CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

2.1. Syntax

Syntax is a study of structures built by the combinations of words to construct bigger constructions; phrases, clauses, and sentences. In the construction of a phrase, for example, head and modifiers relate to each other in a particular relationship such as controller-controlled. Here, Miller (2002; 3) stated in a phrase built by the head and modifier, the head control the modifier of the phrase. For instance, in a noun phrase *new world*, the word *world* categorized as a noun controls the modifier, the adjective *new*, which gives a characteristic of the head *world*. Miller (2002; 3) also added to his argumentation, when language is treated as a way of conveying information, the head acts as a central piece of the information, and the modifier plays as an extra information. In the sentence, the head of the sentence is argued to be a verb phrase as the main information and the modifiers, the subject noun, as the extra information. As Miller's argumentation, the verb phrase may have several modifiers that bring to the second major distinction, complements and adjunct. For example:

(1) *Barbara handed the results to Alan on Tuesday*.

In the sentence construction (1), the noun phrase, *Barbara*, plays as the modifier of the sentence, and the head of the sentence is the verb phrase, *handed the results to Alan on Tuesday.* In the detail analysis of the verb phrase, the head *handed* controls the modifiers: (1) *the result* as a complement explaining the thing

that gives from *Barbara* to someone, (2) *to Alan* specifying *the result* informing that *Alan* is someone to give, and (3) *on Tuesday* as an adjunct explaining the time of the activity happens. Providing the illustration of the resulting structure, tree diagram is adopted to show ways of testing the structure of the phrase and the sentence. Here is the tree diagram of the sentence (1).

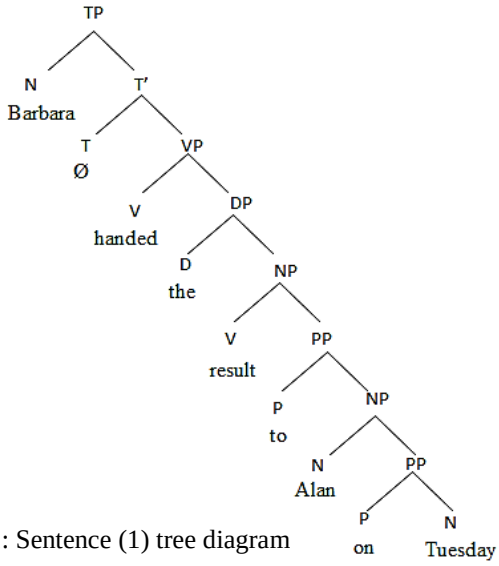


Figure 2.1: Sentence (1) tree diagram

The tree diagram is also proposed to provide the idea of the collocation between the words in syntactic structure. Since the analysis requires semantic components of the sentence, the Radford's tree diagram is adopted in this research. Based on the assumption, this research describes the relation of the words *before* and *after* through the assistance of Radford's tree diagram.

2.1.1. Radford's Tree Diagrams

Radford's tree diagram focuses semantic components to describe syntactic structure. In this sense, the semantic components become the essence of a relation.

As Radford (2009: 330) stated, a tree diagram is used to represent the syntactic structure of an expression that is semantics. With this research, the constituents of the sentence can be illustrated by tree diagram to show the phrase structures that build the sentence. To see what the syntactic categories that build the sentence, single node in tree diagram is presented to label the category (DP, PP, T', VP, AP, etc.). There are 2 types of nodes; those are **terminal node** and **non-terminal node**. Terminal node is the node labeling the DP, PP, VP, etc. Non-terminal node is the node labeling the D, N, PRN, ADV, etc. For example:

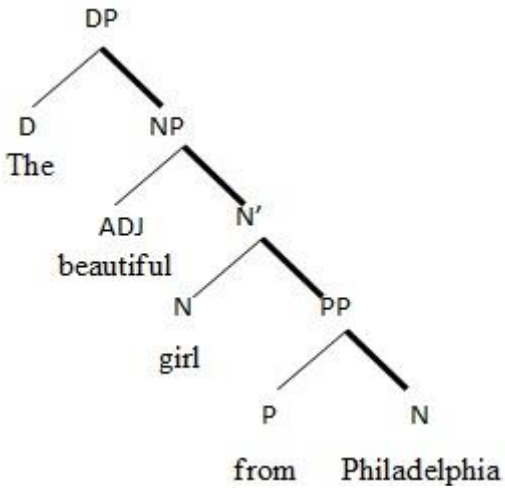


Figure2.2: Terminal node

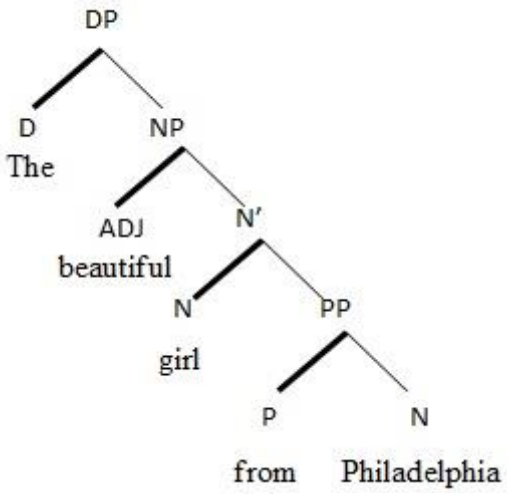


Figure 2.3: Non-terminal node

Furthermore, Radford's tree diagram uses several symbols that are bar (‘), null (Ø), and movement (- - -➢). Bar (‘) is used to label the smaller unit from phrase but larger than word. In the phrase *the beautiful girl from Philadelphia*, for example, the determiner phrase (DP), the head of the phrase, controls modifiers noun phrase (NP), *beautiful girl*, and preposition phrase (PP), *from Philadelphia.*

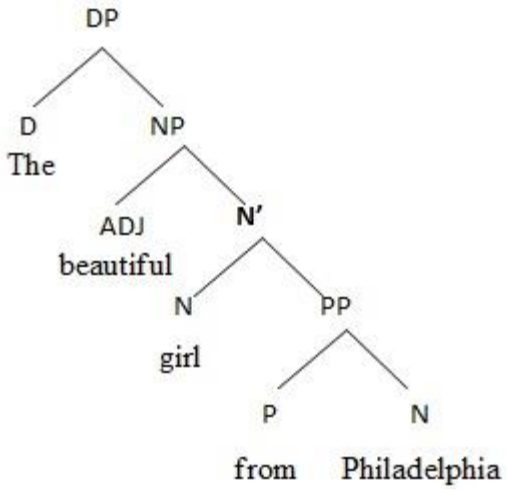


Figure 2.4: Bar example

The relation between NP and PP of the DP, is understood from the combination of words, *girl from Philadelphia* that consists of more noun, *girl*, and prepositional phrase, *from Philadelphia*. Thus, N' uses to symbolize the construction of *girl from Philadelphia.* Null (Ø) is the symbol that uses to label the absence of the categories in structure, for example:

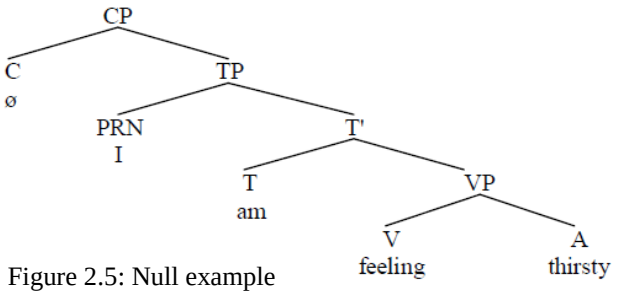


Figure 2.5: Null example

Figure 2.5 shows the example of null complementiser, there must be the conjunction in the first clause. However there is no conjunction so the complmentiser is null. Movement (---➔) is the symbol that uses to label the movement of the categories in the structure, for example:

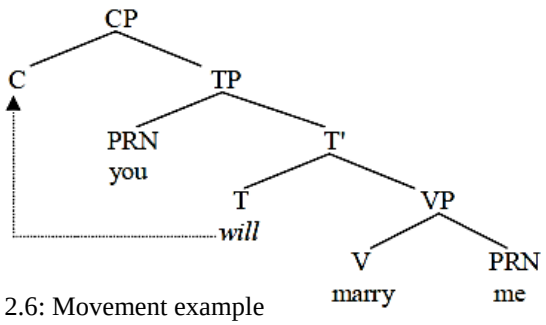


Figure 2.6: Movement example

The figure 2.5 shows the T-movement. The tense, *will*, moves to the complementiser, and the movement results in the interrogative sentence. Since, there are many types of phrases that use in the examples of tree diagram, syntactic categories will be discussed in the subchapter below.

2.1.2. Syntactic Categories

The sentence is built by smallest units, those are words, phrases, and clauses. Radford (2009: 66) stated that the tree diagram was so called the phrase maker. Terms of sentence and clause are not used in this theory. Radford uses the tense phrase and complementiser phrase to describe about sentence and clause. Besides them, other phrases terms, derived from word categories, are employed in Radford's three diagram.

2.1.2.1. Tense Phrase (TP)

This phrase is headed by a tense or to-infinitive. Radford assums when subject is merged with the auxiliary tense with verb phrase, it is called maximal projection. Based on the assumption, this phrase is used to illustrate the complete

sentence with the auxiliary verb in the sentence or to illustrate to infinitive phrase. For example:

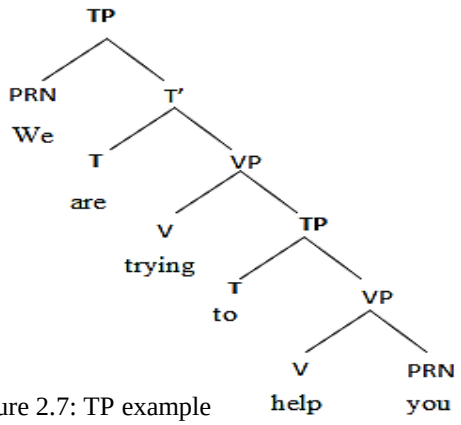


Figure 2.7: TP example

Figure 2.7 shows TP in the top of tree diagram is the Tense phrase symbolizes the sentence or maximal projection. However the second TP symbolizes the infinite phrase.

2.1.2.2. Noun Phrase (NP)

Noun phrase is headed by a Noun. This phrase is also used as a subject or object because this phrase is headed by the word noun is the name of something or places.

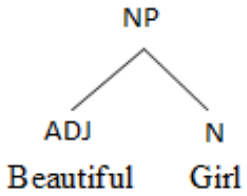


Figure 2.8: NP example

Figure 2.8 shows the noun phrase with the word *girl* as the head and *beautiful* as the modifier that modifies the head.

2.1.2.3. Determiner Phrase (DP)

Determiner phrases are headed by a determiner. Radford (2009; 70) assums that function words also project phrases; by combining a determiner with a noun expression we form a determiner phrase. Thus, there is new phrase that is called determiner phrase. This phrase is usually shown by the determiner in the first phrase and this phrase has similar function with noun phrase because after the determiner there must be a noun or noun phrase. For example:

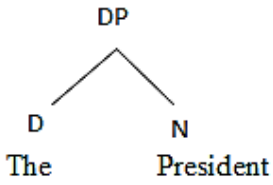


Figure 2.9: DP example

Figure 2.9 shows the determiner phrase with the word *the* as the head and the word *President* as the modifier. The determiner *the*, as a head, modifies the specific modifier, *President.*

2.1.2.4. Verb Phrase (VP)

Verb phrase is headed by a verb. This phrase acts as the main sentence because this phrase shows the action or event of the subject, noun.

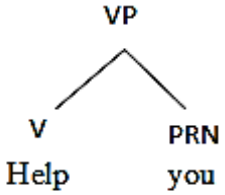


Figure 2.10: VP example

Figure 2.10 shows the verb phrase with the word *help* as the head and the word *you* as the modifier. The word *help* is the head that controls the action of the doer, someone. . On the other hand, the pronoun *you* plays as a modifier that modifies the head, describing the person that affected by the head.

2.1.2.5. Prepositional Phrase (PP)

Prepositional phrase is headed by preposition. This phrase can be pointed out by looking at the phrase or the word after preposition; noun, pronoun, noun phrase, or determiner phrase, for example:

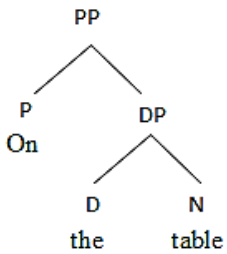


Figure 2.11: PP example

Figure 2.11 shows the preposition *on* as the head and the determiner phrase *the table* as the modifier. The preposition points out the position of something.

2.1.2.6. Adjective Phrase (AP)

Adjective phrase is headed by Adjective. This phrase is the phrase that usually comes along with noun or determiner phrase as a modifier of it. In the example the adjective phrase figure 2.12, AP consists of adjective *good* and adverb *very*.

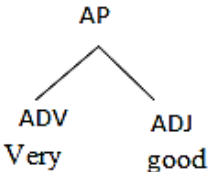


Figure 2.12: AP example

Figure 2.12 shows the adjective phrase with the adjective *good* as a head controls the adverb *very* as the modifier. The adjective head *good* is a characteristic. The word *very* as the modifier explains about the scale of the characteristic, *good*.

2.1.2.7. Adverbial Phrase (ADVP)

Adverbial phrase is headed by adverb. This phrase is the phrase that is usually used to modify a verb.

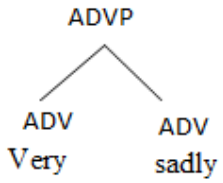


Figure 2.13: ADVP example

Figure 2.13 shows the adverbial phrase that consists of two adverbs with head *sadly* and the modifier *very*.

2.1.2.8. Complementiser Phrase (CP)

Complementiser phrase, in traditional grammar, is usually called after the term clause. This phrase is headed by a conjunction. To point out this phrase, the figure 2.14 shows conjunction *that* preceding tense phrase (TP), *we are trying to help you*.

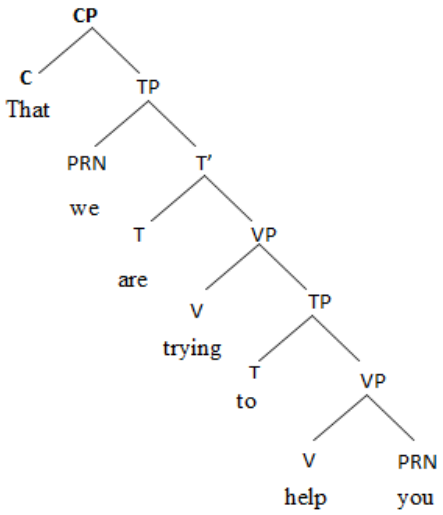


Figure 2.14: CP example

2.2. Semantics

Semantics is the study about meaning. Based on Kreidler (1998; 3), there are three based approaches disciplines that concern on systematic of meaning study: physiology, philosophy, and linguistics. In linguistics, semantics is defined as the study on how the language works, and how the information is known by other persons when they use language. Language meaning can be expressed using signs, utterances, or sentences. Arguing on semantics, Saeed (2003; 4) states that

the word's definition is combined to form phrase's, and then sentence's definition is constructed by the meaning of words and phrases. Thus, Saeed's argumentation implies semantics studies about what each word is defined, how its meaning combines with others to construct a bigger unit's meaning, , and in what relation words' meanings combine to become a new meaning. . Focusing on the relation, this research discusses the semantic relation of words *before* and *after* to explore interchangeable possibilities of both.

2.2.1. Semantic Relations

Meaning is claimed to have a structure. Similar with syntactic structure, meaning structure consists of smaller meaning units that construct bigger configuration; concepts, proposition, and propositional cluster. In proposition, for example, the meaning structure, so called semantic structure, is constructed by a particular relationship between concepts. If there were no skewing between the semantic structure and grammatical structure, Larson (1998: 299) argued, the relationship should be: (1) meaning component – morpheme; (2) concept – word; (3) concept cluster – phrase; (4) proposition – clause; and (5) propositional cluster – sentence. Adding to the Larson's proposal, Brinton (2010: 146) argues that a particular relation, called semantic relation, holds between words in clause structure. Since clauses unite into sentence, it implies that there is a relation between clauses. Moreover, the semantic relations not only involve with words but also clauses. Cruse (2000; 34) proposes relation between individual entities are created through logic. It means that the every entity (object, place, and idea)

building the relation with other predicate imposes logical relation. One of the logic relations is symmetric based on Cruse's idea. The relation is identified as communication relation. Larson (1998: 305) defines communication relation as the description of the event. Later, the communication relation is classified into two categories: chronological and non-chronological events.

. The chronological events are divided into two type, those are sequence and simultaneous. Sequence is the event that happens over the time of one event. For instance, sentence (1),

The bus will stop at the market place and then continue to the bus terminal

consists of two propositions that relate each other; it is called sequential. The first proposition is *the bus will stop at market place* and the second preposition is *the bus will continue to the bus terminal.* On the other hand, simultaneous is the events that happen in the similar time and almost same time. For instance, the sentence (2),

He plays piano for her and she sings for him.

has two propositions. The first proposition is *He plays piano for her,* and the second one is *she sings for him.* Both of events happen in the same time so that the sentence (2) is called simultaneous. Thus, this research focuses on the symmetrical relation between the word *before* and *after.*

2.2.1.1. Symmetrical Relation

Symmetrical relation happens when A meets B, it must be B meet A. However, in the development the symmetrical relation, Oliver (1998: 9) assumes

symmetrical relation is sequence, join, list, and contrast. That means when B happens after A, it must be A happens before B. The relation implies that the words *before* and *after* have sequence meaning; identified as symmetrical relation. Buldhorn (2009: 77) suggests, *"Symmetrical semantic connection is defined as relations between semantically categorized entities* (*such as spatial objects, events or propositions*)*."* Based on Buldhorn's suggestion, the symmetrical relation is the relation between the proposition and communication relation of a sentence. Thus, in this research, the propositions of clauses constructing the sentence and communication relation describing their events are pointed out to look at the relation between them and to determine the symmetrical or asymmetrical relation.

2.2.1.2 Asymmetrical Relation

Asymmetrical relation is the reciprocal of symmetrical. So, when A sees B it does not mean that B sees A; it can be B does not see A. Partee (2009: 3) suggests*, "Asymmetrical relation is the strong negation of the symmetrical that means.*" Buldhron (2009; 88) states that asymmetric happens when syntactic change is followed by semantic change. Based on the statement, when the structure and the meaning of sentence change because of the interchangeable *after* and *before*, the sentence is not symmetric, called asymmetric. However, if the syntactic sequence changes without changes the meaning, it can be called symmetric. Based on the assumption, when the sentence does not symmetric, it is automatically called asymmetric.

2.2.2 Proposition

Larson (1998: 207) states, "*the proposition is grouping of concept into a unit which communicates."* Concepts in semantic is word. There are several types of proposition; one of them is event proposition. "*Proposition that an event as a central of concept is called event proposition."* This research is focused on analyzing event proposition linked by the words *before* or *after* to see the sequence of events in the sentence. The structure of the proposition consists of one **predicate** and a varying number of referring expressions (noun phrases) called **arguments** based on Kreidler's idea.

2.2.2.1 Argument

The argument is the subject or the object of the sentence. The argument in the proposition is someone, something, or location (place). Brinton (2010: 259) claims, "*an argument is any of the various elements of the sentence that are set in relation to one another by the predicate.*" Based on the assumption, the argument is the element that has relation with other argument linked by the predicate. For example, in *Jennie crossed the street,* there are two arguments; *Jennie* and *the street*. Those arguments are linked by the predicate *crossed*.

2.2.2.2 Predicate

The predicate is the action carried out on an argument or arguments; it places the arguments in relation to one another. Brinton (2010: 259) claims, "*predicates are typically verbs (including accompanying prepositions and*

particles), prepositions, and (predicate) adjectives." The predicate can be known as the action, event, or the status of the argument. Every predicate can have a different argument. There are the predicate that only has one, two, three or more arguments in one sentence, for example: (1) *my brother snores*; (2) *A cat killed a rat*; and (3) *Anny gives the letter to John.* The example (1) shows the predicate with one argument. The example (2) shows the predicate with two arguments. The example (3) shows the predicate with three arguments. However, in the proposition there must be one argument and one predicate.