CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discusses some theories related to the topics. It comprises the discussion of syntax, structure of modification, part of speech, phrase, genre, report, and previous study.

A. Syntax

Syntax is determining the relevant component part of sentence. It also means as describing these parts gramatically (Wekker, 1985:5). This definition of syntax implies that we start from what is regarded as the largest unit of syntactic description –the sentence- and proceed until we arrive at the smallest meaningful unit. This is called a 'top to buttom' analysis. The units smaller than the sentence will be referred to as clauses, phrases, words and morphemes respectively. However, instead of saying that a sentence can be broken down into smaller constituents, we might also look at the sentence the other way round –that is, 'from bottom to top' –and say that constituents at different levels can combine to form increasingly larger units: then proceed from the morpheme to the sentence as a whole. Constituents are like building blocks which pattern in certain ways to form larger units, and the largest unit being a sentence.

In another word a phrase or sentence is always formed from the words which are organized by a certain rule. In English, the main device for showing this relationship is word order; for example, "The boy loves his dog" follows

standard subject-verb-object word order, and switching the order of such a sentence would change the meaning or make the sentence meaningless.

If a word is combined in other words in English language and form of syntactic structure, there will be a wide range of structures with various groups that make up the structure of the word.

In the structural approach, there are four types of syntactic structure. The other structures is only the combination of them. The structure in English language are grouped into four based on the structural meaning. Those four types are structure of modification, structure of predication, structure of complementation and structure of coordination. In this study the writer analyzed more about the first type that is the structure of modification.

B. Structure of Modification

Structure of modification consist of two immadiate constituent called a head and a modifier whose meaning serves to broaden, qualify, select, change, describe, or in some other way affect the meaning of the head (Francis, 1958:297). The constituent of head and modifier not always as single word but it can also be formed as more or less complexity. Or it can be said that the analysis is devided into two pattern, they are simple pattern and complex pattern. Simple pattern, in this study means that structure of modification basically consists of the components of a single word as head and a single word or prepositional phrase as modifier. And then the next is complex pattern, in this study refers to the structure of modification which consist of a head and sequence modifiers.

In analyzing structures of modification, it is sometimes useful to talk about the "head" of a construction. The head of a construction is the single word that "gets modified," the word that could by itself stand for the whole construction in the grammar of the sentence. It is the word in the construction that all the modifying elements "depend on."

All of the word in part of speech and some function words can be head and modifier:

1. Noun as Head: noun very often appear in structure of modification and all part of speech and noun-determiners can be modifier.
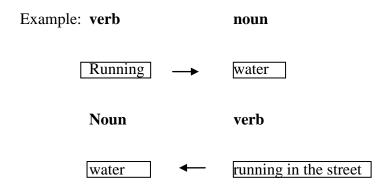
Modifiers that modify the noun are:

a. Adjective as modifier of noun

Adjective as modifier of noun is almost always an adjective before the noun unless it is shaped structure (not a single word).

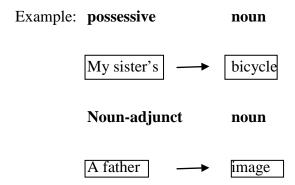Example: | Beautiful | ➜ | girl |

M. Adj   H.N

b. Verb as modifier of noun

Verb modifiers of the noun is almost always characterized by (-ing) (-ED2) or to-/infinitive. This verb can position before head (if single word) or after the head (if shaped structure) unless / to-/ always follow head

Example: **verb**   **noun**

| Running | ⟶ | water |

Noun   **verb**

| water | ⟵ | running in the street |

c.   Noun as modifier of noun

Noun modifiers for the other noun is always before the noun head. Noun that modifier can be a possessive form or in the form of the base (called noun-adjunct)

Example: **possessive**   **noun**

| My sister's | ⟶ | bicycle |

Noun-adjunct   **noun**

| A father | ⟶ | image |

Noun-adjunct is always shape as singular, never plural with *s*.

Example: student books (not * *students books*)

Noun modifiers for the other noun can be appositive. Appositive not precede head but follow the head.

Example: **noun**   **appositive**

        My uncle, ⟵ Jhon

d.   Adverb as modifier of noun

Adverb rarely serves as a modifier of noun. The position of adverb modifier of noun is always located directly after the head noun.

Example: **head**   **modifier**

The people ← here

e.   Prepositional phrase as modifier of noun.

Propositional phrase are formed from the preposition and object. There are a simple preposition, a compound, and a phrasal preposition.

Example: **simple preposition**   **compound**   **phrasal preposition**

After   across from   in front of

2.   Verb as Head: verb is often used as head that is modified by:

a.   Adverb as modifier of verb

All groups of adverbs can be a modifier of verb. The position of an adverb can be after a verb, before the verb, or between the auxiliary-verb.

Example: *after the verb*   *before the verb*   *between aux-verb*

He is moving *ahead*   he *slowly* drove   it may *even* rain

b. Noun as modifier of verb

Some particular noun can be a modifier of verb. His position is after the verb, and a noun can have a noun determiner. Since the noun after the verb can also be the object and a verb, it is necessary to explain the difference. If the noun can be replaced by *it / them* without changing the meaning, the noun is definite object, not a modifier.

Example: *structure of modification (noun as modifier of verb)*

He saw ◄ *a mile*

structure of complementation (noun as the object)

He measured *a mile*

c. Adjective as modifier of verb

There are some adjective that functions as a modifier of the verb and forms a distinctive expression.

Example: the machine ran ◄── *true.*

Verbs that can be followed by an adjective are some of the Transitive verb.

d. Verb as modifier of verb

There are also some modifications to the structure of the verb as head followed by another verb as modifier. Verb form that serves as a modifier present participle (-ing) or infinitive (to + base)

Example: the children | came | ← *running*

He| lives | ← | *to eat*|.

Verb functioning as modifiers of verbs can be disrupted (ambiguous) with a verb that functions as an object.

Example: as Modifier   as Object

He lives *to eat*   He loves *to eat*

Verb which serves as the object can be changed with *it,* while that serves as a modifier cannot be replaced by *it*. But there are some modifications to the structure of modification with verb as modifiers of verb that could mean two.

Example: He loves *to live.*   He studies *to succeed.*

To live, to succeed in that sentence can be functioning as object or modifier of verb.

e.   Prepositional phrase as the modifier of verb

Propositional phrase often serves as a modifier of verb. His position is after the verb.

Example: He spoke *about his live.*

3.   Adjective as Head: adjective that usually serves as a modifier of noun or verb also become a head in structure of modification. Here the modifier are:

a. Adverb as modifier of adjective

Adverb which can be modifier of adjective is ended with (ly)

Example: (The) *widely* famous (actor)

If the adjective is after a linking verb (is, seem, look) the adverb is no longer just a modifier of adjective, but a modifier of the structure of Complementation.

Example: -(It) is dark *outside*.   -(The house) seems clean *everywhere*.

In that example *outside* is not only as modifier of *dark* but as modifier of *is dark.* Neither the *everywhere,* it is as modifier of *seems clean.*

b. Qualifier as modifier of adjective

The word that most often becomes modifier of an adjective is qualifiers, as like: very, quite, enough, etc.

Example: (The voice is) loud *enough.*   (You are) *very* pretty.

c. Noun as modifier of adjective

In particular expression, noun can be modifier of an adjective.

Example: *bond* dry (earth)

d. Verb as modifier of adjective

Adjective can also be explained by the verb in present participle form (-ing), which usually precedes the adjective or a to-infinitive form that follow the adjective.

Example: -*Boiling* hot (water)   -Hard *to get*

e.   Adjective as modifier of adjective

In particular expression, adjective could also be a modifier for other adjective.

Example: -*Deatly* pale (face)   -*Dark* blue (clothes)

f.   Prepositional phrases as modifier of adjective.

Often propositional phrases is functioning as modifiers of the adjective and its' position is after the adjective.

Example: -easy *on the eyes.*   -good for *nothing.*

4.   Adverb as Head: adverb can be modified by:

a.   Qualifier as modifier of adverb

Example: -*very* easy   -*rather* slowly   -happily *enough*

b.   Adverb as modifier of adverb

Exmple: -*unusualy* eagerly   -*far* away

c.   Noun as modifier of adverb

Example: -*that* easily   -*a foot* away

d.   Prepositional phrase as modifier of adverb.

Example: -behind *in his work* -*as* rapidly *as a train*

5. Function Word as Head: function word could also form the structure of modification to the qualifiers as the modifier.

Example: | very much ►*more* | → | (easily) |

6. Preposition as Head: preposition can be head of structure of modification. The   modifier of preposition are qualifier, adverb, particular noun :

Example: -*a mile* from (home)   -*almost* beneath (notice)

Adverb that follows propositional phrase became head of propositional phrase, preceding the propositional phrase was simply a modifier of propositional.

Example: *exactly* ► on   *on   the   mark* ◄ exactly.

C. Part of Speech

The sentence may be further divided according to the function each word has in the subject-predicate relationship. Each of these functions is classified as a different part of speech. the words that form the central core of the sentence— around which all the other words " cluster"—are the parts of speech known as:

1. Nouns

We can identify the class of nouns in the terms of the fact that they generally inflect for number, and thus have distinct singular and plural forms. Acccordingly, we can differenciate a noun like *fool* from an adjective like *foolish* by virtue of the fact that only (regular) nouns like *fool*- not adjectives like *foolish*- can carry the noun plural inflection –*s*. Only the head noun in such expressions

can be pluralised, not any preceding noun used as modifier of the head noun: thus, in expressions such as *car doors, policy decisions, etc.* And then the second noun is the head noun and can be pluralised, whereas the first noun is a modifier some kind and cannot be pluralised (Radford, 2004:19).

2. Pronouns

Traditional grammar postit a category of pronoun to denote a class of words which are said to 'stand in place of' (the meaning of the prefix *pro-*) or refer back to noun expressions. Howefer, there are reasons to think that there are a number of different types of pronoun found in English and other languages (Radford, 2004:20). One such type is represented by the word *one* in the use illustrated below:

a. Jhon has a red **car** and Jim has a blue *one.*

b. I'll take the green **apples** if you haven't got any red *ones.*

From a gramatical perspective, *one* behaves like a regular count noun here in that it has the *s*-plural from *ones* and occcurs in a position (after an adjective like *blue/red*) in which a count noun could occur. However, it is a *pronoun* in the sense that it has no descriptive content of its own, but rather takes its descriptive content from antecedent (e.g. *one* in (a) refers back to the noun *car* and so *one* is interpreted as meaning '*car*') let's refer this kind of pronoun as an **N-pronoun**. By contrast, in the examples in 'a and b' below, the bold-printed pronoun seems to serve as a pronominal quantifier. In the first (italicised) occurence in each pair of examples, it is **prenominal** (i.e, noun preceding)

quantifier which modifies a followingnoun expression (viz., *guests/miners/protesters/son/cigarettes/bananas);* in the second (bold-printed) occurence it has no noun expression following it and so functions as a **pronominal** quantifier (Radford, 2004:25).

3. Verbs

We can identify verbs by their inflectional morphology in English. In addition to their uninflected base form, verbs typically have up to four different inflected forms, formed by adding one of four inflections to the appropiate stem form: the relevant inflections are the perfect/passive participle sufffix –n, the past tense suffix –d, the third person singular present tense suffix –s, and the progressive participle/gerund suffix –ing. Like most morphological criteria, however, this one is complicated by the irregular and improvished nature of English inflectional morphology: for example, many verbs have irregular past or perfect forms, and in some cases either or both of theses forms may not in fact be distinct from the (uninflected) base form, so that a single form may serve two or three functions.

4. Adjectives and Adverbs

English is monosuffixal language so that the comparative form of the adverb *quickly* is *quicker* not *quicklier.* What all of this means is that a word belonging to a given class may have only *some* of the relevant morphological properties. For example, although the adjective *fat* has comparative/superlative forms in *–er/-est*, it has no negative uncounterpart , and no adverb counterpart in –

ly. So given the potential problems which arise with morphological criteria. It is unwise to rely solely on morphological evidence in determining categorial status: rather, we should use morphological criteria in conjunction with syntactic criteria. One syntactic test which can be used to determine the category that a particular word belongs to is that substitution, the word in question can be substituted by a regular noun, verb, preposition, adjective, or adverb etc. We can use the substitution technique to differentiate between comparative adjectives and adverbs ending in *–er*, since they have identical forms. For example, in the case of sentences like:

a.   He is *better* at French than you

b.   He speaks French *better* than you.

We find that *better* can be replaced by a *more+=adjective* expression like *more fluent* in 'a but not in b' and conversly that *better* can be replaced by a *more++adverb* expression like *more fluently* in ' b but not in a'. thus the substitution test provides us with syntactic evidence that *better* is an adjective in 'a, but an adverb in 'b.

The overall conclusion to be drawn is that morphological evidence may sometimes be inconclusive, and has to be checked against syntactic evidence. A useful syntactic test which can be employed is that of substitution: e.g. if a morphologically indeterminate word can be substututed by a regular noun wherever it occurs, then the relevant word has the same categorial status as the substitute word which can replace it, and so is a noun (Radford, 2004:22).

The words that show a particular kind of connecting relationship between these four parts of speech are called prepositions and conjunctions. Traditional grammarians often include another part of speech, the interjection. However since the interjection simply some expression of emotional feeling usually occuring at the beginning of the sentence and does not perform any gramatical function, this part of speech will not be treated further in this text (Frank, 1972: 4).

D. Phrase

A phrase is a group of related words (within a sentence) without both subject and verb. Example: he is standing near a wall. The part of the sentence "near a wall" is a phrase because it does not contain subject and verb.

A phrase does not include both subject and verb at a same time and does not make a complete sense, hence a phrase cannot stand as a sentence on its own. If a group of words include both subject and verb then it becomes a clause, so the difference in a clause and a phrase is that a clause contains subject and verb but a phrase does not contain subject and verb.

A phrase functions as a noun, verb, adverb, adjective or preposition in a sentence. The function of a phrase depends on its construction (words it contains). On the basis of their functions and constructions, phrases are divided into various types i.e. noun phrase, verb phrase, adverb phrase, adjective phrase, appositive phrase, infinite phrase, participle phrase and gerund phrase.

While on the basis of structural pattern, phrases are divided into simple pattern and complex pattern (Masngud, 2011:51). Simple pattern means that the phrase basically consists of the components of a single word as head and a single word or prepositional phrase as modifier. And complex pattern refers to the phrase which consist of a head and sequence modifier.

E. Genre

Language theory or grammar is needed to help the reader understand how such a text work, in order to assist language learners to learn how to understand and produce oral and written text in a variety of contexts and diverse allotment. In this genre, language is seen as a source to create meaning. Grammar in a way is intended to describe the language in actual use, and focus on the text and context. Grammar is linked not only to the structure but also with how these structures form a meaning. Grammar departs from the question 'how meaning is embodied in the text? (Djuhari, 2007: 10). And one kind of genre that contained in the newspaper is report.

F. Report

Text report discusses the results of the observation, study, research, or the study of objects, animals, people or places. Participant in the report tend to be general. Data are presented generally in the form of general conclusions about the characteristics, traits, and the participant or the whereabouts and circumstances. The purpose of report text is to describe how the participant is. When the writer is talking about an object, highlight the text report over the function of the object.

Text report generally has the structure (Djuhari, 2007: 26):

1. General classification, general statement which describes the subject report, description and classification.

2. Description, inform the general charracteristics/ generalization possessed subject—such as psycological traits, behavior, physical appearance, typical features, quality and the others

In sum, report text use the general participant, the data are gotten from observation and usually use scientific language. And this is the text that usually use in nespapers.

G. Previous Study

In conducting this research, the researcher is inspired by a researcher in the field of structure of modification:

Imam masngud (2011), from The State Islamic College of Tulungagung entitled "A Comparison Study on Structure of Modification used in Reading Text of English Book for Senior High School and Structure of Modification used in Scientific Text".

This previous study purpose is to describe the types of structure of modification as well as its frequency of occurrence in both Reading Text of English Book of Senior High School and Scientific Text. And the result is as follow: The occurrence of structure of modification in that study divided into simple and complex pattern analysis, the occurrence of structure of modification

used in Scientific Text based on simple pattern shows 68.99% and Reading Text of English Book shows 99.05%. Then in complex pattern, the occurence of structure of modification in Scientific Text shows 99.4% and in Reading Text of English book shows 105.52%.

There Masngud (2011) assumed that the application of the pattern of structure of modification in native English Scientific Text is more complex than the pattern usually presented in Reading Text of English Text Book of SHS. Thus, more variations of examples of structures of modification based on the native-English writing should be given to learners to provide them with a better understanding of the applications of the types of structure of modification in scientific text.

Whereas in this reseach, the purpose is to know the types of structure of modification found in Jakarta Post headlines and to describe that the use of structure of modification represent the messages or ideas for the text.