CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter explains about the theories used to analyze the data. This research theory uses M.A.K Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976) as the main theory. The supporting theories are from Harvey Sacks (1960) that is written in Pomerantz (1980) journal, M.A.K. Halliday & Christian M.I.M. Matthiessen (2004), Burton, Strang, et al (2012) and Delahunty (2010).

2.1 Syntax

In linguistics, the pattern on sentence is called syntax. Syntax explains about the structure of the sentence like a subject, a verb, an object or a complement. The statement is described by Strang burton et al (2012:95). They said, "*Linguists call this set of rules and patterns syntax. People who study syntax, syntacticians, try to figure out exactly what these rules and patterns for sentence-creation are"*. From the quotation, syntax explains what are the rules and pattern of the sentence. The sentence itself has grammatical rules, which are subject and verb.

2.1.1 Constituents and their categories

Syntax has their constituents and their categories. They are word, phrase, and clause.

2.1.1.1 Word

Word class is included in the syntactical unit. Word also has its category and the category is called part of speech, as stated by Sasse (1993), *"The analysis of syntactic categories was familiar to the traditional grammarians under the title part of speech."*. Part of speech have eight types. They are noun, verb, pronoun, adjective, adverb, conjunction, preposition, and interjection. The part of speech is also described by Daniel Jurafsky & James H. Martin (2005) in *Speech and Language Processing: An introduction to natural language processing, computational linguistics, and speech recognition* and Thomas E. Payne (2010) in *A Sample Grammatical Sketch of English*. There are deeper explanations about part of speech, as follow:

- Noun : Name of something, including people, places. Noun take place as a subject or an object in the sentence. *Example : Book, glass.*
- Verb : The verb class includes most of the words referring to actions and processes like *draw, provide, grow, and go*.
- Pronoun is a word that take the place of noun like *she/he, it, yours, our,* etc.
- Adjective expresses concept such as color, quality. An adjective gives more information about the object in the sentence like *red, hot, beautiful,* etc.
- Adverb : to express manner, time, location etc. Many adverbs can identify by suffix –ly. Adverb also can appear in a clause. *Example: unfortunately, in the kitchen, quickly,* etc.

- Conjunctions are used to join two phrases, clauses, or sentences like *and, or,* and *but.*
- Preposition : to describe the relation between a noun or some other word in the sentence. *Examples: in, under, towards, with, beside, above.*
- Interjection : to express an emotion like *Ouch, Ah!, Wow, geez,* etc.

2.1.1.2 Phrase

Another syntactical unit is a phrase. Based on the theory of Quirk Randolph (1985:38), a phrase is a grammatical unit and it consists of more than one word. For example:

[The evenings] [have turned] [very cold] [just recently].

From the example above, there are phrases that are included in the sentence. Every sentence always depends on a group of phrases. The phrase has another type. There are a noun phrase, verb phrase, prepositional phrase, adverbial phrase, and adjective phrase. The type of the phrase already stated by Jong-Bok Kim and Peter Sells (2007). They also stated about two elements of phrase. The elements are head and modifier. Head means that the one word is headed by its category. The modifier is another word that describes the head. For example:

- NP (noun phrase) : NP takes place as a subject or an object.

  Example:

  - *I like the dog.*

The word *the* modify the word *dog*. *The dog* is the name of the animal. Then, the *dog* is included into noun category. The modifier describes the specific dog.

- VP (verb phrase) : He *is walking* in the garden.

  The head of the verb is *walking* and the modifier is *is.*

- PP (prepositional phrase) : Prepositional phrase consists of a preposition category and followed by an NP (noun phrase).

  Example:

  - They put the book *in the box.*

  Based on the description about preposition category before, preposition always relates to a noun phrase. Then, *in the box* phrase is related to the noun phrase *the box*.

- Adverbial Phrase (AdvP) are often used to modify verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. For example:

  - He runs *quickly*.

  The adverbial phrase from the sentence is *quickly*. The head of the phrase is *quickly*. Based on the description about the adverb, many adverbs appear by suffix *–ly*, but not all of it. For this phrase, the adverb is identified by the suffix –ly (quickly).

- Adjective Phrase (AdjP) gives more information about the object or the subject in the sentence. It is already explained above about adjective category. For example:

    - He is *very handsome.*

  The adjective phrase in the sentence is *very handsome*, *handsome* is included into an adjective category and it takes place as a head. The *very handsome* phrase also explains about the subject (*He*).

2.1.1.3 Clause

A clause is a group of phrase or word which has subject and verb. In another word, the clause is part of the sentence. That statement is also stated by Delahunty and Garvey (2010) *"A clause is a grammatical unit that contains a subject and a predicate."*. The clause has two types. There are dependent clause and independent clause. Based on Royer (Grammar and Punctuation) : *"An independent clause is a group of related words that has both a subject (actor) and verb (action) and makes sense to us without needing any additional information."*. Independent clause has subject and predicate but there is no punctuation. Furthermore, Dependent clause based on Gunchong Kritprayoch (2005) *is "an independent clause with a subordinating conjunction added to the beginning of it"*.

For example:

a) We went on a hike <u>although it was cold and windy yesterday</u>.

b) We watched TV after we finished our homework and cleaned up the kitchen.

c) Art students should visit Paris because it has excellent art museums.

The sentence (a) has an independent and dependent clause, and the independent clause is *we went on a hike*. It has the subject (*we*) and the verb (*went*). The sentence can be made of one independent clause alone. The dependent clause from the sentence (a) is although it was cold and windy yesterday. The dependent means that the clause cannot stand alone and it must have another clause, especially the independent one, to complete the sentence. When the independent clause is removed, it is no longer can be called as a sentence. Then, the sentence (b) also has an independent and dependent clause. The independent clause from the sentence (b) is *we watched TV*. It has a similar description with the sentence (a), the independent clause can stand alone when the dependent clause after we finished our homework and cleaned up the kitchen is removed from the sentence. The last example is the sentence (c). The independent clause from the sentence (c) is *Art students should visit Paris* and the dependent clause is because it has excellent art museums. From the example (c), the dependent clause can mark by preposition category.

2.1.2 Ellipsis : Nominal

Ellipsis is part of cohesion devices. Ellipsis happens to link some text that is unspoken after the first sentence. As the main theory, M.A.K Halliday and

Ruqaiya Hasan (1976) said*, "Ellipsis is a relation within the text. And in the great majority of instances, the presupposed item is present in the preceding text."* The theory explains that Ellipsis is the relation within the text. An ellipsis appears when there is some eliminated syntactical unit. It is also stated by M.A.K Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976:144) that, *"In other words. we can take as a general guide the notion that ellipsis occurs when something that: is structurally necessary is left unsaid; there is a sense of incompleteness associated with it."*

Ellipsis appears when several structures in a sentence are missing or eliminated. The missing structure does not make the sentence become ambiguous, but it makes the information are not wasteful or become a repetition. Ellipsis has several types, one of them is Nominal Ellipsis. Nominal Ellipsis theory stated by M.A.K Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976: 147) and they are stated, *"By NOMINAL ELLIPSIS: we mean ellipsis within the nominal group."* Nominal Ellipsis is constructed by a noun as a head. Nominal ellipsis has several types. There are Deictic (Specific Deictic and Non-Specific Deictic), Numerative (Ordinal Number and Cardinal Number), and Epithet.

2.1.2.1 Deictic

Deictic is formed by a noun. Deictics has two elements, Specific Deictics and Non-Specific Deictic. M.A.K Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976:155) said:

> *"The words functioning as Deictic are mostly of the class of determiner; with the demonstrative, possessive and indefinite determiners forming a network of systemically related categories - one that includes the articles, which are thus shown to be part of a wider system."*

From quotation above, Deictic is included into the class of determiners, demonstrative, possessive and indefinite determiner. It is included too into noun class. Furthermore, Deictic is included into an element of nominal ellipsis and it is linked some sentence with another phrase or clause.

2.1.2.1.1 Specific Deictic

Specific deictic also included into Nominal Ellipsis. M.A.K Halliday and Ruqaiya (1976:155) mentioned about specific deictic that, *"specific deictic is possessives, demonstratives, and determiner the".* The eliminated word of the ellipsis is clearly explained before. For Example:

- Take these pills three times daily. And you'd better have some more of those too.

The marker of Specific deictic is *those*. The word *those* is included into demonstrative and it refers to *pills*.

2.1.2.1.2 Non-specific Deictic

Non-specific deictic is the opposite of specific deictic. Non-specific deictic means the eliminated word is unclearly explained after the first sentence. This statement based on M.A.K Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976:155) stated, *"non-specific (each, every. all, both. any, either, no, neither, some, and a). Non-specific and specific deictics may be combined. only through the use of a partitive*

qualifier". This statement explains that non-specific and specific deictic maybe combined in several sentences.

For Example:

- These apples are delicious. Let's buy some.

Some refer to these apples. The word *some* are included into non-specific deictic. The nominal ellipsis is *these apples* phrase. The head of that phrase is apples, apples are included into noun class.

2.1.2.2 Numerative

One type of nominal ellipsis is Numerative. Same as the name, numerative means that this type is related to number or numeral. The explanation about numerative is based on M.A.K Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976:161) states, *"The Numerative clement in the nominal group is expressed by numerals or other quantifying words, which form three subcategories: ordinals, cardinals".* Numerative has several categories. This research is used cardinal and ordinal numerative. The used of the theory is based on the data.

2.1.2.2.1 Ordinal

Ordinal is the category of Numerative Nominal Ellipsis. M.A.K Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976:161) mentioned about the ordinal number, *"The ordinals are first, next, last, second, third, fourth, etc; they are often used elliptically. generally with the or a possessive as Deictic."* The quotation explains that ordinal number is marked by placed rank (2003, Meriam Webster).

For Example:

- Have another chocolate? No thanks; that was my third.

My third is an ordinal number. The phrase my third explains that he has *another chocolate* and he has *the third chocolate*.

2.1.2.2.2 Cardinal

Cardinal number is a number (as 1, 5, 15) that is used in simple counting and that indicates how many elements there are in an assemblage (2003, Meriam Webster). Cardinal number is also included into Numerative Nominal Ellipsis. Cardinal number is marked by one, two, three, etc. The statement also mentioned by M.A.K Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976:161) that, *"Cardinal numerals are also frequent in ellipsis, and may be preceded by any Deictic that is appropriate in number, eg; the rhTee, these three, any three, all three."*. For example:

- 'The other messengers called Hatta. I must have two, you know. One to come, and one to go.'

There is two cardinal number, first is two and last is one. Two is included into a cardinal number. The two word refers to the messenger. One is a cardinal number and it explains about the messengers go and come.

2.1.2.3 Epithet

The function of the epithet has identified the adjective. The epithet is shown when the nominal group has their head as the adjective. M.A.K Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976: 163) mentioned that:

> *"The function of Epithet is typically fulfilled by an adjective. It is not common to find adjectives occurring as Head in ellipsis- colour adjectives are perhaps the most usual - except in their comparative and, especially, superlative forms."*

Superlative form is like *tallest, smallest, cheapest*. The superlative adjective is usually accompanied by *the* or possessive deictic. Comparative form is different with the superlative. Comparative adjectives refer by reference. A comparative adjective is always with deictic *the*. Comparative is more like compare between two things. The sentences below are example for superlative and comparative form:

a) Danni is almost as good in maths as in science.

b) Apples are the cheapest in autumn.

Example (a) is included in the comparative form. The marked of comparative is the word *as*. The word *as* compares between math and science. The cases (b) is superlative form. The marker of superlative form is the word cheapest. The reference explains about the price of the apples in autumn.

2.2 Conversation Analysis (CA)

Conversation analysis is the supporting theory for this research. The theory explains about the analysis from the conversation. The conversation itself the transcription. The transciption is like the table (Pomerantz, 1980) :

A:	Hello
B:	Hi, How are you?
A:	Fine, sure. You?
B:	Sure, fine too.

Table 2.1 Conversation Analysis

Schegloff (1986) in Delahunty and Garvey (2010) journal mentions that every elements of the transcript are always consist of summons, identification, greetings and "howareyou" sequences. From the table above, first lines is summons (A) and the seconds lines is greeting and identification (B), then the third and last lines is the interaction between (A) and (B). Conversation Analysis analyze the data from video or audio recording recordings which occur in the occuring interaction. The statement also states by Arnis Silvia (2012) in her paper "Conversation Analysis and The Structure of Conversation " that:

> *"CA analyses spoken data (talks) in the forms of video or audio recordings which occur naturally in the occuring interaction. These talks could happen between family members, acquaintances, or on institutional contexts (law, medicine, schools, etc.)."*

Conversation analysis shows how action, structure, and intersubjectivity are practically achieved and managed in the dialogue. The three features itself always are shown in conversation analysis.

2.2.1 Action

According to Arnis Silvia (2012), action in conversation analysis are opening, closings of conversations, story telling, and complain. One of the most common example of opening conversation is telephone conversation. For example:

Child: Mommy? **summons**

Mum: Yes, dear. **answer**

Child: Can I have chocolate? **reason for summons**

The conversation above shows about the opening of simple conversation (in telephone). The features of the opening are summon, answer or greeting and the reason for summon. Furthermore, the second action in conversation analysis is closing of conversation. Meanwhile, closing conversation can be done by saying "ok", "bye", "see you later!", etc. For example:

A: Why don't we all have lunch?

B: Ok, so that would be in St. Jude's wouldn't it?

A: Yes

B: Ok so …

A: One o'clock in the bar

B: Ok, see you!

From the example, first lines is summon and identification. Then, (B) said “Ok, so...” is pre-closing conversation, the last lines “Ok, see you!” is closing. Furthermore, story telling is the interaction between the speaker (story teller) and audience. In conversation, story telling appears in video or audio. Then, complain is the interaction between two or more people and it discusses about some problems.

2.2.2 Structure

The structure of conversation analysis is stated by Schegloff (1986). In conversation analysis viewpoint, human action is thoroughly structured and organized. The organized and structured conversation is called sequences. The sequences in conversation are question-answer, greeting-greeting, and invitation-acceptance or declination.

2.2.3 Intersubjectivity

Intersubjectivity is the understanding of the interaction between the participants intentions, their state of knowledge, their relations, and their stance toward the talked-about object is created, maintained, and negotiated (Arnis Silvia, 2012). Arnis Silvia also mentions that *“The understanding context in conversation is shown by their ways in giving and receiving information and asking-answering questions.”.* The understanding is achieved when the participants conceive about the context of their conversation.