CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This chapter outlines the theories used to analyze the data discussed in Chapter IV. In addition, it also illustrates the framework of the research. It exhibits theories regarding the focus and topic of the study. In general, the framework of this study is divided into two main theories, syntax and semantics; however, the focus is on the lexical causative. The theories are outlined based on the data analysis in Chapter IV. Therefore, it is expected that the description of the theories can ease the reader to understand the focus of the study that is explained through syntax and semantic approaches.

2.1 Syntax

The term syntax deals with the structure of sentence. As Miller (2002:56) states that *"syntax has to do with how words are put together to build phrases, with how phrases are put together to build clauses or bigger phrases and with how clauses are put together to build a sentence".* It suggests that syntax combines word in order to construct the phrases, clauses or sentences. In addition, according to Jacobs (1995:4) *"Syntax deals with grammatical principles, units, and relations involved in sentence structure".* This means that syntax talks about the grammatical principles, units and relation within the sentence structure. In this research, the writer limits the discussion of syntax into syntactic funtions and syntactic units.

Syntactic units or constituents fill grammatical function in syntactic analysis. In addition, the constituents can be said as part of the syntactic structure since they made up phrases and sentences that eventually form a complete sentence 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"*

Departing from this, the syntactic analysis is performed to discover the sentence structure for its constituents, what category they belong, and what function they hold in the sentence.

2.1.1 Syntactic Functions

In syntax, syntactic function or grammatical function is understood as the functions that are served by every constituent in the sentence. It is then known that grammatical function is those that serve as the Subject, Predicate, Object, Complement, and Adverbial in the sentence.

2.1.1.1 Subject

Subject is the function in the sentence that is described or that does the action. As Radford (2004:8) suggests *"subject generally represent entities directly involved in the particular action or event described by the predicate".* In addition, Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo (2001:74) illustrate what is defined by subject as in the following:

William buys Kate some flowers

They state that the subject usually occurs before the verb, the subject determines subject-verb concord (so the –s suffix is added to present tense verbs with third person singular subjects) and the subject and first auxiliary are inverted for interrogative sentence.

2.1.1.2 Predicate

In a simple way, predicate is commonly known as the action verb or the words that exhibits what the subject does. William (2005:54) argues that *verbs tend to be words that describe actions and states of being. On this basis, we can see that sentences generally express two types of relations: (a) an agent performing an action; (b) existence.* This indicates that predicate is not merely about what the subject does, yet it also suggests who or what the subject is. The examples below (taken from William, 2005:54) illustrates the definition:

1. The dogs bark.
2. The tree was tall.

In 1, *the dogs* performed the action conveyed in the verb *bark,* whereas in 2, *the tree* expresses its existence or what the subject is. He also states that *functionally everything else in a sentence is related to its subject and predicate in some way* (2005:55).

In addition to the discussion of verb, several of them oblige or can work with an object. William names this kind of verb as *transitive verbs* (2005:72). Other than that, Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo add that the verbs that take two objects are called *ditransitive* verbs (2001:75), in which there may exist the direct

and indirect objects. Regarding the issue, William defines these terms as *the noun phrase that is acted upon we refer to as a* ***direct object****; the noun phrase that accepts the direct object we call it an* ***indirect object*** (2005:75).

2.1.1.3 Object

In a simple definition, it is understood that object is the function in the sentence that receives the action from the subject. In line with this, William (2005:57) illustrates what is defined by object through the following example:

Fritz hit the ball.

He states that *in this sentence,* ***the ball*** *was hit, so it is what Fritz acted upon. Such constructions are referred to as* ***objects.*** He also adds that *objects always consist of a noun phrase*. This quotation suggests that object is indicated to have noun phrase as its constituent or syntactic unit.

2.1.1.4 Complement

Another term applies in the grammatical function is complement. It is different from object; that it is not acted upon by the subject. A complement is said to serve and complete the predicate William (2005:57). The term serve can be defined as to complete the *be* form verb as in *She is beautiful*. In addition, a complement is also defined to complement the subject as in *Kinan is my student*. Though *my student* is said to be noun phrase constituent, it is not an object since it complements the state of who the subject is.

Another distinguished case of complement is where it occurs in the verb following by two noun phrases. They sometime do not directly state direct or indirect object but one of the constituents describes the direct object. Therefore, it is called as *object complement* Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo (2001:76) as in *we have elected you our leader*.

2.1.1.5 Adverbial

The term adverbial is said to modify the verbs, the adjectives and the other adverbs William (2005:79). It is said to modify the verbs as in *Anna walks slowly to the room.* Therefore, it is also defined to modify the adjectives as in *Michele is really smart.* Additionnaly, it is said to modify the other adverbs as in *Charlie speaks very loudly.* It has six types, as in the following:

a. Time
   *They arrived **late***
b. Place
   *We stopped **there** for a rest*
c. Manner
   *Fred opened the box **slowly***
d. Degree
   *Macarena felt **very** tired. She opened the box quite rapidly*
e. Cause
   *We ate **because we were hungry***
f. Concession
   ***Although she didn't like brocoli**, she ate it.*

Other than this, prepositional phrase also may serve as adverbial William (2004:79). He also states that prepositional phrase generally works with noun

phrase that can serve adverbially or adjectivally (2005:89) as in (examples taken from the same source):

The woman *with the red hair* drove a Porsche.

Fritz walked *down the street.*

In the morning, Fred always has wild hair.

2.1.2 Syntactic Units

Syntactic units or constituents are simply understood as the units of language contained in the sentence and they may serve particular grammatical function. Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo (2001:65) argue *that a constituent is a group of words that belong together and behave as a single unit*. It indicates that constituents are syntactic units serving as particular grammatical function in a sentence. Therefore, they can also be called as arguments (semantic term) of the predicate since they can also serve as subject and complements in the sentence Radford (2004:8). In this study, the constituents are limited to the discussion of kinds of phrases as the constituents present in the discussion in Chapter IV.

2.1.2.1 Phrase

Phrase is said to be the most basic kind of constituent Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo (2001:67). In addition to this, William (2005:56) states that *a phrase can be defined as one or more words functioning together as a unit that does not constitute a clause.* Radford (2004:50) adds up that *the simplest way of*

forming a phrase is by merging (a technical term meaning 'combining') two words together. However, relating to the *merging* itself, William argues that

> *a phrase is identified on the basis of the keyword at its beginning, such as a noun or a verb….These words are referred as headwords because they are at the head of the phrase and the other words in the phrase are attached to them* (2005:57).

This definition suggests that by way of merging, the headwords of the phrases determine the kinds of the phrase itself. For examples (taken from Radford), if the beginning word of the phrase is a noun, the phrase is then called noun phrase and if it is a verb it is then called as verb phrase, as in *Flowers in her hair* and *Running with the bull*. This so-called *merging* is the basic rule in combining phrase. Several phrases under discussion are described below.

a. Noun Phrase

According to Quirk (1985:62):

> *"noun phrases consist of a head, which is typically a noun, and of elements which (either obligatory or optionally) determine the head and (optionally) modify the head, or complement another element in the phrase"*

As mentioned earlier in the definition of phrase, the noun phrase has noun as its head. This quotation emphasis the phrase structure rule mentioned earlier.

b. Verb Phrase

The same case occurs also in verb phrase, the phrase structure rule is supported by the theories from Quirk (1985:62) saying that*"verb phrases consist of a main which either stands alone as the entire verb phrase, or is preced by up to four verbs in an auxiliary function".*

c. Adjective Phrase

In addition to the definition of phrase, adjective phrase is also built by the adjective as its head. Quirk (1985:63) states that *"adjective phrases consist of an adjective as head, optionally preceded and followed by modifying elements".* This quotation suggests that the head may be followed or preceded by the modifying elements of other categories/phrases.

d. Adverb Phrase

The adverb phrase is also built by adverb as its head of the phrase. Quirk (1985:63) says that *"adverb phrases are similar to adjective phrases in their structure, except that they have an adverb, instead of an adjective, as their head".* This simply indicates that the phrase structure rule is also applied to this phrase. However, the form of this phrase may be in the form of prepositional phrase since it can serve to function as adverb in the sentence construction (see e below).

e. Prepositional Phrase

Finally yet importantly, prepositional phrase is rather unique since it can also serve as adverb. Quirk (1985:63) says that *"prepositional phrase consist of preposition followed by a prepositional complement, which is normally a noun phrase".* In addition to this and the point in d, William (2005:89) states that the preposition links its noun phrase to either a verb phrase or another noun phrase, which means that the prepositional phrase functions either *adverbially* or *adjectivally*.

2.1.2.2 Clause

After considering phrases, the other syntactic unit to be discussed is *clause*. Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo argue clause as consisting of a subject and a predicate, sometimes with a subordinator preceding the subject (2001:85). This quotation implies a clause can be said as part of a sentence and it could be a dependent one or independent since it has a predicate and a subject, yet sometimes it has subordinator. Under this discussion, relating to the fact that there are independent and dependent clause, Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo (2001:88) mention that *there are three basic kinds of finite subordinate clause: a noun clause, a relative clause, and an adverb clause*.

Relating to this study, the clause itself may serve particular grammatical function since it is also a constituent, part of sentence that builds up the sentence. This understanding is supported by Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo (2001:88) through their illustration regarding the most common function of the mentioned clauses.

Clause type	Function	Example
Noun clause	Direct object	*I know that SYNTAX IS FUN*
Relative clause	Post modifier of noun	*He is the man WHO MET ME*
Adverb clause	Adverbial	*I laughed WHEN I SAW HIM*

Figure 2.1 Three Basic Types of Finite Subordinator Clauses.

As illustrated, each clause serves particular grammatical function. However, the form of these clauses may be reduced, making it rather difficult to identify the constituent and the function.

2.2 Semantics

Semantics is the study of meaning. As Palmer (1976:1) states that *"Semantics is technical term used to refer to the study of meaning".* Another opinion states by Fromkin and Rodman (1983:124) *"The study of the linguistic meaning of words, phrases, and sentences is called semantics*". Therefore, it can be concluded that semantics is the study of meaning of words, phrases and sentences. In this research, the analysis of semantics used is the meaning properties, the semantic role and pharaphrase.

2.2.1 Componential Analysis

The meaning of a word is said to be crucial to the wholeness of the meaning of the word itself. Therefore, meaning making process is performed in order to provide not only what is seen from the lexical item but also what is implied or intended by the word itself. Larson argues that *the meaning of lexical item can only be discovered by studying that particular item in contrast to other items which are closely related* (1984:79). This suggests that the meaning of a word can be discovered by way of contrasting or grouping it to other known words that are closely related. This way, the shared meaning components may exhibit the intended meaning of the words. One way of grouping or contrasting the word is through componential analysis.

In componential analysis, one is making the contrastive feature of meaning for certain areas of vocabulary Larson (1984:82). Through this, the words can then be grouped or mapped based on the similarity in order to achieve the

mapping of the word's meaning. This kind of analysis, according to Larson (1984:83) is known as the fact that each word is a bundle of *meaning components*. In this approach, Larson also adds up that the words must contain a *generic component* (1984:83).

In relation to this, he illustrates how meaning components can be analysed through the words *man, woman, boy,* and *girl,* because they are all human beings (1984:84). He says that the generic component is also shared as central component, which is HUMAN BEING (see figure below).

	MALE	FEMALE
ADULT	*man*	*woman*
YOUNG	*boy*	*girl*

Figure 2.2 Contrastive Feature of Meaning

(taken from Larson, 1984:84)

The figure illustrates that in order to distinguish each word from another; the presence of *contrastive component* is required. In this case, the contrastive component of woman is ADULT and FEMALE, respectively for the others as illustrated from the figure.

2.2.2 Semantic Roles

Semantic role is understood to serve the arguments (constituents/units) of the verbs in the sentence. Semantic role names the role of each argument of the sentence as suggested by the predicate. Below are several semantic roles defined for this research.

2.2.2.1 Agent

Agent is someone or something that does an action. As Larson (1984:199) said *"agent is the thing which does the action".* For instance:

Bella *read the book*

The ***sun*** *rises*

Bella is the one who does the action of reading whereas *the sun* indicates that it undergoes an action.

2.2.2.2. Causer

Causer is someone or something that makes someone or something do an action. As suggested by Larson (1984:199) *"causer is the thing which instigates the event rather than actually doing it".* For instance:

Jason *brokes the window* (Jason causes the window brokes)

Eliza *made her brother clean the room* (Eliza causes her brother cleans the room)

The term causer here can also be indicated as the causer of lexical causative verb under discussion (see 2.3.1).

2.2.2.3 Affected

Affected is someone or something that experiences an action or that is affected by the action. According to Larson (1984:200) *"affected is the thing that undergoes the event or is affected by the event".* For instance:

The ice *melted*

*Kinan feeds **the cat***

The ice undergoes an action of changing from solid to liquid whereas *Kinan* is the one doing the action of giving food.

2.2.2.4 Beneficiary

Benefiary is someone or something that receives an advantage or disadvantage from the action. As Larson (1984:201) states *"beneficiary is the thing that is advantages or disadvantages by the event".* For instance:

*Sally gives the book to **me***

*Mary bought **her mother** some cakes*

The examples show that *her mother* and *me* take the advantages from the agents.

2.2.2.5 Accompaniment

Accompaniment is someone or something that takes a part and has relation with the agent, the causer or the affected in an action. As suggested by Larson (1984:201) *"accompaniment is the thing which participates in close association with the agent, the causer or the affected in an event".*

*Robert walks to the partk with **his dog***

*I ate dinner with **my friends***

In this research, since the accompaniment has close association, it may also serve as causer in some cases.

2.2.2.6 Resultant

Resultant is something that is produced by an action. As Larson (1984:201) said *"resultant is that which is produced by the event"*. For instance:

*He writes **a letter** for her wife*

*George made **some cookies***

2.2.2.7 Instrument

Instrument is that is used to do an action. Larson (1984:201) states *"instrument is the thing used to carry out an event".* For instance:

*John cut the bread with a **knife***

*Andrea writes with a **pencil***

In this study, the instrument may serve as the causer. The first example illustrates that *something* that cuts the bread is the *knife*, the causer, likewise in the next example (see 2.3.1).

2.2.2.8 Location

Location is something that shows the source, the place or the destination from an action. According to Larson (1984:202) *"location is the thing which identifies the spatial placement of an event".* For instance:

*Anna goes to the **school***

*Martin comes from **London***

The first example shows that *the school* is the destination whereas the second example indicates that *from London* is the source departure.

2.2.2.9 Goal

Goal is something which is directed by an action. Larson (1984:202) said *"goal is the thing towards which an action is directed".* For instance:

*Billy throw the basketball to the **ring***

*I pray to **God***

Both examples show that goal is something/someone that is intended to be the final direction of the intention of the agent.

2.2.2.10 Time

Time is used to show when an action takes place. As Larson (1984:202) suggests *"time identifies the temporal placement of the event, it tells when the event took place".* For instance:

*Joanna will come at **five o'clock***

*Peter went to Paris **two days ago***

As suggested by the examples, *time* shows particular time of the events to occur. It identifies the occurrence of the event at one specific time.

2.2.2.11 Manner

Manner is how to do the action. As suggested by Larson (1984:203) *"manner is the qualification of the event, it is the manner in which the action, experience, or process was carried out".* For instance:

*I walk **slowly** to the room*

*Tania speaks **loudly***

According to the quotation and example, manner is simply understood as the extension of how the action is performed by the agent or how the action occurs.

2.2.2.12 Measure

Measure is used to show quantity of an action. According to Larson (1984:203) *"measure is the quantification of the event".* For instance:

*My mother's bag costs **$70***

*The flower had grown **five inches***

The quotation simply suggests that *measure* quantifies the event or the action. It tells exactly the units being measure as suggested by the action.

2.2.3 Paraphrase

In this section, the term paraphrase is intended to serve the analysis of making the lexical causative into non-lexical causative. It is due to the fact that paraphrase can be used to state similar thing in the different way. According to Kreidler (1998:9) *"parahrase is sentences that make equivalent statements about the same entities".* Below are examples taken from Kreidler (1998:9):

a. Rebecca got home before Robert

b. Robert got home before Rebecca

c. Robert arrived at home after Rebecca

d. Rebecca got home later than Robert

The examples indicate that the meanings of the above examples are the same despite their differences in the sentence formation.

2.3 Lexical Causative

Lexical causative is the expression in which the verb shows the meaning of cause and effect. As Payne (2011:392) states *"lexical causative (also "inherently causative verb") is a verb whose lexical entry expresses the meaning of cause and effect, e.g., kill means 'cause to die".* Therefore, in the lexical causative there are the term called *causer; agent of cause* and *causee; agent of effect.*

Additionally, lexical causative is divided into three subtypes according to Payne (1997:177). Lexical causative with category *no change in verb* means that the verb in the causative and non-causative construction is the same. *Some idiosyncratic change in verb* means that there is vowel change in the verb in the causative and in the non-causative construction but the meaning is synonymous. *Different verb* means that verb in the causative construction changes in the non-causative construction.

Further, Dixon (1994) states that there are three ways to identify the lexical causative, first, identify the lexical verb, second, identify the causer and the last, identify the causee. The writer classifies them into the following outline (taken from Dixon 1994):

a. Relating to the lexical verb involved in the construction, whether the lexical causative verbs are stative vs. active and/or intransitive vs. transitive vs. ditransitive. It is intended to discover the characteristics of the verb so that the nature of the verb can be indicated.
b. Relating to the causee, whether it is: having vs. lacking control, acting willingly vs. unwillingly, and/or partially affected vs. completely

affected. This part is intended to discover the role of the cause and how the cause is affected by the causer through the verbs.

c. Relating to the causer, whether it is: acting directly vs. indirectly, acting accidentally vs. intentionally, acting naturally vs. with effort, involved vs. not involved in the activity. This section is intended to discover how the causer affects the causee as well as to see their relation to the causee through the verbs.

2.3.1 Causer

In the causative construction, there is the term called causer, it is someone or something that make someone or something does an action. This term is indicated to be similar to the term *causer* of the semantic role. In addition, the causer in this term can also be served by the semantic role of *instrument* and/or accompaniment. As Larson (1984:199) said *"causer is a person or object causes an action or process to happen).* In addition, Payne (2011:317) said *"causer is an agent that is external to the situation itself"*. It suggests that causer is the argument that allows the action to occur, or it has the power to make the action to occur. For instance:

***Mary** made John cook the chicken.*

In the example above, *Mary* is the causer of the action of cooking, but she is not the agent of the action *cook* itself, the agent of the action *cook* is *John.* It shows that causer is the agent of the external situation related to Payne (2011:317).

2.3.2 Causee

According to Payne (2011:317), causee is the agent of the effect. This means that causee is someone or something that does the action suggested by the causer. For instance:

*Cristine made **Ana** eat the burger*

The causee in the construciton above is *Ana*. She becomes the agent of the effect the action *made* suggested by the causer *Cristine.* In this research, the cause can also serve as the affected since most of the findings suggest that the objects of the sentence or the arguments are the causee.