has the most forms, eight in all:**

Base form   be

Present   am, is, are

Past   was, were

-ing participle   being

-ed participle   been

➢ **The sequence of auxiliaries**

Referred to the four types of auxiliaries, if we choose to use auxiliaries, they must appear in the following sequence:

1. Modal (modal auxiliary), such as *can, may, will*

2. Perfect auxiliary *have*

3. Progressive auxiliary *be*

4. Passive auxiliary *be*

These four uses of the auxiliaries specify the form of the verb that follows:

1. Modal, followed by base form: *may* phone

2. Perfect *have*, followed by *–ed* participle: *have phoned*

3. Progressive *be*, followed by *–ing* participle: *was* phon*ing*

4. Passive *be*, followed by *–ed* participle: *was* phon*ed*

The sequence does not take account of the dummy operator *do* which is introduced when there would otherwise not be an auxiliary in the verb phrase. In this function, *do* is therefore the only auxiliary present. It is followed by the base form:

I *did* phone

Did you phone?

I *did* not phone

Martha phoned, and I *did* too.

There are also **phrasal auxiliaries,** which are intermediate between auxiliary and main verbs. Here are some examples:

> Sandra *is going to* apply for the job
> I *had better* eat now
> My parents *are about* to leave
> We *have got to speak* to her
> He may *be able to* help us
> Jennifer *is supposed* to phone us today

1.3. Adjective phrase

The main word in an adjective phrase is an adjective. The structure of the typical adjective phrase may be represented in the following way, where the parentheses indicate elements of the structure that may be absent:

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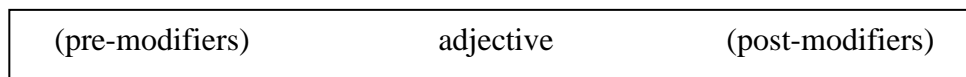
Modifiers qualify in some respect what is denoted by the adjective, and they are optional. Some post-modifiers complete what is implied in the meaning of the adjective. For example, if we say Tom is afraid we intend this to mean that tom is filled with fear in some respect. The post-modifier specifies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

(1) Tom is *afraid*
- Of spider
- For his job
- To say anything
- That no one will believe him

A few adjectives (at least in certain sense) must have a post-modifier:

(2) Mary is fond of us

(3) I am aware that he is abroad

(4) The contract is subject to approval by my committee

Some adjectives that take obligatory post-modifiers resemble verbs in their meaning:

(1a) Tom *fears* that no one will believe him

(2a) Mary *likes* us

(3a) I *know* that he is abroad

(4a)The contract *requires* approval by my committee

Here are some examples of possible structures of adjective phrases:

Adjective	happy
Pre-mod + adjective	very happy
Adjective + post-mod	happy to see you
Pre-mod +Adjective + post-mod	very happy that you could join us

Indefinite pronouns, such as *somebody*, require the adjective phrase to follow them: I bought something *quite expensive* today

You should choose somebody older

There are also some set expressions (mostly legal or official designations) where the adjective follows the noun:

Heir apparent	attorney general
Court martial	notary public

Here are a few further examples of adjective phrases as post-modifier:

> The earliest time *possible*
>
> In year *past*
>
> The official *present*
>
> The people *involved*

Here are a few common examples of such phrases in set expressions:

> From *the sublime* to the ridiculous
>
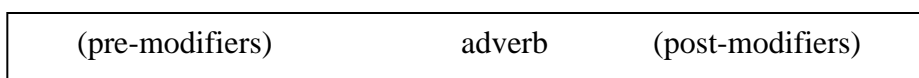> Out of *the ordinary*
>
> We have much in *common*
>
> I'm living for *good*
>
> I'll tell you in *private*
>
> This situation is going from *bad* to *worse*

1.4. Adverb Phrase

The main word in an adverb phrase is an adverb. The structure of the typical adverb phrase is similar to that of the typical adjective phrase except for the class of the main word.
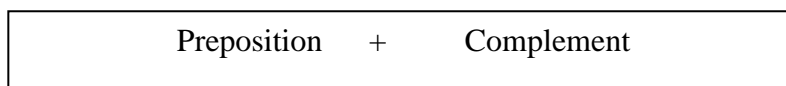
(pre-modifiers)	adverb	(post-modifiers)

Here are some examples of possible structures of adverb phrases:

Adverb	*surprisingly*
Pre-modifiers + adverb	*very surprisingly*
Adverb + post-modifiers	*surprisingly for her*
Pre-mod + adverb + post-mod	*very surprisingly indeed*

1.5. Prepositional Phrase

The prepositional phrase is a structure with two parts:

Preposition   +   Complement

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:

1. Complement as noun phrase

   Through the *window*

2. Complement as nominal relative clause

   From *what I heard* (from that which I heard)

3. Complement as –ing clause

   After *speaking to you*

As its name suggests (preceding position), the preposition normally comes before the prepositional complement. There are several exceptions, however, where the complement is moved and the preposition is left stranded by itself. The stranding is obligatory when the complement is transformed into the subject of the sentence:

Your case will soon be attended to

This ball is for you to play with

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:

<u>Who</u> are you waiting *for*?

<u>Where</u> are you coming *from*?

I am the person (<u>that</u>) you are waiting *for*? (In relative clauses the pronoun may be omitted).

In formal style the preposition is fronted with its complement:

For whom are you waiting?

From where are you coming?

I am the person for whom are you waiting.

B.2. FUNCTION OF PHRASES

There are 5 phrases discussed in this research, and all of the phrases have function in the sentence or clause. According to Greenbaum, Sidney (1991:47) "may be phrases have possible functions, they can be as subject, direct object, indirect object, object complement, subject complement, modifier, and can be an infinitive verb or finite verb". Here, the researcher will discuss it as follow:

2.1 Function of Noun Phrase

The following is a brief list, with illustrations, of the possible functions of noun phrases:

a.   Subject

   The people in the bus escaped through the emergency exit

b.   Direct object

   They are testing *some new equipment*

c.   Indirect object

   The bank gave *her a loan*

d.   Subject complement

   The performance was *a test of their physical endurance*

e.   Object complement

   Many of us consider *her the best candidate*

f.   Complement of a preposition

   The box of *chocolates* is intended *for your children*

g.   Pre-modifier of a noun or noun phrase

   Milk production is down this year

   The matter has been referred to the *Academic Council* Executive

   Committee.

h.   Adverbial

   The term finishes *next week*

2.2 Function of Adjective Phrase

These are the main possible functions of adjective phrases:

1. Pre-modifier in a noun phrase

    <u>Our</u> *former* <u>enemies and allies</u> are now <u>our</u> *economic* <u>competitors</u>

2. Subject complement

    The photographs were *quite professional*

3. Object complement

    My parents made me *aware of my filial* responsibilities

4. Post modifier in a noun phrase

    I saw <u>something</u> *bizarre* on my way to school yesterday

Some adjectives, particularly superlatives, function as heads of noun phrases that are abstract. These noun phrases are singular:

> The *latest* <u>is</u> that our team is winning
> The *best* <u>is</u> yet to come

2.3 Function of Adverb Phrase

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

1. Modifier of an adjective or an adverb in phrase structure

2. Adverbial in sentence structure

Here some examples of adverbs as modifiers:

1. Modifier of an adjective

   The description was *remarkably* <u>accurate</u>

2. Modifier of an adverb

   The new drug was hailed, *somewhat* <u>prematurely</u>, as the penicillin of the 1990s.

Many adverbs can function both as modifier and as adverbials. The intensifier entirely is a modifier of an adjective in 1 and an adverbial in 2:

1. Michael's amendment is *entirely* acceptable

2. I *entirely* agree with you

2.4 Functions Of Prepositional Phrase

Prepositional phrases have three main functions: post-mod of a noun in phrase structure; post-mod of an adjective in phrase structure; adverbial in sentence structure, and also the functions of prepositional phrase are similiar with a noun phrase. Here, the three possible functions of prepositional phrase are:

1. Post-mod of a noun

   I took several <u>courses</u> *in history*

   The local council is subsidizing the <u>installation</u> *of energy-saving devices*

2. Post-mod of an adjective

   We were not <u>aware</u> *of his drinking problem*

   I was <u>happy</u> *with my marks last term*

3. Adverbial

   In my opinion, people behave differently *in crowds*

   In actual fact, the economy was showing signs of improvement *by 1985.*

Furthermore, 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:

1. Complement as noun phrase
   Through the *window*
2. Complement as nominal relative clause
   From *what I heard* (from that which I heard)
3. Complement as –ing clause
   After *speaking to you*

B.3 MEANING

Meaning means clarify the words or sentences by using other language to make them more clear.

According to Eni, Maharsi (2002:67) states that "the aspect of meaning are derived solely from the meanings of the words used in phrase and sentences but also what the writer or speaker of those words intended to convey." Understand meaning is important to know the hidden purpose of the written words or the spoken words.

From the definitions above can be concluded that the meaning is a language element in the form of understanding or concept as speaker or writer intent of every word, phrase, or sentence.

3.1 Types Of Meaning

There are two types of meaning (denotation and connotation) that is explained by Jackson, et. al. (2000:57) "for the supporters of the binary distinction between denotation and connotation, denotative meaning refers to the relationship between a linguistic sign and its denotatum or referent. However, connotations constitute additional properties of lexemes. Example: poetic, slang, baby language, formal, humorous, legal, literary, rhetorical, casual, and colloquial. Denotation and connotation are both important in order to determine word meaning in a given context".

From those explanation above the researcher can give conclusion and example to make this distinction can be understand well.

a. Denotative meaning

According to Reaske (1996:31) he explains that denotation is essential meaning of a word. As contrasted with conotation, the suggested or possible meanings of a word. The denotation has reference only to what is conventionally by a word. The denotative meaning of a word is thus avoid of any word, a critic should differentiate between its denotative is conotative meaning.

Thus, denotative meaning is the original meaning from the dictionary. Example:

Angel (denotative) = messenger of God

Sweet (denotative) = tasting like sugar/honey, not sour, bitter or salty.

b. **Connotative meaning**

According to Reaske (1996:32) explains that connotative is one of the various implications or associations that a word carries, most words have many connotations. Some connotations are purely personal and subjective, and it takes as the imaginative and emotional meaning.

Example:

Angel (connotative) = a precious / a lovely person.

Sweet (connotative) = beautiful girl/ someone who we love

C. **SENTENCE**

Sentence is a group of words that contains subject, verb and object, it's used by the peoples to communicate each other conveying their message to the listener. Grygel, Joan A. (1991:103) explains that "a sentence is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate and express a complete thought".

C.1. Types of Sentences

Sentences are generally classified into two types, they are based on the function and the number of clauses. While in this section, the researcher will focus on types of sentences by structure. Grygel, Joan A. (1991:111) there are four kinds of sentence structure are simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex. The explanation of them is as follow:

1.1. Simple Sentences

Simple sentences are made up of one independent (main) clause and no dependent (subordinate) clauses. A simple sentence may contains a compound subject or compound verb or both compound subject and compound verb.

Example: Simple sentences use one subject and predicate:

    a. <u>Tina</u> cooks in the kitchen

    b. <u>The river</u> has been polluted by the citizen

Simple sentences which use two or more predicate:

    a. The children <u>smiled</u> and <u>waved</u> to us

Simple sentence which use two or more subject:

    a. <u>Roni</u> and <u>his wife</u> are happy

    b. <u>Tata, Titi</u>, and <u>Teti</u> went to beach yesterday

1.2. Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is made up of two or more independent clauses and no dependent clauses. The clauses in a compound sentence are joined by 3 conjunctions, namely:

a. Punctuation: semi colon (;)

b. Coordinating conjunction, such as: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so.

c. Conjunctive adverb, such as: desides, likewise, moreover, otherwise, accordingly, consequently, hence, than, therefore, then, nevertheless, still.

Example:

Compound sentences use conjunctive adverb:

a. Mike was sick; *therefore* he did not come to school

Compound sentences use coordinate conjunction:

a. Mike was sick, *so* he did not come to school

b. The party broke up at five in the morning, *and* consequently we had to hurry to catch the train

Compound sentences use proper punctuation:

a. Part of the search party went to the right; the rest went to the left.

1.3. Complex Sentence

A complex sentence contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. Each clause consists of a subject and a predicate. A dependent clause which is in complex sentence is joined to the main clause by relative pronoun, *who, which, that,* or by of the numerous subordinating conjunction such as *after, although, as, because, before, if, since, unless, when, why.* Dependent

clauses are used as noun, as adjective or as adverb. In conclution, complex sentence consists of one independent clause using relative pronoun or subordinate conjunction.

Example:

a. When he handed in his work, he forgot to give the teacher the last page.
b. After they studying, Jun and Maria went to the movie

1.4. Compound – Complex Sentence

Compound – complex sentence contains two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. It is the combination between compound and complex sentence.

Example:

a. Many students drive their cars to the college, **but** others <u>prefer</u> to take public transportation **because** free parking a car the campus unavailable.

b. **If** student wish to park in the campus parking lots, they must pay for permit, **or** the campus police will tag their cars.

D. LYRIC Of SONGS

The definition of lyric according Wikipedia (2015), Lyrics are a set of words that make up a song usually consisting of verses and choruses.

From the definition above, it can be concluded that lyric of song is a song written for musical accompaniment by lyre. There are a similarity between the purpose of songs' lyric and lyric poetry, the purpose of songs lyric is to express personal emotions or thoughts of the speaker, just like the lyric poetry. Also, just like songs, lyric poems always have a musical quality, or a specific melody which makes it easy for someone to sing along with.

There are also some other characteristics of songs lyric. For the most part, songs lyric are long and in first-person point of view, which means the speaker is involved in the songs. In a song there is always some specific mood or emotion being expressed. Often that mood is about the extremes in life, mostly love or death or some other intense emotional experience. No matter the theme, though, all songs lyric are known for brevity, emotional intensity and musical quality.

In general, lyrics refer to the words of song designates as short poem which is used to express the writer's feeling and emotion. When the reader reads the lyrics, it can be seen that the reader would express its feeling from the lyrics.

E. PREVIOUS STUDIES

This research is originally made by the researcher, this case can be proven by looking from the differences and the similarity that be possessed the three of the study. The researcher finds the previous study which has the similar topic with this research about phrases. The sources of all previous studies are found in internet exactly downloaded from online PDF, the first study is written by Khairun Nisa from University of North Sumatera Faculty of Letters, English Literature Department Medan 2009. The title of this thesis is *An Analysis of Noun and Verb Phrase in D.H. Lawrence's novel "Sons and Lovers"*.

The method of analysis that is used by the researcher is a descriptive quantitative analysis method. She lists some sentences by selected chapter that support both noun and verb phrase and start to count them by some formula that is published by Nawawi. In arranging this thesis the author has classification noun and verb that will be use in analyzed noun phrase and verb phrase.

This thesis uses the library research, which is defined as one of the methods, which is supplied by collecting data or information from references which have been written, by linguists or other experts. (Accessed 4th June, 2015)

The second study is written by Suci Nur Amalia from Faculty of Teacher Training and Education University of Muria Kudus 2013. The title of her thesis

is "*An analysis of Prepositional Phrase Found in the Entertainment Articles of the Jakarta Post*". The design of this research is descriptive qualitative research, and the data of this research is prepositional phrase.

Based on the analysis of entertainment articles, the writer found the type of prepositional phrase. They are 115 types of prepositional phrase, the types areplace position and direction (50), condition (14), agency (13), time (13), purpose (7), addition (5), accompaniment (4), cause or reason (3), source (3), possession or origin (3), manner (0), comparison (0). After calculated the types of prepositional phrase, the writer found 117 the functions of prepositional phrase and classify into adverbial function (87), adjectival function (19), and the last is nominal function (11). This research is different with the first study, but it may have a similarity with the last previous study. (Accessed on June 4, 2015)

The last previous study is written by Fahmi Daniati from Faculty of Teacher Training and Education Ahmad Dahlan University Yogyakarta 2007. The title of the study is "*An Analysis on the Use of Prepositional Phrases in English Newspapers*". This research has the main purpose it's to find out the prepositional phrases in especially the forms, meanings and functions that commonly occur in the newspaper language namely the Jakarta Post.

This research is a qualitative research by involving a quantitative presentation model. In analyzing the data, the researcher uses a qualitative data

analysis technique that uses non-numeral data in the form of prepositional phrases. This technique describes all fact and characteristics of the writing form the objects. Beside, using a qualitative data analysis, the researcher also uses the descriptive analysis to analyze the prepositional phrases.

The result of the research shows that the form of prepositional phrases which are found in Jakarta Post are preposition + pronoun, preposition + noun/noun phrase, preposition + noun clause, preposition + gerund/gerund phrase. Concerning the meanings of prepositional phrase, there are 10 meanings. Finally, prepositional phrases have three main functions. (Accessed 4th June, 2015).

1. The Similarity

In this part, the researcher will compare the present research with the above mentioned previous study, as the following:

    a. All of the studies analyze the phrases
    b. The research analyzes the function of phrases
    c. The data sourches got from the document
    d. The design of the study is descriptive qualitative

2. The Differences

Here, the researcher will differentiate the three of previous study between her studies. The result as below:

a. The present research uses content analysis as the type of qualitative approach

b. Data source uses the lyrics of Taylor Swift's songs

c. There are 5 kinds of phrase that will be analyzed

d. The present research uses documentary technique to collect the data

e. The researcher determines the phrase by using tree diagram.

3. Conclusion

The ddifferences of the research and three of the previous study that explained above can be concluded that this research is originaly made by the researcher herself, without copying or manipulating the data. Because, many of differentiations than the similiarity between all researches.

The theory and references used in this research also have many differences with three previous studies that point out above. So that this research proven to be the original research made by the researcher.