CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter gives further explanations regarding theories used in analyzing data in chapter IV. The theoretical review of this research is divided into two main theories, syntax and semantics. However, it focuses on modality, types of modality, deep (semantic) structure including meaning properties in propositions and meaning properties in the orientation. Therefore, each of three main points consists of several applied theories in this research.

2.1 Syntax

A major structural aspect of language is known as syntax. Syntax deals with phrase and sentence formation out of the words itself. Tallerman (2011:15) states that *"Syntax is a form of grammar. It is concerned primarily with word order in a sentence and with the agreement of words when they are used together."* From this definition, It can be understood that syntax refers to word order, and the way it works with grammatical structures. In addition, syntax is mentioned as sentence structure that have constituent as part of its syntactic structure, as suggested by Radford (2004:7):

> *"The central assumption underpinning syntactic analysis in traditional grammar is that phrases and sentences are built up of a series of constituents (i.e. syntactic units), each of which belongs to a specific grammatical category and serves a specific grammatical function".*

Based on the definitions, syntax has a function to fill certain category in the sentence. In addition, Chaer (2010:20) suggests *"syntactic function is a kind of empty boxes which is the form of subject, predicate, object, adverb, and complement."* This quotation implies that a function in a sentence is interrelated into each other to make complete structure. In this research, the functions of syntax used are subject, predicate, object, complement, and adverbial. Specifically, the function of syntax in this research is to clarify the function of the constituents in the sentence.

2.1.1 Subject

Subject is the function in the sentence that is described or that does the action. Tallerman (2011:25) suggests *"The subject is the part of sentence or clause about which something is being said."* example:

2. a Beer and Wine are Poirot's favourite drinks.

The phrase *Beer and Wine* from the example above can be said as subject. based on this explanation, it can be defined that the subject of the sentence will answer the questions of *"who is doing something or what something is".* In other form, a subject of the sentence can be words and usually filled by noun.

2.1.2 Predicate

Predicate is the action verb or the words that exhibits what the subject does. Crystal (1985:280) states that *"A predicate is the portion of a clause, excluding the subject, that expresses something about the subject."* A predicate is the

completer of a sentence. In addition, the predicate also does the rest of the sentence. A simple predicate usually consists of a single word or a verb phrase, example:

2. b The glacier ***melted***

2. c *The glacier* ***have melted***

The word *melted* in 2.b is indicated as predicate. It describes the action of the subject *The glacier* that is no longer in its previous condition. In addition, in 2.c *have melted* indicated as predicate in verb phrase form.

2.1.3 Object

In a simple definition, it is understood that object is the function in the sentence that receives the action from the subject. Nordquist (2015:3) defines object as "*A word or group of words, functioning as a noun or a pronoun, that is influenced by a verb (direct object), a verbal (indirect object), or a preposition (object of a preposition).*" The examples below (taken from McCarthy,et al, 2006:4) illustrates the definition:

2. c I like ***that restaurant****.*

2.d They handed ***me*** *a pile of forms.*

2. e They stole ***a van*** *and then they robbed* ***a bank***.

In 2.c, *that restaurant* serves as direct objects that indicate the person or thing that undergoes the action denoted by the verb, or the participant directly affected by the action. Meanwhile, in example 2.d and 2.e, the word *me* and *a van* serves as indirect objects that indicate the recipient of a direct object. They are

usually people or animals. An indirect object (bold) is always accompanied by a direct object.

2.1.4 Complement

A complement is said to serve and complete the predicate. A complement is any word or phrase that completes the sense of a subject, an object or a verb (Sepdiani 2014:3). In addition, Crystal (1985:146) says the definition of complement as *"In generative syntax, a complement is a phrasal or clausal category which is selected (subcategorized) by the head of a phrase."* examples:

*2.f He became **detective**.*

*2.g The clown got the **children** too **excited**.*

*2.h Granny left **Raoul** all her **money**.*

In 2.f, the word *detective* is indicated as subject complement that follows the verb *became*. In line with this, in 2.g shows that the word *excited* as an object complement that follows and modifies or refers to the direct object *the children*. It can be a noun or adjective or any word acting as a noun or adjective. The participle *excited* complements the object *children*. In 2.h, the sentence contains of verb complement which is a direct and indirect object of the verb *left. Raoul serves* as indirect object and *money* as direct object.

2.1.5 Adverb

The term adverb is said to modify the verbs, the adjectives and the other adverbs William (2005:79). It can be defined that adverbial is a word, usually an adverb or a group of words that describes, tells something about, or modifies a verb or other adverb. There are six types of adverb, as the following examples (taken from Beare 2010:4):

First, adverb of manner is an adverb that shows how the action is performed, as in *Listen to me* ***carefully.*** Second, Adverb of place tells about the location of the occurence as in *They were flying kites* ***on the top of hill***. Third, Adverb of time tells about the time of the action, as in *He got up early* ***in the morning.*** Fourth, ***a***dverb of frequency tells how many times the action occurs, as in *He goes to school* ***daily***. Fifth, adverb of degree tells about the intensity or degree of the action, as in *They should be able to pass their exams quite.* Sixth, *a*dverb of cause tells the reason and is introduced by the conjunctions as in *He works a lot of overtime* ***because his rent is so expensive.***

2.2 Semantics

Griffiths (2006:1) states that semantics is the study of the "toolkit" for meaning. This quotation can be described that the word *toolkit* as an important device for expressing meaning that one or the speaker is expressed through their utterance. In this case, semantics is one important tools for clarifying the meaning of every statement that the speaker made. Griffiths (2006:1) also states that semantics is one of knowledge of giving information through vocabulary and

making larger meaning in a sentence.. It suggests that semantics is the study of meaning that how a small constituent can interrelate into other constituent of the sentence to make complete and meaningful understanding over particular constituent. In other word, semantics is the systematic way of thinking to discover the meaning-making process. In this research, the analysis of semantics used are propositions, modality, and orientation of modality.

2.2.1 Propositions

A sentence that contains the meaning and describes some state of affairs can be said as propositions. Kreidler (1998:62) suggests that a proposition is called as the information presented apart from the way it is presented. He also defines *"a proposition can be seen as consisting of a predicate and various noun phrases (referring expressions), each of which has a different role."* This quotation implies that proposition is built of two or more phrases to form meaningful statement. Proposition can be illustrated in the following example:

2.i John rejected Peter's offer.

In the example above, there are two propositions. The first proposition is *Peter offered something* (*to John*) and second proposition *John rejected the offer*. The example above shows that propositions can be rewritten into different sentences, but still shares the same information, that *John rejected the offer*.

2.2.2 Analyzing Proposition

Sentence is a grammatical concept and expresses anything that is capable of being true of false. However, some sentences can be uttered as one sentence but different in their meaning. Larson (1984:191) argues that *proposition is a grouping of concepts into a unit that communicates.* This suggests that propositions is a form of sentence that builds communication and expresses what the speaker's think.

In relation to this, Larson also states that the proposition cannot be expressed without including the participants. Additionally, taken from Larson (1984:193), there are four step analyzing propositions that used in this research:

1. Discover the *event* concept that is expressed in the sentence whether with a finite or non-finite verb.
2. Identify the *participants* that is taken the action in the sentence.
3. Rewrite into different sentence that contains the *event* (finite or non-finite verb) and the *participants* as explicit.
4. Describe the relations between one proposition to other propositions semantically.

2.3 Modality

Modality refers to the speaker's attitude towards the judgment or assessment of what the speaker says. Many experts have approached the English modals in various ways, formally and logically. Griffiths (2006:110) defines that

“ Modality is the term for a cluster of meanings centred on the notions of necessity and possibility.” It can be assumed that modality is part of language that expresses what the speaker says. Modality suggests that the speaker has some assumption regarding of possibility, obligation, or probability in their statement. Therefore, from the quotation implies that modality can be presented into proposition to illustrate how the speaker expresses the utterance.

In the other hand, Lyons (1977:792) classifies modality into epistemic and deontic while generative grammarians often deal with them as root and epistemic modals. He also assumes that *“epistemic modals concerned with matters of knowledge, belief, or opinion rather than facts while deontic modality with the necessity or possibility of acts performed by morally responsible agents.”* Moreover, Palmer (1974:2) describes English modals along two axes: (i) their inherent property to express a certain degree of knowledge, a guess, or a conjecture about a certain event in the present or past time, and (ii) the source of their modality, being the subject of the sentence or one of the interlocutors in the speaker’s expression. In relation to this, there are two main types of modality, which is called epistemic and deontic.

2.3.1 Epistemic Modality

Epistemic modality is understood as the speaker’s expression in possibility, probability, and ability. Griffiths (2006:112) stated that epistemic modality are understood as knowledge in the speaker or writers to make proposition’s truth.

Modal verbs that expresses the epistemic modality, such as; *may*, *could*, *can*, *would*, and *should*. It can be suggested that the speaker makes a judgment about what 'may' be. It can illustrate various type of epistemic modal verb:

2.k Murry could be stay long in London.

2.l Murry may be working lately.

2.m Murry must be there.

Palmer (1974:107) said all of the modal examples given above can be interpreted in terms of habitual or future time reference and so may be collocated with preposition *every day* or *tomorrow*. However, only the last two of them *may* refer to a simple present action and so be collocated with moment at the time. In addition, *may* often occurs with adverbs. With perhaps and possibly the adverb does little more than reinforce the notion of possibility.

2.3.2 Deontic Modality

The speaker's interpretations of modality containing obligation, duty, and rule can be said as deontic modality. Griffiths (2006:113) said that *"Deontic modality lets language users express their attitudes (or relay the attitudes of others) as to whether a proposition relates to an obligatory situation or permissible one, or somewhere in between."* In short, deontic modality is modal verb that expresses situation of giving permission and obligation.

In the other hand, Palmer (1979:60) argues both *may* and *can* are used for deontic possibility (giving permission) but *may* is mostly literary, formal or old-fashioned. In speech *can* is more common as example below :

2.n You may be seated - the meeting will commence.

2.o You can come in now - we're ready.

In the example 2.n the word *may* indicates possibility that it may uttered by the president of a society, while in 2.o the word *can* is inferred to participants as general people.

In addition, the modal verbs *can* is also used where it seems rather to give an instruction often of a rough or impolite kind, such as:

2.pYou can leave me out of your plans.

2.qYou can forget all about that.

Related to the example, the speaker indicates that he wishes to be left out, that the addressee should forget the issue. Yet,*can* is by no means equivalent, or even similar, to indicated *must here*. It would be possible to treat this as another degree of deontic modality, but the simplest solution is to treat it as deontic possibility, the giving of permission being sarcastically to be interpreted as an expectation. The speaker assumes the authority to permit, and implies that what he permits will be done.

2.4 Modality Orientation

Palmer (1974:3) mentions that modality in English can be observed through two steps. The first is identify the event (present or past time) and the

second is identify the source of modality; being subject in the sentence, non-subject, or can be neutral oriented. He also states that the English modals can be sub grouped into three categories; (i) epistemic modals where the proposition (represented by the main verb) is marked for tense; (ii) discourse-oriented modals having no past tense marking, and (iii) subject-oriented modals which may be marked for tense. In this research, analysis of orientation divided into three classification; Subject oriented, Non-subject oriented, and Neutral oriented.

2.4.1 Subject Oriented

In this term, the subject orientation means that the modality directly expresses the orientation to the semantic subject in the sentence. In other words, the subject is the semantic participant that performs the action or describes the participant. Palmer (1974:5) states *that subject oriented is concern into subject and communicates the speaker's possibility and obligation*. In illustrates below:

2.r Mary couldn't go to school yesterday

The word *couldn't* above indicates the inability of the subject to perform the act. The modal itself is marked for past tense and non epistemic.

2.4.2 Non-subject Oriented

The non- subject orientation can be defined that the modality expresses the subject of the sentence is excluded from the statement of the modality expressed. The orientation goes to the participant expressed from the proposition of the modality. Palmer (1974:5) states that *non-subject oriented is a modals having no*

past tense marking, and exlude from the subject in the sentence. In illustrates below:

2.s May I leave now, sir?

The modal verb *may* indicate the address's permission to other participant in the sentence.

2.4.3 Neutral Oriented

The neutral orientation means that the modality expresses not directly to the subject of the sentence. This orientation interrelates with the modality of the statement excluded from the participant and the subject of the sentence, but to the people in general. As Leech (1971:75) "*there are instances of modality that may have neutral orientation or no particular source where neither the subject, nor the speaker, but an external or a neutral factor, say the circumstances, can be assigned as the source of the modality."* In illustrate below:

2.t *Before crossing the street, you must look left and right.*

The word *must* indicate to other participant exclude from the sentence. It can be addressed to general people as notion.