

SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE

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KATA PENGANTAR

Dengan mengucapkan puji syukur kehadirat Allah SWT, atas limpahan rahmat dan hidayahNya, maka Penulisan Buku dengan judul *Syntactic Structure* dapat diselesaikan dengan kerjasama tim penulis. *Syntactic Structure* merupakan buku ini berisikan bahasan mengenai *introduction to syntactic structure, basic concepts in syntactic linguistics, phrases and syntactic constituents, basic sentence structure, verb phrase and sentence structure, syntactic transformation, and syntactic ambiguity and disambiguation*.

Buku ini masih banyak kekurangan dalam penyusunannya. Oleh karena itu, kami sangat mengharapkan kritik dan saran demi perbaikan dan kesempurnaan buku ini selanjutnya. Kami mengucapkan terima kasih kepada berbagai pihak yang telah membantu dalam proses penyelesaian Buku ini. Semoga Buku ini dapat menjadi sumber referensi dan literatur yang mudah dipahami.

Padang, Oktober 2024
Penulis

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BAB 1

INTRODUCTION TO SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE

Oleh Melda Veby Ristella Munthe

Syntax is the collection of guidelines or precepts that control how words are combined to create phrases, or coherent word sequences. Almost every word in it has a meaning that can be understood without reference to linguistics. We know what a rule or principle is, for the most part. A regularity in what occurs is described by a rule or principle. For example, water vapor will condense if the temperature lowers abruptly. It is important to distinguish this concept of rule from that of a rule, which is a directive or a statement about what ought to occur, like in the case of "If the light is green, do not cross the street." Being linguists, is our main concern. The study of syntax focuses on the rules and methods used to build sentences in different languages. The purpose of a syntactic analysis of a particular language is to develop a grammar that may be thought of as a kind of production device for the sentences in the language being studied. In general, linguists need to be interested in the challenge of identifying the fundamental characteristics that underlie good grammars. A theory of linguistic structure that presents and studies the descriptive techniques used in individual grammars in an abstract manner without making any particular reference to specific languages should be the ultimate result of these investigations. This theory serves the purpose of

offering a general technique for choosing a grammar for every language given a corpus of sentences of this language.

Linguistic theory revolves around the concept of "linguistic level." Phonology, phonemics, and phrase structure are examples of linguistic levels. These are basically collections of descriptive tools that are used to build grammar. It is a specific approach to representing utterances. A linguistic theory's suitability can be assessed by carefully and rigorously creating the grammar form that corresponds to the set of levels it contains, and then looking into the possibility of creating straightforward and understandable grammars of this form for natural languages. In this way, we will examine several theories of language structure, taking into account a progression of linguistic levels of increasing complexity that correlate to ever-more-powerful grammatical description techniques. We will also try to make an effort to demonstrate that linguistic theory needs to include at least these levels in order to provide an adequate English grammar, among other things. Lastly, we will propose that there are some intriguing ramifications for semantic studies from this purely formal study of language structure.

The term "word" often denotes a type of linguistic unit. Although we have a general understanding of what a word is, it can be somewhat challenging to define it explicitly. Even whether the idea permits a precise definition is debatable. It might resemble the idea of a "French language." This imprecise concept has a core idea, but in trying to define it, we end up deciding arbitrarily what is French and what does not. Moreover, as we shall observe, we might not require any exact rendition of this concept at all. However, these common sense ideas offer a reasonable foundation for our topic. So let's get started. There are some arguments made supporting the conclusion that words are not the fundamental building blocks of sentences or the atomic units of syntax. Consequently, the atoms, or \{building blocks that syntax works with are smaller units, which we shall discuss in more detail later in this chapter. We'll also show that there are grounds for believing that the rules governing the combination of these units of language

structure are remarkably regular and resemble those governing the combination of larger units of language structure. We start by examining the characteristics of loosely defined words and follow the path. As was previously said, morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies word qualities, especially word structure. Here, we will focus on a select few types of morphological features that will prove to be significant in the context of syntax.

We shall briefly present these fundamental concepts:

1 Words are classified.

1 Morphemes are smaller units from which words can be formed.

1 Morpheme mixes in a predictable on orderly manner.

- a. We require concepts of head and selection in order to characterize the regularities.
- b. A particular type of locale is displayed by the regularities.

1 Morpheme has quiet morphemes.

The first significant insight regarding words is that they come in various forms. This is commonly presented as the fact that words are divided into categories such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions, adverbs, determiners, complementizers, and others. Some of these are recognized from traditional grammar (for example, nouns and verbs), whereas others are likely unfamiliar.

Open class categories: (In these areas, you are free to invent new words.)

Noun (N)	: window, shoes, idea, nature, regards
Verb (V)	: walk, drive, smile, let, like, speak, go, bring
Adjective (Adj)	: small, red, diligent, beautiful, valid, long
Adverb (Adv)	: seriously, calmly, 2 days ago, yesterday

Closed categories:

Preposition (Prep) : in, on, of, under, onto, by, up, down
Determiner (Det) : a, an, this, the, some, every
Numerals (Num) : four, twenty, thirty, eleven, fifteen
Complementizers (C): If, which, that, for
Auxiliaries (Aux) : have, be, is, are, has
Modals (M) : will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should
Coordinators (Coord) : nor, yet, and, or, but, so
Negation/ Affirmation (Neg/ Aff) : no, too

A refinement of each of these categories is required. Verbs, for instance, can be divided into numerous \{subcategories such as transitive and intransitive, which are further categorized in dictionaries. The majority of dictionaries do not list references for the other categories, even though they are necessary.

Adverbs, for instance, come in a variety of forms:

Manner adverbs : softly, loudly, greedily
Degree adverbs : very, extremely
Frequency adverbs : sometimes, often, rarely, always
Modal adverbs : possibly, probably

(Note that the affirmative too in That is too, which was previously mentioned, is not the same word as the degree adverb too in This is too spicy. In a same vein, the complementizer for in It would be incorrect for you to consume it and the preposition for in He cooked it for me are frequently separated.)

There are even important distinctions among the determiners:

Articles : a, the
Demonstratives : that, this, these, those
Quantifiers : some, every, each, no

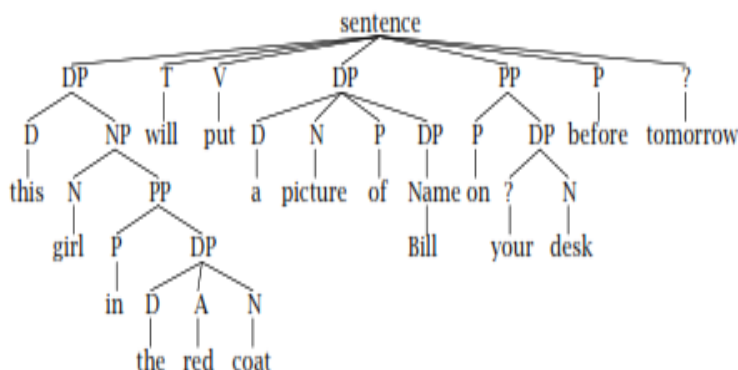
All of the aforementioned categories actually have significant subcategories.

The following basic questions are brought up by the categorization of words into groups:

- a. What are these categories, or more specifically, what is the underlying principle that distinguishes them from one another?
- b. How can we be certain that a word falls into a specific category?

The aforementioned groups are typically identified using semantic criteria, or standards related to the meaning of the words. It is sometimes claimed that an adjective is the name of a quality, a verb is the name of an action, and a noun is the name of a person, object, or place. These standards have some (possibly extremely complex) validity, and they can be helpful. Nonetheless, it is not always feasible or dependable to apply these standards in a straightforward manner. Verbs and adjectives can indicate states, nouns can name actions (e.g., Dendi's serial betrayal of his friends), and sometimes words have no clear meaning at all. While meaning should always be considered as a guide, there are many situations in which more trustworthy criteria are required. We shall start with the most basic concept possible: a category is a collection of phrases that all behave the same way in the language. Additionally, the distribution of words in the language—where they can exist and where they would generate absurdity or other forms of deviance—serves as the primary source of proof for statements regarding the behavior of a word.

We can now redraw our tree with more labels and more structure:



Grammar is transformational-generative is known as Syntactic Structures. It was published in 1957 by American linguist and philosopher Noam Chomsky. It is renowned for beginning. In the study of language and other areas of human cognition and behavior, it's known as the "cognitive revolution". Additionally, it fundamentally changed the way grammar was understood to be a mathematically precise set of recursive rules that describe the structure of an unlimited number of grammatical sentences in a particular language. Since the beginning of the cognitive revolution, science has shown that humans have a unique brain structure that allows for a wide range of higher-order mental functions, including language acquisition, mathematics, spatial perception, thinking, and memory. It has also shown that organisms have natural tendencies. A systematize sets of rules that generates without automatically. In addition to being "transformational," the approach outlined in Syntactic Structures takes into account the syntactic and semantic characteristics of phrases by altering a phrase's structure as it is formed. Three portions, or components, make up the transformational-generative grammar described in Syntactic Structures:

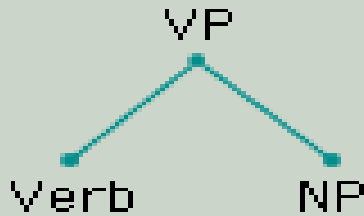
- a. Phrase-structure component;
- b. Transformational component; and
- c. Morphophonemic component.

Every one of these parts is made up of a collection of rules that each work with a certain "input" to produce a specific "output." It is possible to address phrase structure without considering how it fits into the overall system.

- a. S stands for Sentence,
- b. VP for Verb Phrase,
- c. NP for Noun Phrase,
- d. Det for Determiner,
- e. Aux for Auxiliary (verb),
- f. N for Noun,
- g. V for Verb and so on in the following rule system below.

- (1) S → NP + VP
- (2) VP → Verb + NP
- (3) NP → Det + N
- (4) Verb → Aux + V
- (5) Det → *the, a, ...*
- (6) N → *man, ball, ...*
- (7) Aux → *will, can, ...*
- (8) V → *hit, see, ...*

This grammar uses a basic phrase structure. It creates sentences like "The man will hit the ball," which it then defines as grammatically correct. It also gives each sentence it creates a structural description. What a phrase-structure grammar actually assigns to the sentence's structural description is a constituent-structure analysis, or an investigation of the hierarchical arrangement of the smallest forms of which it is composed (its ultimate constituents) into layers of progressively more inclusive units. Any sign that appears to the left of the arrow can be "rewritten" (that is, examined or defined) as the symbol or series of symbols that appear to the right of the arrow, in accordance with these guidelines. To illustrate, Rule (2) rewrites the three structures as the Figure 1.

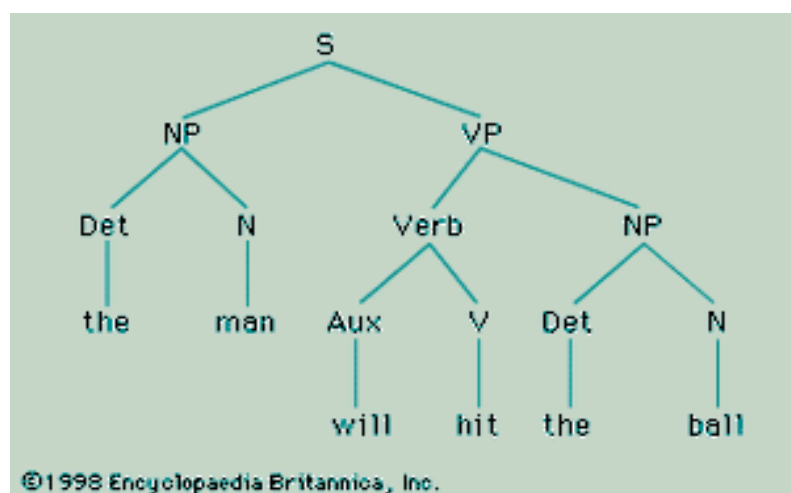


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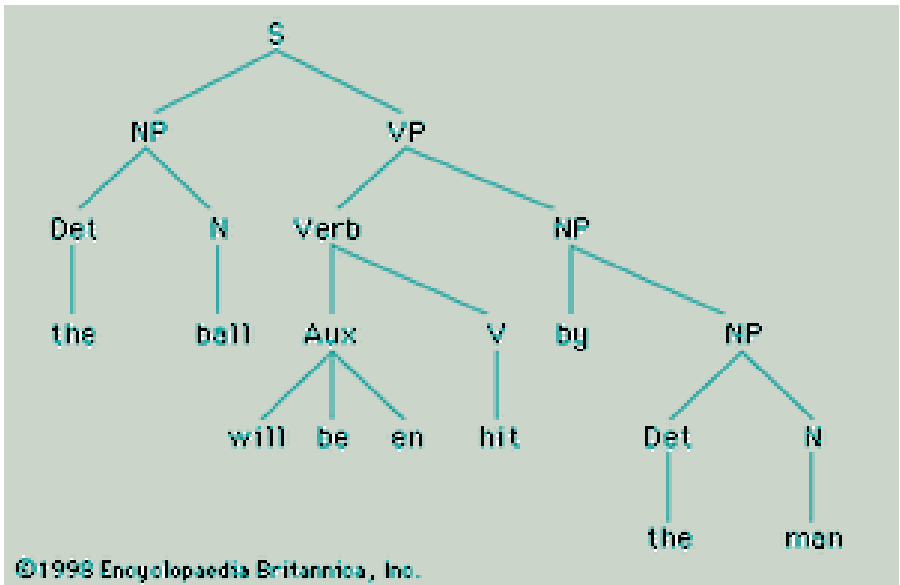
The rules (1) through (8) together form an integrated system and do not function alone. The first symbol is assigned as S, which stands for "sentence" mnemonically. It might be presumed that either this information is provided in a sort of protocol statement that comes before the grammatical rules or that there is a universal convention that states that S is always the initial symbol. This information is not provided in the rules (1)–(8). Starting with a rule with the first symbol on the left is essential. After that, any rule can be used in any order until no more rules are needed. By doing this, a derivation of one of the sentences the grammar produces can be created. The following sentence, "The man will hit the ball," will have been constructed if the rules are applied in the order in which they are numbered—(1), (2), (3), (3), (4), (5), (5), (6), (7), (8). This is assuming that "the" is selected on both applications of (5), "man" on one application of (6) and "ball" on the other, "will" on the application of (7), and "hit" on the application of (8).

- | | | |
|--------|---|-------------|
| (i) | S | |
| (ii) | NP + VP | by rule (1) |
| (iii) | NP + Verb + NP | by rule (2) |
| (iv) | Det + N + Verb + NP | by rule (3) |
| (v) | Det + N + Verb + Det + N | by rule (3) |
| (vi) | Det + N + Aux + V + Det + N | by rule (4) |
| (vii) | <i>the</i> + N + Aux + V + Det + N | by rule (5) |
| (viii) | <i>the</i> + N + Aux + V + <i>the</i> + N | by rule (5) |
| (ix) | <i>the</i> + <i>man</i> + Aux + V + <i>the</i> + N | by rule (6) |
| (x) | <i>the</i> + <i>man</i> + Aux + V + <i>the</i> + <i>ball</i> | by rule (6) |
| (xi) | <i>the</i> + <i>man</i> + <i>will</i> + V + <i>the</i> + <i>ball</i> | by rule (7) |
| (xii) | <i>the</i> + <i>man</i> + <i>will</i> + <i>hit</i> + <i>the</i> + <i>ball</i> | by rule (8) |

Depending on which rules are used first, this phrase can be derived in a variety of ways. The crucial thing to remember is that each of these several derivations is equal since they all lead to the same tree diagram, which is the one depicted in Figure 2. When this is contrasted with the rule system, it becomes clear that every time a rule is applied, a section (or subtree) of the tree is created or linked to. It is now possible to think of the tree diagram, or phrase marker, as a structural representation of the statement "The man hit the ball." It is a description given by the rules that create the sentence to the constituent structure, or phrase structure, of the sentence.

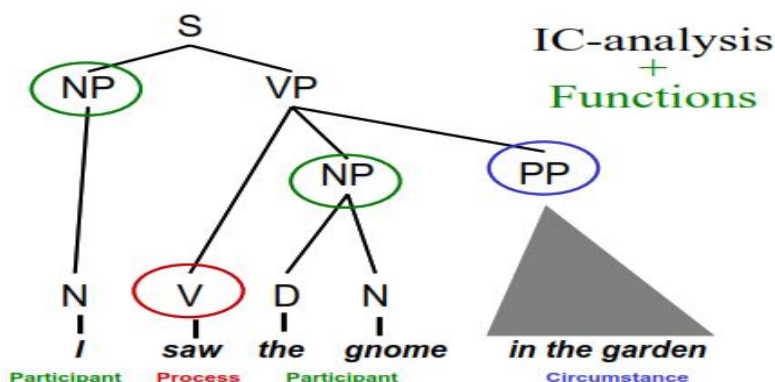


It is observed that a phrase-structure grammar is one that is made up solely of phrase-structure rules, whereas a transformational grammar (as described by Chomsky) contains phrase-structure and transformational rules (along with morphophonemic rules). The phrase-structure rules must be followed before applying the transformational rules, which have the effect of converting one phrase marker into another. This comment can firstly be understood in terms of a very elementary, strictly abstract transformational grammar, where the letters stand in for sentence components. Each transformational rule converts an underlying phrase marker into a derived phrase marker. One way that the transformational rules give their input strings derived constituent structure is. Here, it can be presumed that the remainder of the derived structure is as illustrated in Figure 4, in addition to the attachment of "be + en" to Aux and "by" to NP (as suggested by the plus signs in the rule as it has been expressed above). "The ball" is the subject of the passive statement "The ball will be hit by the man," whereas "the man" is the subject of the matching active sentence "The man will hit the ball" (see Figure 2). These and other facts are formalized by the phrase marker in Figure 4.



Though the example above is very basic, and only one transformational rule has been considered independently of other transformational rules in the same system, the passive transformation must work on noun phrases that contain adjectives ("the old man"), modifying phrases ("the man in the corner"), relative clauses ("the man who checked in last night"), and so on. For these extra structures to be integrated, or embedded, with the noun phrase, additional transformational rules must be applied beforehand. It should also be clear that the phrase-structure rules need to be expanded to account for the various verb tenses (like "is hitting," "hit," "was hitting," and "has hit"). It's also important to remember that even the simplest phrases, or what Syntactic Structures refer to as "kernel" sentences, require transformational rules of some kind. Technically speaking, matching active and passive sentences, affirmative and negative phrases, declarative and interrogative sentences, and so forth are related because they originate from the same terminal string of the phrase-structure component. Kernel sentences are distinct from non-kernels in Syntactic Structures because they are generated without the need for any

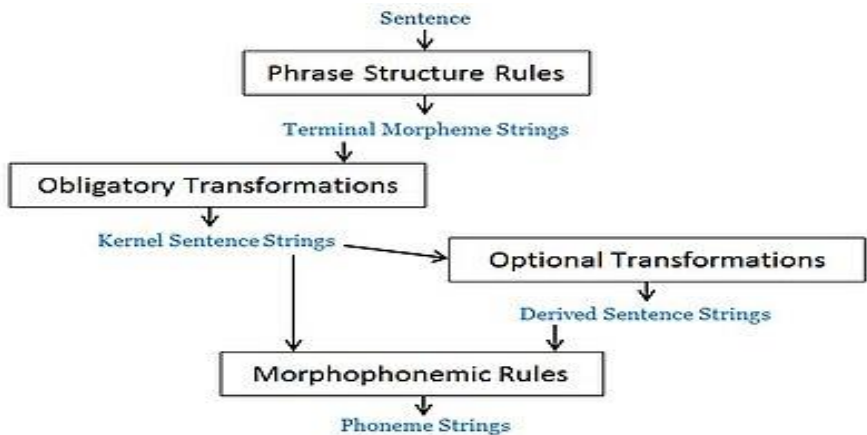
optional transformations; in a subsequent iteration of Chomsky's system, the category of kernel sentences is not formally acknowledged at all. Nonkernel sentences are distinguished from one another by requiring the application of a unique set of transformations, both required and optional.



1.1 Transformasional Grammar

Transformational grammar is a system of language analysis that uses processes or rules, some of which are called transformations, to express the connections between sentence components and between possible sentences in a language. For example, transformational grammar links the active sentence "John read the book" to its corresponding passive sentence, "The book was read by John." The claims "George saw Mary" are connected to the questions "Whom [or who] did George see?" and "Who saw Mary?" A transformational grammar aims to show that even while sets such as these active and passive sentences appear to differ greatly at first (i.e., in elements such as word order), they are actually very similar in their "underlying structure" (i.e., in their deeper relationships). There are three components to Chomsky's transformational grammar: morphophonemic rules, transformational rules, and phrase structure rules. Grammatical categories are expanded and substitutions are made using the rules of phrase structure. This result in a series of morphemes is a rule of transformation

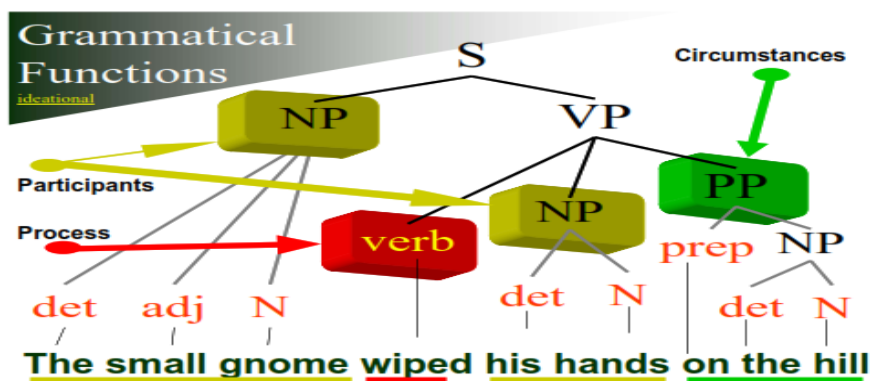
"operates on a given string with a given constituent structure and converts it into a new string with a new derived constituent structure. "It has the ability to move strings around and add or remove morphemes." There are two categories of transformational rules: required and voluntary. The "kernel of the language" is created by applying required transformations on the grammar's "terminal strings". Simple, declarative, affirmative, and active sentences make up kernel sentences. In order to generate complicated, passive, negative, or interrogative phrases, a certain sequence of one or more optional transformation rules must be followed.



Summary

Syntactic structure creates constituency. Linguistic behavior is determined by syntactic structure (tests and probes). Interpretation is guided by syntactic structure. The scaffolding provided by syntactic structure allows us to arrange the various interpretations we wish to give the phrases. Multiple interpretations are possible at the same

time.



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BAB 2

BASIC CONCEPTS IN SYNTACTIC LINGUISTICS

Oleh Andi Rachmawati Syarif

2.1 Introduction: What is Syntax?

Syntax, as studied in linguistics, examines how words and morphemes come together to create larger units like phrases and sentences. The term "arrangement" originates from the Greek word "syntaxis," which is the original context in which the phrase was employed.

Syntax is a field of linguistics that examines the organization and construction of sentences. Syntax is the set of rules that determine how linguistic elements, such as words, phrases, and clauses, are organized. It is the methodical organization of words into phrases and sentences based on precise grammatical principles. Syntax is the study of how words are organized and integrated in order to create sentences that are both meaningful and grammatically accurate. It specifically examines the relationships and functions of words within sentences. Comprehending how language communicates meaning and how various languages build sentences is crucial.

Having a strong grasp of syntax is crucial in comprehending constituency, which refers to the concept of multiple words functioning as a cohesive unit. Understanding the hierarchy within a sentence, especially when using sentence diagramming,

is crucial. This can be achieved by analyzing the constituency in long and complex sentences.

Every language has its own set of rules dictating word placement, and adept writers can manipulate these rules to create more evocative or lyrical sentences. The syntax is a part of the grammar of every language. When it comes to language, syntax can be quite complex, making it challenging to grasp. It demands the speaker's knowledge of sentences and their structure.

It is syntax with which we can expand sentences, creating a new sentence each time by adding words to the previous sentence in a certain fashion.

- *The cat chased the mouse.*
- *The cat chased the mouse that ate the cheese.*
- *The cat chased the mouse that ate the cheese that came from the cow.*

The arrangement of words and phrases in a specific order is an important aspect of English syntax. Simply rearranging a single word can alter the meaning of an entire sentence.

- *He has what his father had.*
- *His father has what he had.*

It is possible to have two sentences containing the same words but two different meanings. In this scenario, if we want to be more imaginative, we can think of syntax as an additional dimension that sits on top of these words and constructs a particular relationship between the words. This is accomplished through the use of syntax. Syntax enables us to have the same understanding of two different word orders using the same word order. It's interesting to observe how a simple word can completely alter the meaning of a sentence. Please remember that "only" can function as either an adjective or an adverb. Adjectives modify the nouns that follow them, while adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs that come after them.

- **Only** *Batman fights crime.*
- *Batman* **only** *fights crime.*
- *Batman fights* **only** *crime.*

The syntax also shows that although the sentences have the exact words we have arranged, somehow, they are not acceptable (in English); a sentence (*).

- *The judge swore in the new citizens.*
- *The judge swore the new citizens in.*
- *Swore judge the the citizens new in. (*)*

It does not mean that any random order of words is acceptable. There is also what is the realm of syntax. Thus, every sentence is a sequence of words, but every sequence of words is not a sentence.

Sequences that conform to the rules of syntax are referred to as 'well-formed,' 'grammatically acceptable,' or 'grammatical.' If they do not conform to those rules, they will be 'ill-formed,' 'grammatically unacceptable,' or 'ungrammatical.' Sometimes, a sentence may be grammatical but may not be meaningful. Why it is nonsensical will be explained as an error in the realm of semantics, but this sentence is grammatically well-formed. A famous example of this condition;

- *Colorless green ideas sleep furiously.*

The next part of this chapter provides a more comprehensive definition of syntax's basic or key concept.

2.2 Basic Rules of Syntax in English

Syntax, within the field of linguistics, refers to the collection of regulations that determine the organization of sentences in a given language. Specifically, English syntax governs the arrangement of words and phrases to form logical and meaningful sentences. Proficiency in these regulations is crucial for individuals aiming to enhance their writing skills or understanding of the English language.

a. Basic Sentence structure

The sentence is the fundamental unit of English syntax. A sentence, in its most basic form, must consist of a subject and a predicate. A subject refers to the individual, location, object, or concept that is actively engaged in carrying out an activity

or being portrayed. The predicate encompasses the verb and imparts information regarding the subject. As an example:

'The cat (S) sleeps' (P).

b. Compound Sentences

A compound sentence is formed by combining two or more separate clauses using a coordinating conjunction (such as *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*). Every clause must possess the ability to function independently as a self-contained sentence. As an example,

'The cat sleeps, and the dog barks'.

c. Complex Sentences

Complex sentences consist of an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. Dependent clauses are incapable of functioning as independent sentences. Subordinate clauses, introduced by subordinating conjunctions such as *although, because, since, unless, etc.*, offer more information concerning the main phrase. For example:

'The cat sleeps because it is tired.'

- **Independent clause:** *The cat sleeps*
- **Dependent clause:** *because it is tired*
- **Subordinating:** *because*

d. Compound-Complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence is a type of sentence that incorporates features of both compound and complicated sentences. It consists of a minimum of two autonomous clauses and one or more subordinate clauses. As an example:

'The cat sleeps because it is tired, and the dog barks at the mailman'.

- **Independent clause;** *'The cat sleeps'* and *'The dog barks at the mailman.'*

- **Dependent clause;** *'because it is tired'*

e. Word Order

Different languages have different fundamental word orders. The typical order of English syntax is Subject-Verb-Object (SVO), Subject-Object-Verb (SOV) in Japanese, and Verb-Subject-Object (VSO) in Arabic.

This *Basic Sentence Pattern*, in English syntax, implies that the subject is positioned before the verb and, subsequently, the object. This order serves to elucidate the roles and actions of each individual involved. For example;

'The chef (S) cooked (V) the meal (O).'

f. Tense, Aspect, and Mood

- **Tense** indicates the time of an action or event. It situates the action in the past (describes action that has already occurred), present (describes action occurring now or generally true), or future (describes actions that will occur).
- **Aspect** refers to the manner in which an action is carried out, namely whether it is continuing, completed, recurring, or habitual.
 - *Simple Aspect* (indicates a general fact or habitual action)
 - *Continuous Aspect* (indicates an ongoing action)
 - *Perfect Aspect* (indicates a completed action, often with relevance to the present)
 - *Perfect Continuous Aspect* (combine both ongoing and completed actions, often emphasizing the duration)
- **Mood** conveys the speaker's attitude towards the action or state. It can express certainty, command, wish, possibility, or necessity.
 - ***Indicative mood*** (states facts or asks questions).
'She walks to the store'
'Does she walk to the store?'
 - ***Imperative mood*** (gives commands or requests).
'Walk to the store!'
'Please walk to the store'

- **Subjunctive mood** (expresses wishes, hypothetical situations, or actions contrary to fact).
'I wish she walked to the store.'
'If she were walking to the store, she would see it.'
- **Conditional mood** (expressing conditions or hypothetical scenarios)
'She would walk to the store if she had time.'
'If it rains, she will walk to the store.'

g. Modifier and Their Placement

Modifiers, including adjectives and adverbs, provide additional detail to a sentence. Their placement is crucial to ensuring the sentence makes sense. Adjectives typically come before the nouns they modify, while adverbs can be more flexible but should be placed close to the word they modify to avoid confusion. For instance;

- Adjective Placement; '*The red ball.*'
- Adverb Placement: '*She quickly ran to the store.*'

h. Agreement in Number, Adjective and Tense

Ensuring that subjects and verbs align in number and tense is a fundamental aspect of English syntax. It is important to use the appropriate verb form based on whether the subject is singular or plural. In order to ensure clarity, it is important to maintain consistent tense within a sentence. As an illustration:

Subject Verb Agreement;

- Singular Agreement; '*The dog barks.*'
- Plural Agreement; '*The dogs bark.*'

Noun Adjective Agreement

In some languages, adjectives must agree with the nouns they describe in gender, number, and case.

Tense Consistency; ‘She **was** reading a book when the phone rang.’

i. Passive vs. Active Voice

English sentences can be constructed in either active or passive voice. Using the active voice is generally preferred because it adds clarity and directness to your writing. The order it follows is the standard SVO. In certain contexts, the object is placed first in passive voice, followed by the subject, often preceded by a form of "to be." This construction can be quite useful. As an example:

- **Active voice**; ‘The chef cooked the meal.’
- **Passive voice**; ‘The meal was cooked by the chef.’

j. Complex Modifiers and Clauses

Relative clauses and **non-essential clauses** enhance the richness and intricacy of sentences. Relative clauses, introduced by relative pronouns, offer supplementary details about a noun. Removing non-essential clauses does not alter the fundamental meaning of the sentence and is typically indicated by the use of commas. As an illustration:

- Relative clause; ‘The book that I borrowed is on the table.’ (relative pronoun)
- Non-Essential clause; ‘My brother, who is a doctor, lives in New York.’ (set off by commas)

k. Parallel Structure

Ensuring readability and coherence in sentences is important for maintaining a professional tone. Parallelism is a technique that utilizes a consistent pattern of words to emphasize equal significance. It is frequently utilized in lists or comparisons. As an example:

'She enjoys reading, writing, and jogging.'

I. Syntax in Complex Writing

Advanced syntax structures in academic and professional writing contribute to a higher level of sophistication and clarity in the text. Incorporating a range of sentence types, ensuring agreement and proper placement of modifiers, and utilizing parallel structures are all techniques that contribute to high-caliber writing. Having a strong grasp of these elements of English syntax is crucial for effective communication.

m. Common Syntax Errors to Avoid

Even experienced writers can sometimes make syntax errors that impact the clarity and readability of their writing. Here are some common mistakes:

- **Sentence fragments:** incomplete sentences that lack a subject or verb.

Example: *'Because I was tired.'*

Correction: *'I went to bed early because I was tired.'*

- **Run-on Sentences:** Two or more independent clauses joined without proper punctuation.

Example: *'The sun set we started the campfire'*

Correction: *'The sun set, and we started the campfire'*

- **Misplaced Modifiers:** Modifiers placed too far from the word they modify, causing confusion.

Example: *'She drove her kids to school almost every day.'*

Acquiring proficiency in the fundamental principles of English syntax is essential for anybody seeking to enhance their writing abilities. Gaining proficiency in sentence structure, word order, and the appropriate utilization of modifiers can greatly improve the lucidity and logical flow of your writing. To

effectively explain your ideas with precision and sophistication in complicated writing, it is important to avoid frequent syntax errors and utilize sophisticated structures.

If we desire to delve into the intricacies of the English language, numerous rules pertaining to syntax exist that you might meticulously examine. Nevertheless, these rules can be perplexing, and certain ones require proficient comprehension of the English language. Therefore, we will now enumerate simply the fundamental principles of syntax in English, which are sufficient for *building simple sentences accurately*.

1. Every phrase necessitates the presence of both a subject and a verb. Nevertheless, imperative sentences, which are commands, do not necessitate the inclusion of their subject as it is presumed to be the individual to whom the phrase is addressed.
2. A single sentence should encompass a solitary central concept. For sentences that include two or more ideas, it is advisable to divide them into different sentences.
3. The subject precedes the verb in sentence structure. Objects in a sentence are placed in the third position, following the verb.
4. Subordinate clauses, also known as dependent clauses, necessitate the presence of both a subject and a verb. Here, we provide further information on the utilization of subordinate clauses in sentence construction.
5. Adjectives and adverbs are placed before the words they modify. When numerous adjectives are used to describe a noun, it is important to follow the right order of adjectives, sometimes referred to as the "Royal Order."

2.3 The Key Concept of Syntax

Expanding on the definition and key concepts of syntax in language learning involves delving into more detailed aspects of sentence structure, the relationships between different syntactic elements, and the variations across languages. Here's a brief discussion of these concepts to be described:

1. **Origin and Meaning:** Syntax is derived from the Greek word "syntaxis," which can be translated as "arrangement" or "order." The word "syntax" dates back to the ancient Greek language. It is a term used in linguistics to describe the collection of rules, concepts, and processes that control the construction of sentences in a language.
2. **Sentence Formation:** Understanding syntax involves studying the rules that govern the formation of phrases, clauses, and sentences. This text explores the hierarchical structure of sentences, where smaller units, such as words, come together to create larger units, such as phrases and sentences.
 - **Phrases** are collections of words that act as a single unit within a sentence, but they do not have both a subject and a predicate. Illustrations encompass *noun phrases* (such as "the red ball"), *verb phrases* (like "is running"), and *prepositional phrases* (such as "in the park").
 - **Clauses** are collections of words with both a subject and a predicate. Clauses can be categorized as either *independent*, meaning they can function as standalone sentences, or *dependent*, meaning they cannot function independently.
3. **Grammatical Rules:** Understanding syntax is essential for mastering the rules of grammar and how words are structured. The rules for sentence structures can vary greatly across different languages, leading to significant differences between them.

4. **Word order:** Word order varies across different languages due to their unique syntactic rules. For example, English generally uses a Subject-Object-Verb (SVO) order.
5. **Constituent and Phrase:** Syntax examines the components of sentences, which are the fundamental elements that can be individual words or collections of words working together in the sentence. Example; “*The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog*”. There is a *noun phrase*, which is “*the quick brown fox*,” and a *prepositional phrase*, which is “*over the lazy dog*.”
6. **Transformations:** Syntax also delves into the various ways sentences can be altered, such as converting a statement into a question or constructing passive sentences from active ones.
 - **Questions:** Converting statements into questions involves changing word order and using auxiliary verbs; ‘*He is running*’ – ‘*Is he running?*’
 - **Negation:** Adding words like ‘not’ to make a sentence negative; ‘*She is happy*’ – ‘*She is not happy*.’
 - **Passive Voice.** Emphasizing the action over the subject by changing the sentence structure; “*The cat chased the mouse*” can be rephrased as “*the mouse was pursued by the cat*.”
7. **Syntax in Different Languages:** Linguistic syntax, which examines the arrangement and regulations of sentence construction, exhibits substantial variation among many languages. Gaining a comprehensive understanding of these distinctions is of utmost importance for the purposes of language acquisition, translation, and linguistic examination.
 - **Adjective Placement:** In English, adjectives usually precede nouns (e.g., ‘a big house’), whereas in Indonesia, they follow the nouns.
 - **Article Usage:** Some languages use definite and indefinite articles (the, a), while others do not or use them differently.

8. Syntax Trees and Hierarchical Structure: Syntax trees and hierarchical structures offer a methodical approach to evaluating and comprehending the structure of sentences. They emphasize the connections among many components of a phrase, facilitating the comprehension of intricate grammatical principles. These tools are extremely important for exploring the complexities of syntax, whether it is for educational purposes, linguistic research, or language learning.

- **Basics of syntax trees**

A syntax tree, sometimes referred to as a parse tree, is a graphical representation that depicts the syntactic structure of a sentence based on formal grammar. This demonstrates how words are organized into phrases and how these phrases are combined to create sentences. Syntax trees' components as;

- **Nodes:** Represent syntactic categories like nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.
- **Branches:** Connect nodes, showing the relationships between them.
- **Root Node:** The topmost node, representing the entire sentence.
- **Leaf Nodes:** The bottom nodes represent individual words or tokens.

- **Hierarchical structure**

Sentences possess a hierarchical arrangement in which smaller entities (words) amalgamate to create larger entities (phrases), which subsequently combine to make even larger entities (clauses and sentences).

- **Word level:** The basic building blocks of syntax
- **Phrase level:** Groups of words that function as a single unit
- **Clause level:** Combinations of phrases that contain a subject and predicate.
- **Sentence level:** Complete thought formed by one or more clauses.

9. **Syntax vs. Semantics:** When it comes to language, there are two important aspects to consider: syntax and semantics. Syntax refers to the structure of sentences, while semantics is all about the meaning of words and sentences. The relationship between syntax and semantics is significant, as the arrangement of words in a sentence can have an impact on its interpretation.
10. **Pragmatics and Syntax Interaction:** Pragmatics and syntax are essential components of linguistics that, when merged, provide a more profound comprehension of language utilization and organization. Syntax pertains to the regulations governing sentence construction, but pragmatics concerns the impact of context on the understanding of those phrases. Their interaction is essential for comprehending how meaning is formed and communicated in natural language. The correlation between pragmatics and syntax is crucial for comprehending the process of meaning formation in language. Syntax establishes the basic framework for sentences, but pragmatics enhances this framework by including context, enabling nuanced and contextually suitable interpretations. By examining both aspects, we thoroughly comprehend how language operates in the context of communication.
11. **Syntactic Ambiguity:** Syntactic ambiguity, or structural ambiguity, arises when a sentence can be understood in multiple ways because of its syntax or structure. This ambiguity occurs due to the phrase form permitting many readings, frequently resulting in divergent meanings. Comprehending syntactic ambiguity holds significance in the fields of linguistics, language acquisition, natural language processing, and everyday communication. The source of syntactic ambiguity comes;
 - **Attachment Ambiguity:** Occurs when it is unclear how a modifier or phrase should be attached to the sentence.

- **Coordination Ambiguity:** Occurs when it is unclear how words or phrases are grouped together in coordination.
- **Quantifier Ambiguity:** Occurs when the scope of a quantifier is unclear.
- **Ellipsis Ambiguity:** Occurs when elements are omitted, leading to multiple interpretations.

12. Universal Grammar: Universal Grammar (UG) is a linguistic theory established by Noam Chomsky, which posits that language acquisition is an inherent human skill and that all human languages have a shared underlying structure. According to this idea, the fundamental principles of grammar are innately programmed into the brain and serve as the basis for the construction of all languages.

13. Embedded Clause and Recursion: Embedded clauses and recursion are essential elements of syntactic structure that enhance the intricacy and adaptability of human language. They facilitate the development of complex sentences, enabling speakers to communicate precise and structured information. Comprehending these notions is vital for the fields of linguistics, cognitive science, language acquisition, and natural language processing. Although there may be differences between languages, the principles of embedding and recursion demonstrate the impressive abilities of human language and cognition.

- **Embedded Clause;**

An embedded clause, often referred to as a subordinate clause, is a clause that is encompassed within another clause. Embedded clauses serve the purpose of supplying extra information and can act as many components of a phrase, including subjects, objects, or complements.

- **Recursion;**

Recursion in syntax pertains to the capacity to incorporate structures within comparable structures. This attribute enables the construction of sentences that can be of unlimited length and complexity, facilitating the articulation of intricate concepts and hierarchical connections.

To summarize, syntax is a crucial component of linguistics that aids in comprehending sentence structure and the interplay between various elements within a sentence. It offers a solid foundation for constructing well-formed and meaningful sentences in any language.

2.4 The Significance of the Fundamental Notion of Syntax

Defining Syntax in Linguistic

Syntax, in the field of linguistics, refers to the collection of principles and procedures that govern the arrangement of words and phrases to form grammatically correct sentences in a particular language. Syntax refers to the set of rules and patterns that govern the combination of words to form meaningful phrases, clauses, and sentences. Comprehending syntax is essential for achieving proficiency in any language, including English, since it serves as the foundation for successful communication.

Improving Clarity and Precision

The importance of syntax lies in its ability to improve the clarity and precision of communication. Correct syntax ensures that sentences are organized in a manner that effectively communicates the intended message to the reader or listener. As an illustration, the statement "The dog bit the man" is evident

and unequivocal, whereas "The man bit the dog" communicates a totally different meaning as a result of the alteration in syntax.

Enhancing Communication Efficiency

Efficient communication is greatly dependent on the accurate utilization of syntax. By following the grammatical norms of a language, individuals who speak or write can communicate their thoughts with greater efficiency. Precise language use is crucial in professional and academic contexts. Improper use of syntax can result in confusion, misconstrual, and a lack of precision.

Supporting Language Learning

Proficiency in language acquisition requires the mastery of syntax, which is a crucial stage for learners. Acquiring the knowledge of constructing words appropriately empowers learners to articulate their thoughts with precision and comprehend others' ideas with more efficiency. Syntax is the structure that allows vocabulary to be employed in a way that creates logical sentences, making it a crucial component of language instruction.

Conveying Nuance and Complexity

Advanced syntax enables the articulation of intricate concepts and subtle distinctions in significance. By employing diverse syntactic patterns, such as compound and complicated sentences, writers and speakers are able to communicate complex ideas and provide elaborate descriptions. Proficiency in this skill is crucial in disciplines such as literature, journalism, and academic writing, where the capacity to express nuance and complexity is frequently necessary.

Developing captivating and diverse writing

An adept understanding of syntax enhances the quality of writing by making it more captivating and diverse. Writers can maintain reader attention by employing a variety of language

forms, so avoiding monotony. Diverse syntax aids in sustaining the reader's focus and can enhance the text's dynamism and liveliness. By blending concise and forceful words with longer and more descriptive ones, a rhythmic flow can be created that enriches the overall reading experience.

Improving Reading Comprehension

Comprehension of syntax enhances reading comprehension. Individuals who possess knowledge of syntactic norms can more readily analyze intricate phrases and comprehend the intended significance. This talent is especially advantageous when reading difficult publications, such as scholarly articles or technical manuals, where intricate sentence structure is prevalent.

Syntax in Different Contexts

Syntax holds significant value in diverse writing situations and genres. Precise grammar in technical writing guarantees that instructions and explanations are lucid and unequivocal. Syntax in creative writing can be used to produce specific effects, such as generating tension or highlighting certain elements. Proper syntax in everyday conversation prevents misunderstandings and guarantees precise message transmission.

Cultural and Linguistic Diversity

Syntax also contributes to the representation and conservation of cultural and linguistic variety. Each language possesses particular syntactic features that contribute to its uniqueness. Through the examination of syntax, linguists can get a deeper comprehension of the resemblances and distinctions among languages, thus contributing to the preservation of endangered languages and the advancement of multilingualism.

In conclusion, the core principle of syntax is essential to the organization and operation of every language. Improving clarity and precision is crucial for efficient communication and is a fundamental aspect of language acquisition. Syntax enables the

articulation of intricate concepts and subtleties, resulting in captivating and diverse literature. Enhancing reading comprehension is essential in diverse contexts, ranging from technical writing to artistic self-expression. Comprehending syntax is crucial in the digital era and enhances the recognition of cultural and linguistic variety. Acquiring mastery of syntax is an essential component of achieving proficiency in any language and is crucial for achieving clarity and effectiveness in communicating.

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BAB 3

PHRASES AND SYNTACTIC CONSTITUENTS

Oleh Ismail Tahir

3.1 Understanding Phrases

Phrases are groups of words that function as a single unit in a sentence. They can include a combination of words like nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

3.2 Types of phrases

Phrases can be categorized based on their syntactic function. Common types include noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), prepositional phrases (PP), and adjective phrases (AdjP).

3.2.1 Noun phrases (NP)

Noun phrases consist of a noun and other words that modify or complement it. They can include articles (the, a), adjectives (beautiful), and modifiers (such as phrases: "the big brown dog"). Noun phrases are also groups of words centered around a noun, which can include determiners, adjectives, and other modifiers.

Example: "The old wooden table"

Breakdown:

- Noun: "table"

- Determiner: "the"
- Adjectives: "old", "wooden"

This entire phrase functions as a single noun unit in a sentence.

A noun phrase (NP) is a fundamental syntactic structure in language, serving as the building block for naming or identifying entities within a sentence. It typically consists of a noun—a word that represents a person, place, thing, or idea—and any associated modifiers that provide additional information about the noun. Understanding noun phrases is crucial for grasping how language conveys meaning through naming and description.

Structure of Noun Phrases:

At its core, a noun phrase centers around a noun. This noun can be a single word ("dog", "book") or a more complex entity ("the big brown dog", "several ancient manuscripts"). The noun is often preceded by one or more determiners, which specify or quantify the noun ("a", "the", "my", "many"). Adjectives frequently follow the determiner, offering descriptive details about the noun ("big", "brown", "ancient").

Examples of Noun Phrases: Simple Noun Phrase: "The cat"

- **Components:**
 - Noun: "cat"
 - Determiner: "the"
- **Function:** Identifies a specific cat in context.

Complex Noun Phrase: "Several brightly colored balloons"

- **Components:**
 - Noun: "balloons"
 - Determiner: "several"
 - Adjectives: "brightly colored"
- **Function:** Describes multiple balloons and their appearance.

Functions of Noun Phrases:

Noun phrases fulfill various syntactic roles within sentences:

- **Subject:** "The students studied diligently."
- **Direct Object:** "She bought a new car."
- **Indirect Object:** "He gave the book to his friend."
- **Object of a Preposition:** "The cat on the roof"
- **Complement:** "She is a talented singer."

These roles demonstrate how noun phrases contribute to sentence structure and meaning. They allow us to specify, describe, or quantify entities, making our language more precise and expressive. Moreover, noun phrases can vary in complexity and length, accommodating additional modifiers or complements as needed to convey specific nuances of meaning.

Importance of Noun Phrases:

Understanding noun phrases is essential for constructing grammatically correct sentences and comprehending the relationships between different elements within a sentence. By analyzing noun phrases, linguists and language learners gain insights into how words function together syntactically and semantically. Moreover,

proficiency in manipulating noun phrases enhances one's ability to write clearly and effectively, as well as to interpret and understand written and spoken language accurately.

3.2.2 Verb Phrases (VP)

Verb phrases include a verb and its complements, objects, or modifiers. They can range from simple verbs ("run") to complex structures ("have been running"). Verb phrases also consist of a main verb and its complements, such as objects, adverbs, or other elements that modify the verb.

Example: "She has been studying all night."

Breakdown:

- Main verb: "studying"
- Auxiliary verb: "has been"
- Adverbial phrase: "all night"

Together, these components form a verb phrase that expresses an action over time.

A verb phrase (VP) is a crucial syntactic unit in language that revolves around a verb and its associated elements, providing information about actions, states, or occurrences within a sentence. Understanding verb phrases is essential for comprehending how actions are expressed and how sentences are structured in various contexts.

Structure of Verb Phrases:

At its core, a verb phrase consists of a main verb and any additional elements that modify or complement it. The main verb is the central component that conveys the action or state of being. Depending on the sentence structure and verb type, a verb phrase may also include auxiliary verbs

(helping verbs), complements, objects, adverbs, and other modifiers.

Components of Verb Phrases:

1. **Main Verb:** This is the primary action or state expressed in the sentence. Examples include "run", "sing", "study", "exist".
2. **Auxiliary Verbs:** Also known as helping verbs, these assist the main verb in forming different tenses, moods, or voices. Examples include "have", "be", "will", "can", "might", "must".
3. **Complements:** These are required elements that complete the meaning of the verb. They can be direct objects, indirect objects, or predicate nominatives/predicate adjectives.
4. **Modifiers:** Adverbs and adverbial phrases that provide additional information about the action or state expressed by the verb. They indicate how, when, where, or to what extent the action occurs.

Examples of Verb Phrases:

1. **Simple Verb Phrase:** "She sings."
 - **Components:**
 - Main Verb: "sings"
 - **Function:** Expresses the action performed by the subject "she".
2. **Complex Verb Phrase:** "They have been working hard on their project."
 - **Components:**
 - Auxiliary Verbs: "have been"
 - Main Verb: "working"
 - Adverbial Phrase: "hard on their project"
 - **Function:** Indicates ongoing action (present perfect progressive tense) and emphasizes the effort put into the project.

Functions of Verb Phrases: Verb phrases play various syntactic roles within sentences, reflecting the relationships between subjects, actions, and objects:

- **Predicate:** Describes the action or state of being performed by the subject.
- **Transitivity:** Determines whether the verb requires an object (transitive) or does not (intransitive).
- **Voice:** Indicates whether the subject performs the action (active voice) or receives it (passive voice).
- **Aspect:** Specifies the temporal structure of the action (simple, progressive, perfect).

Importance of Verb Phrases: Understanding verb phrases is crucial for constructing grammatically correct sentences and conveying precise meanings. They allow speakers and writers to express various actions, states, or conditions effectively, influencing the tone, emphasis, and clarity of communication. Moreover, proficiency in manipulating verb phrases enhances one's ability to analyze and interpret sentences in both written and spoken language.

3.2.3 Prepositional Phrases (PP)

Prepositional phrases start with a preposition and include an object (noun, pronoun, gerund, or clause). Examples include "in the house" or "before the storm arrived." Moreover, prepositional phrases begin with a preposition and typically include a noun or pronoun object, and can also include modifiers or complements.

Example: "He walked to the park."

Breakdown:

- Preposition: "to"

- Object of the preposition: "the park"

This prepositional phrase indicates the direction or location of the action "walked".

Prepositional phrases (PP) are versatile syntactic constructs in language that provide additional information about location, direction, time, manner, or possession within a sentence. Understanding prepositional phrases is crucial for comprehending how relationships between different elements are established and expressed in language.

Structure of Prepositional Phrases:

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition, its object, and any modifiers associated with the object. The preposition introduces the phrase and establishes its relationship with other parts of the sentence, while the object is typically a noun, pronoun, gerund, or clause that completes the meaning of the preposition.

Components of Prepositional Phrases:

1. **Preposition:** A word that typically indicates location, direction, time, or other relationships between elements in the sentence. Common prepositions include "in", "on", "at", "by", "with", "under", "over", "between", "among", "through", "during", etc.
2. **Object of the Preposition:** This is the noun, pronoun, gerund, or clause that follows the preposition and completes the meaning of the prepositional phrase. It often answers questions like "where?", "when?", "how?", or "with whom/what?".
3. **Modifiers:** Adjectives or adverbs that provide additional information about the object of the preposition. They can further specify or describe the location, time, manner, etc., conveyed by the prepositional phrase.

Examples of Prepositional Phrases:

1. **Location:** "The book is on the table."
 - **Prepositional Phrase:** "on the table"
 - **Components:**
 - Preposition: "on"
 - Object of the Preposition: "table"
 - **Function:** Indicates where the book is located.
2. **Time:** "She will meet him after the concert."
 - **Prepositional Phrase:** "after the concert"
 - **Components:**
 - Preposition: "after"
 - Object of the Preposition: "the concert"
 - **Function:** Specifies when the meeting will take place.
3. **Manner:** "He ran with great speed."
 - **Prepositional Phrase:** "with great speed"
 - **Components:**
 - Preposition: "with"
 - Object of the Preposition: "great speed"
 - **Function:** Describes how he ran.

Functions of Prepositional Phrases: Prepositional phrases perform several syntactic functions within sentences:

- **Adverbial:** Modifies a verb, indicating when, where, how, or to what extent an action occurs.
- **Adjectival:** Modifies a noun, providing additional descriptive details about it.
- **Nominal:** Functions as a noun within the sentence, serving as the subject, object, or complement.

Importance of Prepositional Phrases:

Understanding prepositional phrases is essential for constructing grammatically correct sentences and conveying precise meanings. They add depth and specificity to language by specifying relationships and providing contextual information. Proficiency in identifying and using prepositional phrases enhances one's ability to write clearly, expressively, and effectively, as well as to interpret and comprehend written and spoken language accurately.

3.2.4 Adjectives Phrases (AdjP)

Adjective phrases consist of an adjective and any modifiers or complements. Examples include "very tall" or "extremely interesting."

Example: "Extremely tall and graceful"

Breakdown:

- Adjectives: "extremely", "tall", "graceful"

This phrase describes the characteristics of something or someone using multiple adjectives.

Adjective phrases (AdjP) are syntactic structures in language that serve to modify or describe nouns and pronouns more vividly and specifically. They play a crucial role in providing additional information about the qualities, characteristics, or attributes of the nouns they accompany. Understanding adjective phrases is essential for enhancing the descriptive power of language and conveying nuanced meanings.

Structure of Adjective Phrases:

Adjective phrases typically consist of an adjective as the head word and any associated modifiers or complements that further describe or qualify the noun.

These modifiers can include adverbs, prepositional phrases, or other adjectives that intensify or specify the qualities expressed by the main adjective.

Components of Adjective Phrases:

1. **Adjective:** The core element of the adjective phrase, which expresses a quality or attribute about the noun it modifies. Examples include "beautiful", "intelligent", "tall", "fascinating".
2. **Modifiers:** These are words or phrases that accompany the main adjective to provide additional information, such as degree (very, extremely), manner (quite, rather), or location (in the garden, on the hill).

Examples of Adjective Phrases:

1. **Simple Adjective Phrase:** "The house is very old."
 - **Adjective Phrase:** "very old"
 - **Components:**
 - Adjective: "old"
 - Modifier: "very"
 - **Function:** Describes the age of the house with emphasis.
2. **Complex Adjective Phrase:** "She found a beautifully decorated Christmas tree."
 - **Adjective Phrase:** "beautifully decorated"
 - **Components:**
 - Adjective: "beautifully"
 - Modifier: "decorated"
 - **Function:** Describes the appearance of the Christmas tree in detail.

Functions of Adjective Phrases: Adjective phrases serve several important functions within sentences:

- **Attributive:** Modify nouns directly, specifying or enhancing their qualities. For example, "a delicious meal", "an expensive watch".
- **Predicative:** Follow linking verbs (e.g., "be", "seem") to describe or identify the subject. For example, "She seems tired", "The sky is blue".
- **Postpositive:** Follow the noun they modify, often in formal or literary contexts. For example, "The boy, brave and determined, led the rescue mission."

Importance of Adjective Phrases:

Mastering adjective phrases is crucial for effective communication and expressive writing. They allow speakers and writers to convey precise details and create vivid imagery, making language more engaging and descriptive. Proficiency in using adjective phrases enhances one's ability to paint a clearer picture, evoke emotions, and provide nuanced descriptions in both creative writing and technical communication.

3.2.5 Adverb Phrases (AdvP):

Adverb phrases consist of an adverb and any additional words that modify or complement it.

Example: "Very quickly and quietly"

Breakdown:

- Adverbs: "very", "quickly", "quietly"

This phrase describes how an action is performed, indicating the manner in which something happens.

Adverb phrases (AdvP) are essential components of language that provide additional information about actions, events, or states described in a sentence. They modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, enhancing the meaning by indicating how, when, where, or to what extent something happens. Understanding adverb phrases is crucial for grasping nuances in language and effectively conveying specific details.

Structure of Adverb Phrases:

Adverb phrases typically consist of an adverb as the head word, along with any modifiers or complements that further specify or intensify its meaning. These modifiers can include other adverbs, prepositional phrases, or clauses that provide additional context.

Components of Adverb Phrases:

1. **Adverb:** The core element of the adverb phrase, which modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs by indicating manner (quickly, slowly), time (yesterday, now), place (here, there), degree (very, extremely), or frequency (often, rarely).
2. **Modifiers:** Words or phrases that accompany the main adverb to add further detail or emphasis. These can include intensifiers (very, quite), adverbial phrases (in a hurry, at home), or clauses (although he was tired, he continued).

Examples of Adverb Phrases:

1. **Manner:** "She sang beautifully during the concert."
 - **Adverb Phrase:** "beautifully during the concert"
 - **Components:**
 - Adverb: "beautifully"
 - Adverbial Phrase: "during the concert"
 - **Function:** Describes how she sang and specifies the time frame.

2. **Time:** "He arrived here yesterday afternoon."
- **Adverb Phrase:** "yesterday afternoon"
 - **Components:**
 - Adverb: "yesterday"
 - Modifier: "afternoon"
 - **Function:** Specifies when he arrived with more precision.

Functions of Adverb Phrases: Adverb phrases serve several important functions within sentences:

- **Modify Verbs:** Describe how an action is performed. For example, "She danced gracefully."
- **Modify Adjectives:** Describe the degree or intensity of a quality. For example, "The exam was quite difficult."
- **Modify Other Adverbs:** Provide additional detail or specify the manner or degree of another adverb. For example, "He ran very quickly."

Importance of Adverb Phrases:

Mastering adverb phrases enhances one's ability to communicate clearly and effectively. They allow speakers and writers to provide specific details about actions, events, or conditions, thereby conveying precise meanings and nuances. Proficiency in using adverb phrases also contributes to creating coherent and well-structured sentences, improving the overall clarity and impact of written and spoken language.

3.3 Syntactic Constituents

Syntactic constituents are structural units within sentences that can be replaced by a single word or phrase without affecting grammatical structure. For instance, "the big brown dog" can be replaced with "it." Moreover, syntactic constituents are fundamental units of sentence structure in linguistics, forming the building blocks of sentences through hierarchical relationships. These constituents are groups of words that function together as a single unit within a sentence, typically

serving a specific grammatical role. Understanding syntactic constituents is crucial in syntactic analysis, parsing sentences, and comprehending how words combine to convey meaning.

Characteristics and Examples:

- **Constituency Tests:** Linguists use several tests to identify syntactic constituents:
 - **Substitution Test:** Replace a constituent with a pronoun.
 - Example: "I saw the [man with the hat]." (Substituting: "I saw [him].")
 - **Movement Test:** Move a group of words within a sentence to determine if it remains grammatical.
 - Example: "The [book on the table] is interesting." (Moving: "The [book] on the table is interesting.")
- **Hierarchical Structure:** Syntactic constituents are organized hierarchically, with larger constituents composed of smaller ones. This structure is vital for understanding sentence meaning and syntax. For instance:
 - Sentence: "The cat chased the mouse."
 - Hierarchical breakdown:
 - [The cat] [chased] [the mouse]
 - [NP] [VP] [NP]
- **Syntactic Ambiguity:** Constituents can sometimes lead to ambiguity when their grouping or interpretation changes:
 - Example: "I saw the man with the telescope."
 - Ambiguity arises whether the telescope belongs to the man or the speaker.

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BAB 4

BASIC SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Oleh Mutiara Sofa

In English, a sentence must have a subject and a verb. The verb may be followed by an object, a complement and adverbial. The subject tells us the topic of the sentence. The object tells us the person or thing affected by the verb. Subject and object can be nouns, noun phrase, pronouns or *-ing* forms (Powell, Walker and Elsworth, 2000).

Subject	Verb	Object
My brother John	has bought	a beautiful sports car.
He	loves	showing off his new car.

Intransitive verb don't have an object. They can be followed by adverbial.

Subject	Verb	Object
An accident	happened.	-
The cows	run.	-

Transitive verb have an object (+adverbial).

Subject	Verb	Object	Adverbial
John	bought	the car	last week.
Mary	saw	him	yesterday.

Some transitive verb have two object. Two patterns are possible:

Subject	Verb	Direct object +to/for indirect object Indirect object + direct object
Marian's mother	baked	a cake for her daughter. / her daughter a cake.
She	posted	the cake for her daughter. / her daughter the cake.

Some transitive verb have a complement after the object. This tells us more about the object and can be adjective, noun phrase, or prepositional phrase.

Subject	Verb	Object	Object Complement
I	find	the room	cold.
Harriet and Ivan	called	their baby	Quentin.
They	took	the bags	to the car.

Linking verbs like “*be, become, feel, get, look, seem* and *smell*” are followed by a complement, not an object.

Subject	Verb	Complement
The meal	smells	really delicious.
Your coat	is	in the wardrobe.

Adverbials can come before the subject or verb, or after the verb, object or complement:

Example:

- *Unfortunately, we soon realised how difficult to work would be.*
- *She post the letter yesterday.*
We can use conjunction to join sentences.
- *He missed supper and he's starving.*

4.1 Simple Sentence

Simple sentence is contains one full subject and a verb, and it may also have an object and modifiers. However, it contains only one independent clause (Frank, 1972b).

Here's the form of simple sentence:

- Subject + verb
The rice is burning.
s v
- Subject + verb + complement
She is a lawyer.
s v comp
she is intelligent.
s v comp
- Subject + verb + direct object
I have read this book.
s v d.o
- Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object
My boyfriend wrote me a lovely letter.
s v i.o d.o
- Subject + verb + object + complement
They made him a star.
s v o comp
They made him very famous. (Walker and Elsworth, 2000)
s v o comp

Simple sentences takes the form of:

1. **A statement**

In a declarative sentence (*statements*) the subject and predicate have normal word order. The sentence ends with a period in writting and a drop in pitch in speech (Frank, 1972a).

Example:

- *He lives in New York.*
- *The cat sleeps on the couch.*
- *She reads a book every night.*
- *They walk to school together.*

- *The sun rises in the east.*
- *We go to the airport.*

2. **A question**

In an interrogative sentence (a question) the subject and auxiliary are often reversed. The sentences ends with a question mark (or interrogation point) in writting.

Example:

- *How old are you?*
- *Where do you live?*
- *What are you doing now?*
- *When do you go to the hospital?*
- *Why are you late?*

3. **A request**

In an imperative sentence, only the predicate is expressed. The simple form of the verb is used, regardless of person or tense (Frank, 1972a).

Example:

- *Open the door, please.*
- *Can you lend me a pen.*
- *Please turn off the lights.*
- *Can you help me carry this box.*
- *Please send me the document.*

The simple form of the verb is used for request, commands, or instructions.

1) Second person, singular and plural:

Open the door.

Don't open the door.

Don't do your homework when you're tired.

Please open the window.

Can you help me with my homework?

2) First and second person together:

Let's open the door.

Let's not open the door.

Let's take a break soon

(Here the request takes the form of suggestion)

- 3) An adverb may precede the imperative verb:

***Always** open that door slowly.*

*Don't **ever** open the door.*

Cook the meat very slowly.

Formulas of politeness such as please, will (or would) you please often accompany request (Frank, 1972b).

Another example request, command, and instructions:

1) Requests

"Request" is both a noun and a verb used to make a polite demand or ask someone for something. When used as a verb, "request" means to ask for something politely. As a noun, "request" refers to the act of asking for something politely or the thing being asked for.

Example:

Please open the window.

Can you help me with my homework?

Would you mind turning off the light?

Pass me the remote, please.

Can you call me later?

Would you please close the door?

Could you hand me that book?

Please tell me the time.

2) Command

"Command" is a noun that refers to an order or instruction given to someone to do something. Typically, this command is delivered firmly and directly, with the aim of requesting someone to do something without any choice or discussion.

Example:

Sit down!

Listen carefully!

stop talking!

Stand up!

Be quiet.

Come here!

Turn off the TV!

Write your name on the paper!

3) Instructions

“Instruction” is a noun that refers to guidance or direction given to someone to perform a particular task or action. These instructions can be step-by-step guides or information provided to assist someone in completing a task or achieving a specific goal.

Example:

Turn right at the next corner.

Add two cups of sugar to the mixture.

Press the button to start the machine.

Mix the ingredients thoroughly.

Insert the card into the slot.

Boil the water for ten minutes.

Click on the link to download the file.

Fold the paper in half.

4. An exclamation

In writing, the exclamatory sentence ends with an exclamation mark (or, exclamation point). Exclamations may begin with **what** or **how**.

What - a noun ends the exclamatory phrase.

- **What** a delicious pineapple this is!
- **What** a fantastic performance!
- **What** a terrible temper she has!
- **What** a pleasant personality she has!
- **What** expensive books these are!

How - an adjective or adverb ends the exclamatory phrase.

- **How** graceful she is!
- **How** gracefully she dance!
- **How** boring this lecture is!

- *How awkwardly he walks!*
- *How beautiful this palace is!*
- *How amazing your performance was!*

4.2 Compound Sentence

Compound sentence is contains two or more sentence. Sentences or clauses may be joined coordinately by punctuation alone, by coordinate conjunctions, or by conjunctive adverbs.

1. *Punctuation alone*

Example:

- *The weather was very bad; all classes were canceled.*
- *John was sick; he didn't come to school.*
- *I wanted to go for a walk; it started to rain.*
- *She loves to read books; he enjoys watching movies.*
- *We can go to the beach; we can visit the museum.*
- *He missed the bus; he decided to walk to work.*
- *The sun was setting; the children continued to play outside.*

(The sentences above contains independent clauses joined merely by punctuation).

Independent Clauses Joined by Punctuation Alone	
Two clauses joined	1. I wanted to go for a walk; it started to rain. 2. She loves to read books; he enjoys watching movies. 3. They planned a picnic; they forgot to bring the food.
Three clauses joined	1. I came, I saw, I conquered. 2. I wanted to go for a walk; it started to rain; I decided to stay home. 3. She loves to read books; he enjoys watching movies; they

Independent Clauses Joined by Punctuation Alone

both like listening to music.

2. Punctuation and a conjunctive adverb

Conjunctive Adverbs

Additions	<i>Moreover, in addition, besides</i> 1. She finished her homework on time; moreover, she helped her brother with his assignments. 2. He is a talented musician; in addition, he excels in sports. 3. We can visit the museum; besides, there is a nice cafe nearby.
Condition	<i>Otherwise</i> 1. You should finish your project on time; otherwise, you will not get a good grade.
Concession	<i>However, still, nevertheless</i> 1. She worked very hard on the project; however, she didn't meet the deadline. 2. The weather was bad; still, they decided to go hiking. 3. He was tired; nevertheless, he continued to work late into the night.
Result	<i>Therefore, consequently, accordingly</i> 1. He studied diligently for the exam; therefore, he achieved excellent results. 2. The road was closed due to an accident; consequently, we had to take a detour.

Conjunctive Adverbs	
	3. She missed the last bus; accordingly , she had to walk home.

Example:

- *The weather was very bad; **therefore**, all classes were canceled.*
- *John was sick; **therefore**, he didn't come to school.*
- *I have finished my assignment; **however**, I am not ready for the presentation tomorrow.*
- *He was very tired after working all day; **therefore** he decided to go to bed early.*
- *They wanted to go on vacation to the beach; **unfortunately** the weather was not favorable.*
- *Our team worked very hard on this project; **as** a result we won the first prize.*
- *I have prepared everything well; **consequently** the event went smoothly without any issues.*

(The sentences above contains independent clauses joined by a conjunctive adverb).

3. A coordinate conjunction (**and, or, but, yet, so, for**)

Example:

- *The weather was very bad, **so** all classes were canceled.*
- *John was sick, **so** he didn't come to school.*
- *I wanted to go for a walk, **but** it started raining.*
- *She studied hard for the exam, **and** she passed with flying colors.*
- *You can take the bus, **or** you can ride your bike to school.*
- *He is very talented, **yet** he remains humble.*
- *We were running late, **so** we took a taxi to save time.*

Another example:

- *Mr. Smith is an intelligent and stimulating teacher, **and** he takes an interest in the personal well being of all his student.*

- *We must eat the proper food, **or** we'll get sick.*
- *There are many people who like to buy on the installment plan, **but** I prefer to buy for cash.*
- *There is no demand in the United States **for** the type of car you sell, **so** I cannot give you an order for this car.*

(The sentences above contains independent clauses joined by a coordinate conjunction such as: *and, or, but, yet, so, for*)

Independent Clauses Joined by Coordinate Conjunction	
Positive negative contrast Concession	1. His wife likes the mountains, but he doesn't. 2. He was aware of the danger of the mission, but he insisted on undertaking it.
<u>After Positive statement:</u> After an imperative verb After modal auxiliary	1. Get off this property or (else) I'll call the police. 2. You must (or should) do your homework or you'll fail the course.
<u>After negative statement:</u> After an imperative verb After a modal auxiliary	1. Don't take too long in dressing or you'll be late for the theatre. 2. I can't stay longer or I'll miss my bus.

Note:

That semicolon replaces the period of the first sentence except when a coordinate conjunction joins the clauses. If both clauses are short, th comma may be omitted before and. If one or both clause are long, the conjunctive adverb may actually start a new sentence.

4.3 Complex Sentence

Complex sentence is contains one or more dependent (or subordinate) clauses. A dependent clauses contains a full subject and predicate beginning with a word that attached the clause to an independent clause (called the main clause).

There are three types of dependent clauses, named according to their function in the sentence:

Adverbial clause	1. The concert was canceled because the soloist became ill.
Adjective clause	1. The student who gets the highest grades will receive an award.
Noun clause	1. I don't know whether they still live there.

1. *Adverbial clause*

Example:

- *All classes were canceled **because** the weather was bad.*
- *We decided to go for a hike **although** it was raining.*
- *She didn't pass the test **because** she didn't study enough.*
- *She has made many new friends **since** she moved to the new city,*
- *You need to work hard and stay focused **If** you want to succeed.*

2. *Adjective clause*

Example:

- *Children **who** are under twelve years must be accompanied by their parents.*
- *His flight had already departed **when** he arrived at the airport.*
- *The book **that** she borrowed from the library is fascinating.*
- *The teacher **who** has over twenty years of experience, won an award for her dedication.*

- The house **where** I grew up has been renovated.

3. Noun clause

Example:

- I can't understand **why** you did such a thing.
- She didn't realize **that** the meeting had been rescheduled.
- **What** he said during the interview impressed the hiring committee.
- The fact **that** she won the competition surprised everyone.
- He couldn't understand **why** they had left so suddenly.

4.4 Compound Complex Sentence

Compound Complex sentence is contains two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses

Example:

1. *All classes were canceled **because** the weather was bad, **and** students were told to listen to the radio to find out **when** classes would begin again.*
 - Independent Clauses: "All classes were canceled;" "Students were told to listen to the radio"
 - Dependent Clause: "because the weather was bad;" "when classes would begin again".
2. *Although it was raining, we decided to go hiking, and we had a great time.*
 - Independent Clauses: "we decided to go hiking;" "we had a great time".
 - Dependent Clause: "although it was raining".
3. *She finished her project early, so she went to the movies, but she forgot to bring her phone.*
 - Independent Clauses: "She finished her project early;" "she went to the movies;" "she forgot to bring her phone".
 - Dependent Clause: (None in this sentence).

4. *Whenever he travels for work, he always brings a camera, and he takes photos of the places he visits.*
 - Independent Clauses: "he always brings a camera;" "he takes photos of the places he visits".
 - Dependent Clause: "Whenever he travels for work"
5. *Because she loves to read, Sarah bought several new books, and she started reading one immediately.*
 - Independent Clauses: "Sarah bought several new books;" "she started reading one immediately".
 - Dependent Clause: "Because she loves to read".
6. *Although he studied hard for the exam, he didn't get a good grade because he was feeling unwell, but he plans to retake it next semester.*
 - Independent clauses: "he didn't get a good grade" and "he plans to retake it next semester."
 - Dependent clause: "Although he studied hard for the exam" and "because he was feeling unwell,"
7. *While Mary was cooking dinner, John was setting the table, and the kids were doing their homework, but the phone rang, and they all rushed to answer it.*
 - Independent clauses: "the phone rang" and "they all rushed to answer it."
 - Dependent clause: "While Mary was cooking dinner," "John was setting the table," "the kids were doing their homework," and "but the phone rang"
8. *Since it was raining heavily, we decided to stay indoors, but the power went out, so we lit some candles and played board games until it stopped raining.*
 - Independent clauses: "we decided to stay indoors," "the power went out," and "we lit some candles and played board games until it stopped raining."
 - Dependent clause: "Since it was raining heavily," "but the power went out," and "so"

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BAB 5

VERB PHRASE AND SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Oleh Yuliyannah Sain

5.1 Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is a combination of the main verb and its auxiliaries (helping verbs), and it may also include modifiers, complements, or objects. The main verb is the core component, while the auxiliary verbs help to form different tenses, aspects, moods, and voices (Radford, 2024).

Components of a Verb Phrase

A verb phrase can be composed of several elements, each playing a specific role in conveying the action, state, or occurrence described by the verb. Here are the main components:

1. **Main Verb**
2. **Auxiliary (Helping) Verbs**
3. **Modifiers**
4. **Complements**
5. **Negation**

5.1.1 Main Verb

The main verb is the central element of the verb phrase, indicating the primary action or state of being. It can be in different forms depending on the tense, aspect, and voice.

- **Examples:**
 - **run**
 - **eat**
 - **be**

5.1.2 Auxiliary (Helping) Verbs

Auxiliary verbs, also known as helping verbs, accompany the main verb to form different tenses, aspects, moods, and voices. The most common auxiliary verbs are "be," "have," and "do." Modal verbs like "can," "will," "shall," "must," etc., also function as auxiliaries.

- **Forms of "be":**
 - am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been
- **Forms of "have":**
 - have, has, had
- **Forms of "do":**
 - do, does, did
- **Examples:**
 - **is** running
 - **has** eaten
 - **will** go

5.1.3 Modifiers

Modifiers are words or phrases that provide additional information about the verb, often describing how, when, where, or to what extent the action occurs. Adverbs are the most common type of modifier for verbs.

- **Examples:**
 - quickly
 - yesterday
 - in the park

5.1.5 Complements

Complements are words or phrases that complete the meaning of the verb. They can be objects, subject complements, or adverbial complements.

- **Object Complements:** Complete the meaning of the verb by providing information about the object.
 - **Examples:**
 - She called him **a genius**.
 - They elected her **president**.
- **Subject Complements:** Follow linking verbs and provide information about the subject.
 - **Examples:**
 - She is **a teacher**.
 - The sky looks **blue**.
- **Adverbial Complements:** Provide additional information about the verb related to time, place, manner, etc.
 - **Examples:**
 - He stayed **for an hour**.
 - They went **to the store**.

5.1.6 Negation

Negation is used to make a verb phrase negative, often with the word "not" or contractions like "n't." It usually follows the first auxiliary verb or, in the absence of an auxiliary verb, requires the addition of "do" as an auxiliary.

- **Examples:**
 - She **is not** running.
 - They **have not** finished.
 - He **did not** go.

Examples of Verb Phrases with Components

1. Simple Verb Phrase:

- She **runs**.
 - Main verb: **runs**

2. With Auxiliary Verb:

- She **is running**.
 - Auxiliary verb: **is**
 - Main verb: **running**

3. With Modifier:

- She **is running quickly**.
 - Auxiliary verb: **is**
 - Main verb: **running**
 - Modifier: **quickly**

4. With Complement:

- She **called him a genius**.
 - Main verb: **called**
 - Object: **him**
 - Object complement: **a genius**

5. With Negation:

- She **is not running**.
 - Auxiliary verb: **is**
 - Negation: **not**
 - Main verb: **running**

6. Complex Verb Phrase:

- They **will have been working** for hours.
 - Modal verb: **will**
 - Auxiliary verbs: **have been**
 - Main verb: **working**
 - Adverbial complement: **for hours**

Examples of Verb Phrases:

1. Simple Verb Phrase:

- She **is running**.
 - "is" (auxiliary verb) + "running" (main verb)

2. Complex Verb Phrase:

- They **have been working** all day.
 - "have been" (auxiliary verbs) + "working" (main verb)

3. Modal Verb Phrase:

- He **will finish** the project soon.
 - "will" (modal verb) + "finish" (main verb)

4. Negative Verb Phrase:

- She **does not like** broccoli.
 - "does" (auxiliary verb) + "not" (negation) + "like" (main verb)

5. Passive Voice Verb Phrase:

- The book **was written** by the author.
 - "was" (auxiliary verb) + "written" (main verb, past participle)

6. Future Perfect Continuous Tense:

- By next year, they **will have been living** here for a decade.
 - "will have been" (auxiliary verbs) + "living" (main verb, present participle)

Verb Phrase Structures

1. Simple Present:

- She **eats** breakfast at 8 AM.
 - "eats" (main verb)

2. Present Continuous:

- They **are eating** dinner now.
 - "are" (auxiliary verb) + "eating" (main verb, present participle)

3. Present Perfect:

- He **has eaten** lunch already.
 - "has" (auxiliary verb) + "eaten" (main verb, past participle)

4. Present Perfect Continuous:

- She **has been eating** healthy lately.
 - "has been" (auxiliary verbs) + "eating" (main verb, present participle)

5. Past Simple:

- They **ate** dinner at 6 PM.
 - "ate" (main verb)

6. Past Continuous:

- He **was eating** when I called.
 - "was" (auxiliary verb) + "eating" (main verb, present participle)

7. Past Perfect:

- They **had eaten** before the movie started.
 - "had" (auxiliary verb) + "eaten" (main verb, past participle)

8. Past Perfect Continuous:

- She **had been eating** for an hour when he arrived.
 - "had been" (auxiliary verbs) + "eating" (main verb, present participle)

9. Future Simple:

- He **will eat** dinner later.
 - "will" (auxiliary verb) + "eat" (main verb)

10. Future Continuous:

- They **will be eating** at 7 PM.
 - "will be" (auxiliary verbs) + "eating" (main verb, present participle)

11. Future Perfect:

- She **will have eaten** by the time you arrive.
 - "will have" (auxiliary verbs) + "eaten" (main verb, past participle)

12. Future Perfect Continuous:

- By next month, he **will have been eating** healthier for a year.
 - "will have been" (auxiliary verbs) + "eating" (main verb, present participle)

5.2 Sentence Structure

In English, sentences generally follow a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) order, but this can be extended with additional components such as complements, modifiers, and clauses (Nordquist, 2021). Here are the basic and extended sentence structures:

Basic Sentence Structure

In an SVO sentence structure, the components are:

1. **Subject (S):** The person or thing that performs the action.
2. **Verb (V):** The action or state of being.
3. **Object (O):** The person or thing that receives the action of the verb.

Examples:

1. **She (S) reads (V) books (O).**
 - **Subject:** She
 - **Verb:** reads
 - **Object:** books
2. **They (S) play (V) football (O).**
 - **Subject:** They
 - **Verb:** play
 - **Object:** football
3. **He (S) ate (V) lunch (O).**
 - **Subject:** He
 - **Verb:** ate
 - **Object:** lunch

Components in SVO Structure:

- **Subject:** The person or thing performing the action.
- **Verb:** The action being performed.
- **Object:** The recipient of the action (if applicable).

Key Points:

- This structure is straightforward and commonly used in English sentences.
 - It helps in clearly expressing who or what is doing the action and to whom or what the action is being done.
 - Examples can vary in tense, aspect, and other details, but the basic order remains consistent.
1. **Subject-Verb (S-V)**
 - **Subject (S):** The person, place, thing, or idea that is doing or being something.
 - **Verb (V):** The action or state of being.

Example:

- **Birds** (S) **fly** (V).
- **She** (S) **laughs** (V).

2. Subject-Verb-Object (S-V-O)

- **Object (O)**: The person or thing that is affected by the action of the verb.

Example:

- **Cats** (S) **chase** (V) **mice** (O).
- **He** (S) **reads** (V) **books** (O).

Extended Sentence Structure

1. Subject-Verb-Object-Complement (S-V-O-C)

In this structure, a complement provides additional information that completes the meaning of the sentence, either about the subject or the object.

Examples:

1. **She** (S) **considered** (V) **him** (O) **a friend** (C).

- **Subject**: She
- **Verb**: considered
- **Object**: him
- **Complement**: a friend

2. **They** (S) **elected** (V) **her** (O) **president** (C).

- **Subject**: They
- **Verb**: elected
- **Object**: her
- **Complement**: president

2. Subject-Verb-Object-Modifier (S-V-O-M)

Here, a modifier provides additional information about the action, often describing how, when, where, or to what extent the action occurs.

Examples:

1. **She (S) placed (V) the book (O) on the table (M).**

- **Subject:** She
- **Verb:** placed
- **Object:** the book
- **Modifier:** on the table

2. **He (S) wrote (V) a letter (O) yesterday (M).**

- **Subject:** He
- **Verb:** wrote
- **Object:** a letter
- **Modifier:** yesterday

3. Subject-Verb-Complement (S-V-C)

In this structure, the complement provides additional information about the subject, often following linking verbs (e.g., be, seem, appear).

Examples:

1. **The flowers (S) are (V) beautiful (C).**

- **Subject:** The flowers
- **Verb:** are
- **Complement:** beautiful

2. **The cake (S) smells (V) delicious (C).**

- **Subject:** The cake
- **Verb:** smells
- **Complement:** delicious

Complex Sentence Structures

1. Compound Sentences

These consist of two or more independent clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions (e.g., and, but, or, so).

Example:

- **She finished her homework, and she watched a movie.**
 - **Independent Clause 1:** She finished her homework

- **Conjunction:** and
- **Independent Clause 2:** she watched a movie

2. Complex Sentences

These contain one independent clause and one or more dependent (subordinate) clauses, which cannot stand alone as complete sentences.

Example:

- **She studied hard, so she passed the exam.**
 - **Independent Clause:** She studied hard
 - **Subordinate Clause:** so she passed the exam

3. Compound-Complex Sentences

These include at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

Example:

- **She didn't see the sign, so she missed the turn, although she had driven that route many times.**
 - **Independent Clause 1:** She didn't see the sign
 - **Conjunction:** so
 - **Independent Clause 2:** she missed the turn
 - **Subordinate Clause:** although she had driven that route many times

Key Points:

- Extended sentence structures allow for more complex and nuanced expressions in writing and speech.
- They enable the addition of details, explanations, and relationships between ideas.
- Understanding these structures helps in creating varied and effective communication in English.

1. Subject-Verb-Object-Complement (S-V-O-C)

- **Complement (C):** Provides additional information about the object or the subject.

Example:

- **We (S) elected (V) her (O) president (C).**
- **They (S) consider (V) the idea (O) useful (C).**

2. Subject-Verb-Object-Modifier (S-V-O-M)

- **Modifier (M):** Provides additional information about when, where, how, or why something happens (often an adverb or prepositional phrase).

Example:

- **She (S) placed (V) the book (O) on the table (M).**
- **He (S) wrote (V) a letter (O) yesterday (M).**

3. Subject-Verb-Complement (S-V-C)

- Complements can also provide more information about the subject.

Example:

- **The sky (S) is (V) blue (C).**
- **The soup (S) tastes (V) delicious (C)**

Complex Sentence Structures

A complex sentence consists of:

1. **Independent Clause:** A complete sentence that can stand alone.
2. **Dependent Clause:** A sentence fragment that depends on the independent clause to form a complete thought.

Components:

- **Independent Clause:** Contains a subject and verb and expresses a complete thought.
- **Dependent Clause:** Contains a subject and verb but does not express a complete thought and relies on the independent clause.

Examples:

1. **When (DC) I (S) go to the store (IC), I (S) always (M) buy (V) fruits (O).**
 - **Independent Clause:** I always buy fruits.

- **Dependent Clause:** When I go to the store.
- 2. **After (DC) she (S) finished her homework (IC), she (S) went to bed (IC).**
 - **Independent Clause 1:** She finished her homework.
 - **Dependent Clause:** After she finished her homework.
 - **Independent Clause 2:** She went to bed.
- 3. **Although (DC) it was raining (IC), they (S) went for a walk (IC).**
 - **Independent Clause 1:** It was raining.
 - **Dependent Clause:** Although it was raining.
 - **Independent Clause 2:** They went for a walk.

Key Points:

- **Subordinating Conjunctions:** Words like when, after, although, because, if, etc., introduce dependent clauses.
- **Relative Pronouns:** Words like who, which, that, etc., can also introduce dependent clauses in complex sentences.
- **Complexity:** These sentences allow for the expression of relationships, conditions, contrasts, and more nuanced ideas.

Benefits of Using Complex Sentences:

- **Clarity:** They help clarify relationships between ideas.
- **Variety:** They add variety to writing and make it more engaging.
- **Detail:** They allow for the addition of details and explanations.

1. Compound Sentences

- Consist of two or more independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so).

Example:

- **She studied hard, but she still failed the exam.**
- **I wanted to go for a walk, so I put on my shoes.**

2. Complex Sentences

- Contain one independent clause and one or more dependent (subordinate) clauses.

Example:

- **Because it was raining, we stayed indoors.**
- **She left the party early since she wasn't feeling well.**

3. Compound-Complex Sentences

- Contain at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

Example:

- **Although I enjoy reading, I haven't had much time for it lately, and my book is still unfinished.**
- **He went to the store, and he bought some groceries because he was out of food.**

Examples of Complete Sentences

1. Subject + Verb + Object:

- **The dog (S) chased (V) the cat (O).**
- **The teacher (S) explains (V) the lesson (O).**

2. Subject + Verb + Complement:

- **The flowers (S) are (V) beautiful (C).**
- **The cake (S) smells (V) delicious (C).**

3. Subject + Verb + Object + Modifier:

- **She (S) bought (V) a new car (O) last week (M).**
- **He (S) found (V) his keys (O) in the drawer (M).**

4. Compound Sentence:

- **I finished my homework, and I watched a movie.**
- **She loves to read, but she doesn't like writing.**

5. Complex Sentence:

- **When the sun sets, the sky turns orange.**
- **If you study hard, you will pass the exam.**

6. Compound-Complex Sentence:

- **Even though it was late, we decided to go out, and we had a great time.**

- **She didn't see the sign, so she missed the turn, although she had driven that route many times.**

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BAB 6

SYNTACTIC TRANSFORMATION

Oleh Akhmad Hairul Umam

6.1 Introduction

Syntax is a fundamental aspect of linguistic theory, focusing on the rules and principles that govern the structure of sentences in a language. It concerns how words combine to form phrases and sentences and how these structures convey meaning. The study of syntax provides insight into the cognitive processes underlying language use and acquisition. The framework of syntactic theory has evolved significantly over time, with contributions from various scholars shaping our understanding of sentence structure and grammatical rules.

Syntactic transformation refers to the rules and operations that alter the structure of a sentence to generate different grammatical forms. These transformations are essential for understanding the relationship between sentence constructions, such as active and passive voices, declarative and interrogative sentences, and simple and complex sentences. Noam Chomsky first introduced the concept of syntactic transformation in his transformational-generative grammar, which posited that surface structures of sentences are derived from underlying deep structures through transformational rules (Chomsky, 1957).

The significance of syntactic transformation lies in its ability to explain the flexibility and variability of language. It provides a systematic way to account for the infinite number of sentences

speakers can generate and understand. Transformations also help linguists identify universal grammatical principles that apply across different languages, contributing to the broader goal of understanding the nature of human language.

This chapter aims to analyze syntactic transformations within the context of linguistic theory comprehensively. This chapter also seeks to provide a thorough and insightful exploration of syntactic transformations and to contribute to the academic discourse on this pivotal aspect of linguistic theory.

6.2 Historical Development

Early Theories

Chomsky's Transformational Grammar (1950s)

Noam Chomsky revolutionized the field of linguistics in the 1950s with his theory of transformational grammar, presented in his seminal work, *Syntactic Structures* (Chomsky, 1957). Chomsky introduced the concept of generative grammar, a set of rules capable of producing all and only the grammatical sentences of a language. His approach was a departure from structuralist theories that focused on descriptive analysis of language data without explaining the underlying cognitive processes.

Chomsky's transformational grammar is characterized by the distinction between deep structure and surface structure. Deep structure represents the core semantic relations of a sentence, while surface structure refers to the actual syntactic form of the sentence as spoken or written. Transformational rules link these two levels by specifying how deep structures are converted into surface structures. For example, the deep structure of a sentence like "John is easy to please" is transformed into its surface structure through a series of syntactic operations.

The deep structure vs. surface structure distinction was crucial for explaining phenomena such as ambiguities and paraphrases, where different surface structures correspond to the same deep structure, or vice versa. This concept allowed linguists to account for the flexibility and creativity of language use, emphasizing the role of the human mind in generating and understanding complex sentences.

Key Concepts: Deep Structure vs. Surface Structure

The idea of deep structure and surface structure provided a framework for understanding the transformational process. Deep structures capture the fundamental grammatical relationships and meaning of a sentence. Surface structures, on the other hand, are the end products of transformations applied to deep structures, resulting in the sentences we actually hear or read. For instance, passive constructions and question formations can be derived from their corresponding deep structures through transformational rules.

The distinction also helped linguists address issues like syntactic ambiguity. Consider the sentence "Flying planes can be dangerous." This sentence has two potential interpretations: one where "flying planes" refers to the act of flying planes, and another where it refers to planes that are flying. The deep structure of each interpretation differs, but the surface structure is the same, illustrating how transformational grammar can explain such ambiguities (Chomsky, 1965).

Evolution of Theories

Developments in the 1960s and 1970s

The 1960s and 1970s saw significant developments in transformational grammar, leading to more refined and comprehensive models. Chomsky's *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965) introduced the concept of the T-model, which includes additional levels of representation such as phonological and logical form. This period also witnessed the formulation of

the Standard Theory, which incorporated more detailed rules for transformations and constraints on their application.

During this era, researchers like Ross (1967) and Jackendoff (1977) contributed to the theory by identifying and analyzing syntactic constraints. Ross's constraints, known as "islands," outlined environments where certain transformations could not occur, such as within relative clauses or coordinate structures. These constraints helped explain why some sentences are ungrammatical, even though their transformations would otherwise be valid.

Generative Grammar and Later Models

As the field progressed, generative grammar evolved to address various theoretical challenges and empirical findings. The Extended Standard Theory (EST) and the Revised Extended Standard Theory (REST) incorporated additional levels of syntactic representation and more sophisticated transformational rules. These models aimed to account for the complexities observed in natural languages, such as movement constraints and binding phenomena (Chomsky, 1981).

In the 1980s and 1990s, Chomsky introduced the Government and Binding Theory (GBT) and later the Minimalist Program, which sought to simplify the theory by reducing the number of transformational rules and positing more general principles governing syntactic structures. GBT focused on the modularity of grammar, proposing separate modules for different aspects of syntactic knowledge, such as government, binding, and case assignment (Chomsky, 1981). The Minimalist Program aimed to explain language using the simplest and most economical principles, reflecting an ongoing effort to align linguistic theory with cognitive science and biology (Chomsky, 1995).

6.3 Fundamental Concepts of Syntactic Transformation

Transformational Rules

Transformational rules are the core mechanisms in transformational grammar that convert deep structures into surface structures. These rules manipulate the syntactic structure of a sentence to generate different grammatical forms. Chomsky (1957) introduced the concept of transformational rules to explain how sentences with similar meanings but different structures can be related to one another. These rules are crucial for understanding various syntactic phenomena, such as passivization, question formation, and relative clause formation.

Types of Transformations

Movement

Movement transformations involve relocating a constituent from one position to another within a sentence. This type of transformation explains various syntactic structures, including wh-questions and topicalization. For example, in the sentence "What did you see?" the wh-word "what" is moved from its original position as the object of "see" to the beginning of the sentence.

Deletion

Deletion transformations remove certain elements from the sentence, often to avoid redundancy or to meet specific syntactic requirements. An example is VP-ellipsis, where the verb phrase is deleted in a coordinate structure, as in "John can play the guitar, and Mary can [play the guitar] too." Here, the verb phrase "play the guitar" is deleted from the second clause.

Insertion

Insertion transformations add elements to the sentence, often for clarity or emphasis. For instance, do-support in English involves inserting the auxiliary verb "do" to form questions or negatives: "She sings" becomes "Does she sing?" in the question form.

Examples of Syntactic Transformations

Passive Transformation

The passive transformation changes the focus of a sentence by making the object of an active sentence the subject of the passive sentence. For example, the active sentence "The cat chased the mouse" can be transformed into the passive sentence "The mouse was chased by the cat." This transformation involves moving the object "the mouse" to the subject position and inserting the auxiliary verb "was" along with the past participle form of the main verb "chased."

Question Formation

Question formation involves several types of transformations, including movement and do-support. In forming yes/no questions, the auxiliary verb is moved to the beginning of the sentence: "She is reading a book" becomes "Is she reading a book?" For wh-questions, the wh-word is moved to the front of the sentence: "You will eat what?" becomes "What will you eat?" These transformations often require additional adjustments, such as subject-auxiliary inversion.

Constraints and Conditions

Constraints on Transformations

Transformational rules are subject to various constraints that limit their application. These constraints ensure that the generated sentences are grammatical and meaningful. Two

important types of constraints are subadjacency and island constraints.

Subadjacency

Subadjacency is a constraint that restricts the movement of constituents to prevent transformations that would result in ungrammatical sentences. According to the subadjacency constraint, a constituent cannot move across more than one bounding node (such as NP or CP) at a time. For example, the sentence *"*Who did you wonder whether John saw?"* is ungrammatical because the wh-word "who" has moved across two bounding nodes (the NP "John" and the CP "whether John saw") in a single transformation.

Island Constraints

Island constraints, proposed by Ross (1967), identify specific syntactic environments from which constituents cannot be extracted. These environments are known as "islands," and include structures like relative clauses, coordinate structures, and certain types of noun phrases. For instance, in the sentence *"*What did the man who saw say?"* the movement of "what" out of the relative clause "who saw" violates the relative clause island constraint, rendering the sentence ungrammatical.

Further Constraints

Additional constraints include the Empty Category Principle (ECP), which requires that certain empty categories (such as traces left by moved constituents) be properly governed, and the Theta Criterion, which ensures that each argument in a sentence has a unique thematic role. These constraints help maintain the syntactic and semantic coherence of sentences generated by transformational rules (Chomsky, 1981).

6.4 Types of Syntactic Transformations

Movement

Movement transformations involve relocating constituents within a sentence to form different syntactic structures. These transformations are crucial for understanding how different sentence types are related.

NP-Movement

NP-movement, or noun phrase movement, occurs when a noun phrase is moved from one position to another within the syntactic structure of a sentence. Two common types of NP-movement are raising and passive constructions.

Raising

Raising involves moving a subject from an embedded clause to a higher clause. For example, in the sentence "It seems that John is happy," the subject "John" can be raised to form "John seems to be happy." This transformation changes the structure but not the meaning of the sentence. Raising is guided by specific rules that ensure the movement is grammatically acceptable (Chomsky, 1981).

Passive

In passive constructions, the object of an active sentence is moved to the subject position, and the subject is either omitted or placed in a by-phrase. For instance, "The cat chased the mouse" can be transformed into "The mouse was chased by the cat." This transformation involves moving "the mouse" to the subject position and inserting the auxiliary verb "was" along with the past participle "chased" (Radford, 2009).

Wh-Movement

Wh-movement involves the displacement of a wh-word (who, what, where, etc.) to the beginning of a sentence to form questions, relative clauses, and other structures.

Question Formation

In forming questions, a *wh*-word is moved to the front of the sentence. For example, "You will eat what?" becomes "What will you eat?" This movement is accompanied by auxiliary inversion, where the auxiliary verb is placed before the subject. *Wh*-movement is subject to constraints like subadjacency and island constraints, ensuring that the resulting sentences are grammatical (Chomsky, 1977).

Relative Clauses

In relative clauses, a *wh*-word or relative pronoun is moved to the beginning of the clause it introduces. For example, "The book that I read" involves moving "that" from its original position as the object of "read." This transformation helps connect the relative clause to the noun it modifies, creating a complex sentence structure (Ross, 1967).

Deletion and Insertion

Deletion and insertion transformations involve removing or adding elements to a sentence, respectively. These transformations help streamline sentences or add necessary syntactic components.

Deletion

Deletion transformations remove redundant or unnecessary elements from a sentence. One common type is VP-ellipsis, where the verb phrase is omitted in a coordinate structure. For example, "John can play the guitar, and Mary can [play the guitar] too" becomes "John can play the guitar, and Mary can too." The rules governing deletion ensure that the omitted elements are recoverable from the context (Sag, 1976).

Insertion

Insertion transformations add elements to a sentence to meet syntactic requirements or clarify meaning. For example, *do*-support involves inserting the auxiliary verb "do" in

questions and negatives: "She sings" becomes "Does she sing?" Insertion transformations are guided by rules that specify when and where elements should be added to maintain grammaticality (Chomsky, 1981).

Structure-Building Transformations

Structure-building transformations create complex syntactic structures by combining simpler ones. These transformations include coordination, subordination, and adjunction.

Coordination

Coordination involves linking two or more constituents of the same type using coordinating conjunctions like "and," "or," and "but." For example, "John and Mary" coordinates two noun phrases, while "He sings and dances" coordinates two verb phrases. The rules governing coordination ensure that the linked constituents are of the same syntactic category and that the resulting structure is grammatically acceptable (Radford, 2009).

Subordination

Subordination involves embedding one clause within another, creating a hierarchical structure. For example, in the sentence "I know that she is coming," the clause "that she is coming" is subordinated to "I know." Subordination can be achieved using subordinating conjunctions like "that," "if," and "because," which introduce the embedded clause (Chomsky, 1981).

Adjunction

Adjunction involves adding an adjunct (a modifier) to a sentence without altering its core structure. For example, in the sentence "He left after the meeting," the phrase "after the meeting" is adjoined to the main clause "He left." Adjunction can apply to various syntactic categories, including noun phrases, verb phrases, and clauses. The rules governing adjunction

ensure that the adjuncts are properly integrated into the sentence (Haegeman, 1994).

6.5 Theoretical Approaches

Government and Binding Theory

Overview and Key Concepts

Government and Binding Theory (GBT), introduced by Noam Chomsky in the early 1980s, represents a significant advancement in generative grammar. This theory is characterized by its modular approach, where the grammar is divided into distinct components or modules, each responsible for different aspects of syntactic structure. The main modules of GBT include Government, Binding, Case Theory, X-bar Theory, Theta Theory, Control Theory, and Bounding Theory (Chomsky, 1981).

- **Government:** This concept deals with the relationship between a governing element (e.g., a verb or a preposition) and its governed constituents (e.g., a noun or a clause). The notion of government is crucial for understanding the distribution of syntactic elements and their dependency relations.
- **Binding:** Binding Theory addresses the relationships between pronouns and their antecedents. It comprises three principles: Principle A (anaphors must be bound in their governing category), Principle B (pronouns must be free in their governing category), and Principle C (referential expressions must be free).
- **Case Theory:** This module explains how noun phrases receive case, which is necessary for their proper syntactic function. For example, subjects typically receive nominative cases, while objects receive accusative cases.

- **Theta Theory:** Theta Theory concerns the assignment of thematic roles (theta roles) like agent, patient, and experience to the arguments of a verb, ensuring that each argument has a distinct role.
- **Control Theory:** This theory explains how non-finite clauses (e.g., infinitives) relate to their subjects, often involving implicit subjects controlled by elements in the main clause.
- **Bounding Theory:** Bounding Theory deals with constraints on movement, specifying limits on how far constituents can move within a sentence.

Role of Syntactic Transformation

In GBT, syntactic transformations play a crucial role in deriving surface structures from underlying deep structures. These transformations are governed by the principles and parameters set by the different modules. For instance, movement transformations are constrained by principles from Bounding Theory, ensuring that movements do not violate syntactic boundaries like islands.

Transformations in GBT include:

- **NP-movement:** Seen in passive constructions and raising, where noun phrases move to satisfy case requirements.
- **Wh-movement:** Involves moving wh-words to the beginning of sentences to form questions and relative clauses constrained by subadjacency.
- **Head-movement:** Movement of head elements like verbs in verb raising or auxiliary inversion (Chomsky, 1981; Haegeman, 1994).

Minimalist Program

Introduction to the Minimalist Approach

The Minimalist Program, developed by Chomsky in the 1990s, aims to simplify syntactic theory by reducing the complexity of grammatical rules and principles. The central idea of the Minimalist Program is to explain language using the most economical and efficient principles possible, reflecting the minimalist philosophy that less is more (Chomsky, 1995).

The minimalist syntax is built on the concept of optimal design, where language is seen as a perfect system that satisfies interface conditions imposed by the sensory-motor and conceptual-intentional systems.

The key components of the Minimalist Program include:

- **Merge:** A fundamental operation that combines two syntactic elements into a single hierarchical structure.
- **Move:** Also known as Internal Merge, this operation relocates elements within the structure to satisfy various syntactic requirements.
- **Feature Checking:** The process by which syntactic features (e.g., case, agreement) are checked and valued through movement and other operations.

Transformations in Minimalist Syntax

In the Minimalist Program, transformations are simplified to reflect the principles of economy and efficiency. Movement is reinterpreted as Internal Merge, a more general operation that subsumes traditional transformational rules. The goal is to achieve the most efficient derivation possible, minimizing the number of steps and adhering to principles like Last Resort (elements move only if necessary).

Transformations in minimalist syntax include:

- **A-movement:** Movement of arguments, such as in raising and passive constructions.
- **A-bar movement:** Movement of non-argument elements, such as wh-words in questions and relative clauses.
- **Feature-driven movement:** Movements motivated by the need to check syntactic features like case and agreement (Chomsky, 1995; Radford, 2009).

Other Contemporary Theories

Comparison of Different Syntactic Theories

While GBT and the Minimalist Program are dominant frameworks, several other contemporary syntactic theories offer alternative perspectives on syntactic structure and transformations.

Lexical-Functional Grammar (LFG)

LFG, developed by Joan Bresnan and Ronald Kaplan in the 1980s, focuses on the relationship between syntactic structure and functional structure. It posits two parallel structures: c-structure (constituent structure) and f-structure (functional structure), which interact to produce grammatical sentences. LFG minimizes transformational operations, emphasizing the role of lexical entries and functional constraints (Bresnan, 2001).

Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG)

HPSG, proposed by Carl Pollard and Ivan Sag, is a constraint-based, non-transformational theory that integrates syntax, semantics, and morphology. It uses feature structures to represent grammatical information and relies on unification to combine elements. HPSG emphasizes the role of lexical entries

and their inherent properties in determining syntactic structure (Pollard & Sag, 1994).

Construction Grammar (CxG)

Construction Grammar, developed by Adele Goldberg and others, argues that syntactic patterns are directly associated with meanings and functions. Constructions are the basic units of grammar, encompassing both form and meaning. CxG rejects the need for deep structures and transformational rules, instead focusing on the direct mapping between syntactic forms and their communicative functions (Goldberg, 1995).

6.6 Empirical Evidence and Applications

Linguistic Data

Empirical evidence for syntactic transformations comes from extensive linguistic data encompassing various languages and structures. This data provides crucial insights into the universality and diversity of syntactic transformations across languages.

Examples from Various Languages

Syntactic transformations are observable in many languages, each exhibiting unique yet comparable patterns. For instance, English and Japanese demonstrate different approaches to question formation. In English, *wh*-words move to the beginning of the sentence: "What did you see?" In Japanese, however, the *wh*-word remains in situ: "Anata wa nani o mita ka?" (You what saw?). Despite these surface differences, both languages follow underlying transformational principles that align with their syntactic rules (Chomsky, 1977; Saito, 1985).

Another example is the passive transformation. In English, the object of an active sentence becomes the subject of the passive sentence: "The cat chased the mouse" transforms into "The mouse was chased by the cat." Similarly, in French, the

passive voice is formed by reordering elements and adding the auxiliary "être": "Le chat a chassé la souris" becomes "La souris a été chassée par le chat" (Radford, 2009; Sportiche, 1990).

Cross-Linguistic Comparisons

Cross-linguistic comparisons reveal how different languages handle similar syntactic phenomena. For example, verb-second (V2) word order, where the verb appears in the second position of a sentence, is common in Germanic languages like German and Dutch. In German, "Ich habe das Buch gelesen" (I have the book read) can be transformed to emphasize the book: "Das Buch habe ich gelesen." Such transformations are constrained by language-specific rules but reflect a shared syntactic principle (Haider, 1988).

In contrast, languages like Italian and Spanish use different strategies for topicalization and focus. In Italian, topicalization involves moving the topic to the beginning of the sentence: "Il libro, l'ho letto" (The book, I read it). This structure highlights the flexibility of transformational rules in adapting to language-specific syntactic and discourse needs (Rizzi, 1997).

Psycholinguistic Evidence

Psycholinguistic research provides experimental evidence supporting the cognitive reality of syntactic transformations. Studies on sentence processing and comprehension offer insights into how transformations are mentally represented and utilized during language use.

Experiments and Studies Supporting Syntactic Transformation

One key area of psycholinguistic research involves the processing of ambiguous sentences. Garden path sentences, such as "The horse raced past the barn fell," initially lead the reader to an incorrect interpretation, requiring reanalysis to understand the correct structure. These studies demonstrate

that readers use transformational rules to parse and reanalyze sentences in real time (Frazier & Rayner, 1982).

Another significant study by Stowe (1986) examined the processing of wh-questions. Participants read sentences like "The teacher asked what the student had forgotten." Results showed that readers anticipated the wh-word's original position, indicating the mental application of wh-movement transformations during comprehension.

Processing and Comprehension

Research on syntactic priming further supports the role of transformations in language processing. Syntactic priming occurs when exposure to a particular syntactic structure increases the likelihood of using the same structure subsequently. For example, hearing a passive sentence makes speakers more likely to produce a passive sentence, suggesting that transformational rules are activated and reinforced through use (Bock, 1986).

Event-related potential (ERP) studies also provide evidence for syntactic transformations. ERPs, measured through EEG, show distinct brain responses to different syntactic constructions. For instance, violations of expected syntactic structures elicit specific ERP components, such as the P600, associated with syntactic reanalysis and repair (Osterhout & Holcomb, 1992).

Computational Applications

Syntactic transformations have significant applications in computational linguistics, particularly in natural language processing (NLP), parsing, and machine translation. These applications demonstrate the practical utility of transformational grammar in modern technology.

Natural Language Processing

NLP involves the use of computational techniques to process and analyze human language. Transformational grammar provides a framework for developing algorithms that handle complex syntactic structures. For instance, dependency parsing, a key NLP task, relies on understanding the syntactic dependencies between words. By incorporating transformational rules, parsers can more accurately analyze and generate syntactically correct sentences (Jurafsky & Martin, 2020).

Parsing and Machine Translation

Parsing is the process of analyzing the syntactic structure of a sentence to determine its grammatical components. Transformational grammar aids in developing robust parsers that can handle diverse sentence constructions. For example, parsers based on Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG) utilize transformations to account for various syntactic phenomena, enabling accurate syntactic analysis and generation (Pollard & Sag, 1994).

Machine translation systems, which automatically translate text from one language to another, also benefit from syntactic transformations. By understanding and applying transformational rules, these systems can produce translations that preserve the original sentence's syntactic and semantic integrity. For example, Google Translate uses syntactic and semantic analysis to improve translation accuracy, leveraging transformations to handle different grammatical structures across languages (Koehn, 2010).

6.7 Criticisms and Debates

Criticisms of Transformational Grammar

Transformational grammar, while influential and widely adopted, has faced several criticisms over the decades. Critics argue against the necessity of transformations, proposing alternative frameworks that they claim offer more elegant or empirically adequate explanations.

Arguments Against the Necessity of Transformations

One major criticism is the perceived complexity and abstract nature of transformational rules. Critics argue that transformations add unnecessary layers of abstraction that do not align with the cognitive processes involved in language comprehension and production. They claim that simpler, surface-based models could explain linguistic phenomena more directly.

For instance, Gerald Gazdar and his colleagues argued that transformations were unnecessary for explaining syntactic phenomena and proposed a non-transformational approach in Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar (GPSG). GPSG relies on a rich set of syntactic features and principles without invoking transformational rules, aiming for greater explanatory simplicity (Gazdar *et al.*, 1985).

Another line of criticism comes from the adherents of Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG). This framework eschews transformations in favor of feature-based unification. HPSG posits that syntactic structure results from the interaction of lexical properties and phrase structure rules, which some argue provides a more transparent mapping between syntax and semantics (Pollard & Sag, 1994).

Alternative Approaches

Lexical-Functional Grammar (LFG)

Lexical-Functional Grammar, developed by Joan Bresnan and Ronald Kaplan, is a prominent alternative to transformational grammar. LFG posits two parallel structures: constituent structure (c-structure) and functional structure (f-structure). The c-structure captures surface syntax, while the f-structure encodes grammatical relations and functions.

LFG avoids transformations by directly linking surface syntactic forms to their functional roles through lexical entries and functional equations. This approach aims to provide a more direct account of syntactic variation and universals without invoking deep structures and transformational rules (Bresnan, 2001).

Construction Grammar (CxG)

Construction Grammar, advocated by Adele Goldberg and others, offers another alternative by focusing on the pairings of form and meaning known as constructions. In CxG, grammatical patterns are stored as constructions in a speaker's mental lexicon, and language use involves retrieving and combining these constructions.

CxG rejects the need for deep structures and transformations, arguing that all syntactic phenomena can be explained through constructions that encompass both syntactic form and semantic function. This approach emphasizes the holistic nature of linguistic knowledge and the usage-based emergence of grammatical patterns (Goldberg, 1995).

Ongoing Debates

Current Controversies in Syntactic Theory

Despite the advancements in syntactic theory, several controversies and debates persist, reflecting the dynamic and evolving nature of the field.

One major debate concerns the role of innate versus learned aspects of grammar. The Universal Grammar (UG) hypothesis, proposed by Chomsky, posits that humans are born with an innate set of grammatical principles shared across all languages. Critics argue that language acquisition can be explained through general cognitive mechanisms and extensive exposure to linguistic input, challenging the necessity of UG (Tomasello, 2003).

Another controversy involves the nature of syntactic categories and their universality. While traditional theories assume a fixed set of syntactic categories (e.g., noun, verb, adjective), some linguists argue that these categories vary significantly across languages and are not as rigid as previously thought. This debate touches on the fundamental nature of syntactic structures and their cross-linguistic validity (Croft, 2001).

The Minimalist Program, introduced by Chomsky in the 1990s, has also sparked debates regarding its principles and assumptions. Critics question whether the minimalist framework, with its emphasis on economy and optimal design, can account for the full range of syntactic diversity observed in natural languages. Some argue that the minimalist approach is too constrained and fails to address certain empirical phenomena adequately (Culicover & Jackendoff, 2005).

Future Directions

The future of syntactic theory likely involves a synthesis of insights from various approaches, integrating cognitive, computational, and empirical perspectives. Emerging research

in neurolinguistics and psycholinguistics offers promising avenues for understanding the brain mechanisms underlying syntactic processing and how these relate to theoretical models.

Computational approaches, including machine learning and artificial intelligence, are also poised to contribute significantly to syntactic theory. By modeling language processing and generation, computational models can test the predictions of different syntactic theories and provide insights into the plausibility of various transformational and non-transformational approaches (Jurafsky & Martin, 2020).

Additionally, cross-linguistic and typological studies will continue to be crucial for testing the universality of syntactic principles and exploring the diversity of grammatical structures. Integrating data from under-researched languages and dialects can refine existing theories and potentially lead to new theoretical developments.

In summary, while transformational grammar has laid the foundation for modern syntactic theory, ongoing debates and criticisms highlight the need for continuous refinement and integration of diverse perspectives. The future of syntactic research promises to be interdisciplinary, leveraging insights from linguistics, cognitive science, neuroscience, and computational modeling to advance our understanding of human language.

6.8 Conclusion

Syntactic transformation remains a crucial concept in linguistic theory, offering a framework for understanding the complexity and variability of human language. Transformational grammar has provided deep insights into how different sentence structures are related and how underlying principles of syntax manifest across languages. Despite criticisms and ongoing

debates, the study of syntactic transformations continues to be a fertile ground for theoretical and empirical research.

The importance of syntactic transformations extends beyond theoretical linguistics, influencing fields such as psycholinguistics, computational linguistics, and language education. Understanding transformations not only enriches our knowledge of language structure and function but also enhances practical applications in language technology and teaching.

In conclusion, syntactic transformations play an essential role in unraveling the intricacies of human language, contributing to our broader understanding of cognitive processes and linguistic universals. Ongoing research and interdisciplinary collaboration will continue to advance this field, fostering new discoveries and applications that deepen our appreciation of the complexities of syntax.

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BAB 7

SYNTACTIC AMBIGUITY AND DISAMBIGUATION

Oleh Riki Astafi

7.1 Syntactic ambiguity

Introduction Syntactic ambiguity, a term frequently encountered in the study of linguistics and computational language processing, refers to situations where a sentence can be parsed in more than one way due to its syntactic structure (Bajac, P., 2020). This type of ambiguity arises not from the meanings of the words themselves but from the different ways in which the words can be combined according to the rules of syntax.. Syntactic ambiguity, a concept frequently encountered in the study of linguistics and computational language processing, refers to situations where a sentence can be parsed in more than one way due to its syntactic structure. Unlike semantic ambiguity, which arises from the meanings of individual words, syntactic ambiguity emerges from the different ways in which words can be combined according to the rules of syntax. This type of ambiguity is not merely a linguistic curiosity but a fundamental challenge and area of study with significant implications across multiple fields.

Understanding syntactic ambiguity is crucial for various domains, including natural language processing (NLP), artificial intelligence (AI), language education, and cognitive science. In

NLP and AI, resolving syntactic ambiguity is essential for developing systems that can accurately understand and generate human language. This capability is fundamental for applications such as machine translation, speech recognition, and conversational agents. For language educators, teaching students about syntactic ambiguity can enhance their understanding of grammar and improve their communication skills. In cognitive science, studying how humans perceive and resolve syntactic ambiguity provides insights into the cognitive processes involved in language comprehension.

Consider the sentence, "The woman saw the man with the telescope." This sentence can be interpreted in two distinct ways:

1. The woman is holding the telescope and uses it to see the man.
2. The man is holding the telescope, and the woman merely sees him.

Both interpretations are grammatically correct, illustrating how the arrangement of words and phrases can lead to different understandings. Addressing such ambiguities involves analyzing the syntactic structures and contextual clues that guide our interpretation of language.

Syntactic ambiguity can arise in various forms, including lexical category ambiguity, attachment ambiguity, coordination ambiguity, and ellipsis. Each type has unique characteristics and requires different strategies for disambiguation. For instance, lexical category ambiguity occurs when a word can serve multiple grammatical roles, as seen in the sentence "Visiting relatives can be annoying," where "visiting" can be interpreted as either a verb or an adjective. Attachment ambiguity involves phrases that can attach to different parts of a sentence, such as "She saw the man with the binoculars," which can mean either that she used binoculars to see the man or that the man had the binoculars.

To resolve these ambiguities, various methods can be employed, including contextual analysis, punctuation, word order adjustments, and leveraging world knowledge. Advanced computational techniques, such as probabilistic models, machine learning, and hybrid systems, also play a significant role in disambiguation, especially in the realm of NLP and AI.

By exploring the various types of syntactic ambiguity, their causes, and methods for disambiguation, we can gain a deeper appreciation of the complexity and richness of human language. Understanding syntactic ambiguity not only enhances our theoretical knowledge but also improves practical applications in technology, education, and cognitive science, making it a critical area of study in contemporary linguistics and beyond.

At its core, syntactic ambiguity occurs when a sentence can have multiple interpretations because of its syntactic structure (Almahameed, Y. S., 2020). For example, consider the sentence: "I saw the man with the telescope." This sentence can be interpreted in at least two ways:

1. The speaker saw a man who had a telescope.
2. The speaker used a telescope to see the man.

Both interpretations are grammatically correct, illustrating how the arrangement of words and phrases can lead to different understandings.

Types of Syntactic Ambiguity Syntactic ambiguity can be broadly categorized into two types: global and local ambiguity (Rodd, J. M., 2020).

1. **Global Ambiguity:** Global ambiguity occurs when an entire sentence remains ambiguous even after it has been fully parsed. For example, "The chicken is ready to eat" can mean either that the chicken is prepared to be eaten or that the chicken is ready to eat something.
2. **Local Ambiguity:** Local ambiguity arises when a sentence is ambiguous at a certain point during parsing but the

ambiguity is resolved by the end of the sentence. For example, in the sentence "The old man the boats," the initial reading might confuse the reader, but it becomes clear by the end that "old" is not an adjective but a noun, and "man" is the verb.

Causes of Syntactic Ambiguity Several linguistic factors contribute to syntactic ambiguity (Fenton, E. S., 2022). These include:

1. **Lexical Category Ambiguity:** Words that can serve multiple grammatical roles (e.g., nouns, verbs, adjectives) often lead to syntactic ambiguity. For example, in the sentence "Visiting relatives can be annoying," "visiting" can be interpreted as a verb or an adjective.
2. **Attachment Ambiguity:** Ambiguity often arises from prepositional phrases or relative clauses that can attach to different parts of the sentence. For example, "She saw the man with the binoculars" can mean either she used binoculars to see the man or she saw a man who had binoculars.
3. **Coordination Ambiguity:** Coordination of phrases can lead to ambiguity when it is unclear how the conjunctions and disjunctions apply. For instance, "Old men and women" can be interpreted as "old men and old women" or "old men and women."
4. **Ellipsis:** Ellipsis, where part of a sentence is omitted because it is understood, can also create ambiguity. For example, "John loves his wife more than Peter" can be understood as John loves his wife more than Peter loves his wife, or John loves his wife more than he loves Peter.

Resolving Syntactic Ambiguity Resolving syntactic ambiguity requires understanding the context and utilizing various linguistic cues. Several approaches are employed to disambiguate sentences (Darzhinova, L. (2020):

1. **Contextual Clues:** The surrounding text often provides clues that help in resolving ambiguity. Pragmatic context, including the knowledge about the world and the situation in which the sentence is used, plays a significant role.
2. **Prosodic Features:** In spoken language, intonation, stress, and rhythm can provide cues to disambiguate sentences. For example, prosody can indicate whether a phrase is intended to modify the preceding noun or the verb.
3. **Statistical Methods:** In computational linguistics, statistical methods analyze large corpora of text to determine the most likely interpretation based on frequency and probability.
4. **Syntax Parsing Algorithms:** Advanced parsing algorithms can analyze the syntactic structure of sentences to suggest the most probable interpretation. These algorithms often rely on pre-defined grammar rules and machine learning techniques.
5. **Human Judgment:** Ultimately, human judgment is often required to resolve ambiguities, especially in complex sentences where computational methods fall short. Human interpreters use their linguistic intuition and contextual understanding to clarify meaning.

Implications of Syntactic Ambiguity Syntactic ambiguity has significant implications across various domains (Hu, J., Gauthier, J., Qian, P., Wilcox, E., & Levy, R. P., 2020) :

1. **Language Processing:** In natural language processing (NLP), syntactic ambiguity presents challenges for machine translation, information retrieval, and conversational agents. Ensuring accurate and contextually appropriate interpretation is crucial for these technologies.
2. **Legal and Technical Writing:** Precision is paramount in legal and technical writing. Ambiguities in legal documents can lead to different interpretations of laws and contracts, potentially causing disputes and misunderstandings.

3. **Language Education:** Teaching syntactic structures and ambiguity is essential in language education. Understanding how sentences can be interpreted differently helps learners develop a deeper grasp of syntax and improve their communication skills.
4. **Cognitive Science:** Studying how humans process and resolve syntactic ambiguity provides insights into cognitive processes involved in language comprehension. This research can inform models of human cognition and the development of artificial intelligence.

Examples and Case Studies To illustrate the practical impact of syntactic ambiguity, consider these examples and case studies:

1. **Headline Ambiguities:** Newspaper headlines often exhibit syntactic ambiguity due to their concise nature. For instance, "Kids Make Nutritious Snacks" can be interpreted as children preparing healthy snacks or children being made into snacks.
2. **Legal Ambiguities:** A famous example is the Second Amendment to the United States Constitution: "A well-regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed." This sentence has been subject to extensive debate due to its syntactic ambiguity regarding the relationship between the militia clause and the right to bear arms.
3. **Computational Linguistics:** In machine translation, syntactic ambiguity can lead to errors. For example, translating "He saw her duck" into another language requires understanding whether "duck" is a noun or a verb.

Example and Analysis

Syntactic ambiguity arises when a sentence can be interpreted in more than one way due to its grammatical structure. This phenomenon is prevalent in everyday language and can lead to multiple valid interpretations, each supported by

different syntactic parsings. Below are detailed examples and analyses of syntactic ambiguity to illustrate its nature and implications.

1. Example: "The man saw the boy with the telescope."

Interpretations:

1. The man used a telescope to see the boy.
2. The man saw a boy who had a telescope.

Analysis: This sentence is ambiguous due to the prepositional phrase "with the telescope." The phrase can either modify the verb "saw," indicating the means by which the man saw the boy, or it can modify the noun "boy," describing the boy as having a telescope. The ambiguity arises because the prepositional phrase can attach to either the verb phrase or the noun phrase.

2. Example: "She watched the dog in the park."

Interpretations:

1. She watched the dog while she was in the park.
2. She watched a dog that was in the park.

Analysis: The ambiguity here stems from the prepositional phrase "in the park." It can be interpreted as modifying "watched," indicating the location where the watching took place, or it can modify "the dog," indicating the location of the dog. This type of ambiguity, known as attachment ambiguity, is common with prepositional phrases.

3. Example: "Visiting relatives can be annoying."

Interpretations:

1. The act of visiting relatives can be annoying.
2. Relatives who visit can be annoying.

Analysis: This sentence demonstrates lexical category ambiguity, where the word "visiting" can function as either a

verb or an adjective. If "visiting" is a verb, it describes the action of visiting relatives. If it is an adjective, it describes the relatives who are visiting. The lack of context makes both interpretations plausible.

4. Example: "He saw her duck."

Interpretations:

1. He saw her lower her head or body quickly (verb: duck).
2. He saw a duck that belonged to her (noun: duck).

Analysis: This sentence is ambiguous due to the homonym "duck," which can be both a verb and a noun. The syntactic structure allows for both interpretations, leading to ambiguity about whether the action or the animal is being referred to.

5. Example: "They are cooking apples."

Interpretations:

1. They are in the process of cooking apples (verb: cooking).
2. The apples are of the type used for cooking (adjective: cooking).

Analysis: The ambiguity arises from the word "cooking," which can describe the action being performed (verb) or the type of apples (adjective). Without additional context, it's unclear whether "cooking" modifies the noun "apples" or functions as the main verb in the sentence.

6. Example: "Old men and women."

Interpretations:

1. Old men and old women.
2. Men who are old and women of any age.

Analysis: This sentence shows coordination ambiguity, where the coordination of phrases (in this case, "old men" and "women") can be interpreted in multiple ways. The ambiguity

arises because it's unclear whether "old" applies to both men and women or only to men.

7. Example: "The chicken is ready to eat."

Interpretations:

1. The chicken is prepared and ready for someone to eat it.
2. The chicken is ready to eat something itself.

Analysis: This sentence is globally ambiguous, meaning the entire sentence remains ambiguous until more context is provided. The ambiguity arises because "ready to eat" can describe the state of the chicken as being cooked and prepared for consumption, or it can describe the chicken as being hungry and ready to eat.

8. Example: "The old man the boats."

Interpretations:

1. The old people are the ones who operate the boats.

Analysis: This sentence initially appears confusing due to local ambiguity. Upon closer examination, it becomes clear that "old" is a noun referring to old people, and "man" is a verb meaning to operate or control. The ambiguity is resolved by understanding the grammatical roles of "old" and "man."

9. Example: "I saw the man on the hill with a telescope."

Interpretations:

1. I saw the man who was on the hill using a telescope.
2. I saw the man who had a telescope while I was on the hill.
3. I saw the man on the hill who had a telescope.

Analysis: This sentence contains multiple layers of attachment ambiguity, where the prepositional phrases "on the hill" and "with a telescope" can attach to different parts of the sentence. The ambiguity arises from the multiple possible

attachments of these phrases to the nouns and verbs in the sentence.

10. Example: "He said she would leave early, and so did I."

Interpretations:

1. He said she would leave early, and I also said she would leave early.
2. He said she would leave early, and I also left early.

Analysis: The ambiguity here stems from ellipsis, where part of the sentence is omitted because it is understood from the context. The phrase "so did I" can mean that the speaker also made the same statement or that the speaker also performed the same action (leaving early).

Conclusion Syntactic ambiguity is a fascinating and complex phenomenon that reveals the intricate nature of human language. It challenges linguists, educators, legal professionals, and computer scientists to develop methods and tools for accurate interpretation and communication. Understanding and resolving syntactic ambiguity is crucial for advancing language technologies, improving language education, and ensuring clarity in legal and technical documents. As language continues to evolve, so too will the methods for addressing the rich and varied ambiguities that make human communication both challenging and uniquely expressive.

7.2 Syntactic Disambiguation

Introduction

Syntactic disambiguation refers to the process of resolving syntactic ambiguity and determining the intended meaning of a sentence. Ambiguity arises when a sentence can be interpreted in multiple ways due to its syntactic structure (Van Schijndel, M., & Linzen, T., 2021). Disambiguation is crucial in various fields such as natural language processing (NLP), artificial intelligence

(AI), language education, and legal writing. This comprehensive examination will explore different methods and approaches to syntactic disambiguation, including the use of context, punctuation, word order, and world knowledge. Syntactic disambiguation refers to the process of resolving syntactic ambiguity and determining the intended meaning of a sentence. Ambiguity arises when a sentence can be interpreted in multiple ways due to its syntactic structure. For instance, the sentence "The woman saw the man with the telescope" can mean either the woman used a telescope to see the man or she saw a man who had a telescope. Such ambiguities are prevalent and can lead to misunderstandings if not properly addressed.

Disambiguation is crucial in various fields such as natural language processing (NLP), artificial intelligence (AI), language education, and legal writing. In NLP and AI, resolving syntactic ambiguity is essential for developing systems that can accurately interpret and generate human language, which is fundamental for applications like machine translation, speech recognition, and conversational agents. In language education, teaching students how to recognize and resolve ambiguities enhances their grammatical understanding and communication skills. In legal writing, clarity is paramount to ensure that documents are interpreted as intended, preventing potential disputes and misunderstandings.

Understanding Syntactic Ambiguity

Syntactic ambiguity involves sentences that can be parsed in multiple ways due to their structure. Unlike semantic ambiguity, which deals with the meanings of words, syntactic ambiguity concerns the arrangement and grammatical roles of words and phrases. For example, the sentence "The woman saw the man with the telescope" can be interpreted in two distinct ways:

1. The woman is holding the telescope and uses it to see the man.

2. The man is holding the telescope, and the woman merely sees him. This example highlights how the structure of a sentence can lead to multiple valid interpretations.

Methods of Syntactic Disambiguation

To resolve syntactic ambiguity, various methods and approaches can be employed. These methods leverage different linguistic and contextual cues to determine the intended meaning of a sentence (Loureiro, D., Rezaee, K., Pilehvar, M. T., & Camacho-Collados, J., 2020).

Context

Context plays a crucial role in syntactic disambiguation. The surrounding text or discourse often provides clues that help in resolving ambiguity. For example, consider the sentence:

- "The woman saw the man with the telescope." If the previous sentence mentioned the woman going stargazing, it suggests that the woman is likely holding the telescope, favoring the first interpretation. Contextual information can significantly reduce ambiguity by providing additional details that clarify the meaning.

Examples and Analysis

1. **Example 1: "She saw the man with the binoculars."**
 - Context: If the preceding text discusses a birdwatching trip, it is more likely that the woman is using the binoculars.
2. **Example 2: "He read the book on the table."**
 - Context: If the earlier sentence talks about the man's new book on furniture design, it suggests that the book is about the table.

Resolution Strategies

To leverage context for disambiguation, one can:

1. Analyze the preceding and following sentences to gather clues.
2. Consider the broader discourse or narrative to understand the likely interpretation.
3. Use pragmatic knowledge about the situation to infer the intended meaning.

Punctuation

Punctuation can also play a significant role in syntactic disambiguation. Proper punctuation can help clarify the structure of a sentence and reduce ambiguity. For example, consider the sentence:

- "The woman saw the man with the telescope." Adding a comma after "man" would favor the second interpretation:
- "The woman saw the man, with the telescope." This comma indicates a pause, suggesting that the man has the telescope.

Examples and Analysis

1. **Example 1: "Let's eat, Grandma."**
 - Adding a comma clarifies that the speaker is addressing Grandma, not suggesting eating her.
2. **Example 2: "He said she stole the money."**
 - Punctuation like quotation marks or commas can help clarify whether "he" is quoting someone or making a statement.

Resolution Strategies

To use punctuation for disambiguation, one can:

1. Add commas, semicolons, or other punctuation marks to clarify the intended pauses and separations in the sentence.
2. Consider using quotation marks or parentheses to indicate direct speech or additional information.
3. Reformat the sentence to make the structure more explicit.

Word Order

Changing the order of words in a sentence can often eliminate ambiguity and clarify the intended meaning. For example, consider the sentence:

- "The woman saw the man with the telescope." Reordering the words can remove ambiguity:
- "The woman with the telescope saw the man." This rephrasing clearly indicates that the woman is the one with the telescope.

Examples and Analysis

1. **Example 1: "Only she loves John."**
 - Changing the word order to "She only loves John" clarifies that her affection is exclusive to John.
2. **Example 2: "They promised to go to the party."**
 - Reordering to "To the party, they promised to go" can emphasize the commitment to attending the party.

Resolution Strategies

To use word order for disambiguation, one can:

1. Rephrase the sentence to place modifiers and phrases closer to the words they modify.
2. Ensure that the sentence structure follows a logical and clear sequence.

3. Use active voice and direct sentence construction to minimize ambiguity.

World Knowledge

Our understanding of the world, or world knowledge, can also help us disambiguate sentences. This involves using common sense and background knowledge about the context in which a sentence is used. For example, consider the sentence:

- "The woman saw the man with the telescope." If the sentence is about a pirate ship, we might infer that the captain (the man) is the one holding the telescope, based on our knowledge of pirates and their use of telescopes.

Examples and Analysis

1. Example 1: "The chicken is ready to eat."

- World knowledge suggests that the chicken is prepared to be eaten, rather than the chicken being ready to eat something else.

2. Example 2: "She played with the bat."

- Contextual world knowledge about the setting (e.g., a baseball game or a zoo) can clarify whether "bat" refers to a sports implement or an animal.

Resolution Strategies

To use world knowledge for disambiguation, one can:

1. Apply common sense and background information about the situation.
2. Consider cultural and societal norms that influence the interpretation of the sentence.
3. Use contextual clues from the broader narrative or discourse to inform the likely meaning.

Advanced Approaches in Computational Linguistics

In computational linguistics, advanced methods are used to achieve syntactic disambiguation. These methods often involve probabilistic models, machine learning, and deep learning techniques (Yadav, A., Patel, A., & Shah, M., 2021).

1. **Probabilistic Models** Probabilistic models, such as Hidden Markov Models (HMM) and Conditional Random Fields (CRF), use statistical methods to predict the most likely interpretation of a sentence based on observed data. These models can handle a wide range of ambiguities by leveraging large datasets.
2. **Machine Learning and Deep Learning** Modern approaches often employ machine learning and deep learning techniques to resolve syntactic ambiguities. These models, trained on vast corpora, can learn complex patterns and provide accurate disambiguation. Techniques such as neural networks and transformers have revolutionized the field.
3. **Hybrid Systems** Hybrid systems combine rule-based and probabilistic approaches to leverage the strengths of both. These systems can provide robust solutions by applying rules where appropriate and using statistical methods for more flexible interpretation.

Examples and Case Studies

1. **Natural Language Processing** In natural language processing (NLP), syntactic ambiguity presents challenges for machine translation, information retrieval, and conversational agents. Ensuring accurate and contextually appropriate interpretation is crucial for these technologies.
2. **Legal and Technical Writing** Precision is paramount in legal and technical writing. Ambiguities in legal documents can lead to different interpretations of laws and contracts, potentially causing disputes and misunderstandings. Clear and unambiguous language is essential to avoid legal complications.

3. **Language Education** Teaching syntactic structures and ambiguity is essential in language education. Understanding how sentences can be interpreted differently helps learners develop a deeper grasp of syntax and improve their communication skills. Educators need to highlight these ambiguities to foster better language comprehension.
4. **Cognitive Science** Studying how humans process and resolve syntactic ambiguity provides insights into cognitive processes involved in language comprehension. This research can inform models of human cognition and the development of artificial intelligence. Cognitive scientists examine how the brain handles ambiguous structures and the strategies used to resolve them.

Conclusion

Syntactic disambiguation is a vital aspect of language understanding and processing. By leveraging context, punctuation, word order, world knowledge, and advanced computational techniques, we can effectively resolve ambiguities and achieve clear communication. As language continues to evolve, so too will the methods for addressing the rich and varied ambiguities that make human communication both challenging and uniquely expressive. Understanding and applying these disambiguation strategies are essential for advancements in NLP, AI, language education, legal writing, and cognitive science.

Understanding syntactic ambiguity and disambiguation is important for:

- **Natural language processing:** Computers need to be able to disambiguate sentences to understand their meaning correctly.
- **Effective communication:** Ambiguity can lead to misunderstandings and misinterpretations. Choosing clear

and unambiguous language is crucial for effective communication.

- **Linguistic analysis:** Recognizing and analyzing syntactic ambiguity helps us understand the complexities of language and how sentences are interpreted.

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