

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Sentence Structure

In the book Complete English Grammar Rules by Herring (2016), there are three elements may be contained in a sentence which are a phrase, a clause, and a sentence itself. They are discussed from 2.1.1 to 2.1.3 respectively.

2.1.1 Phrase

Phrases are groups of words that do not have subjects and verbs. they are units of interrelated words (Miller, 2002, p. 1). According to Herring (2016, p.7), phrases are divided into some types, which are: noun phrases, verb phrases, adverb phrases, adjective phrases, prepositional phrases, participle phrases, infinitive phrases, gerund phrases, absolute phrases, and appositive phrases.

2.1.1.1 Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is headed by a noun and modified by determiners or modifiers (Herring, 2016, p. 899). It can consist of a noun head without determiners and or modifiers like “planes”, and “Berlin” and with a determiner and or a modifier like “a lot of planes” and “security guards” (Eastwood, 1994, p. 177), as respectively written bold below.

- (7) Have you ever seen **planes**?
- (8) **Berlin** is a big city.

(9) There are **a lot of planes** landing in Soekarno-Hatta International Airport every day.

(10) Amin and Shafar work as **security guards**.

Here is the potential basic structure of a noun phrase according to Eastwood (1994, p.177).

**Quantifier + Determiner + Adjective Modifier + Noun Modifier +
Noun + Other Modifier**

(11) ...**each of the beautiful carving doors of the house**

The construction (11) is the example of a noun phrase. The noun “doors” in the phrase “each of the beautiful carving doors of the house” is the head of the noun phrase which is modified by the Quantifier “each of”, the determiner “the”, the adjective modifier “beautiful”, the noun modifier “carving”, and the other modifier “of the house”.

Here is the possible structure of a noun phrase stated by Greenbaum & Nelson (2002, p. 48)

Determiner + Pre-Modifier + Noun + Post-Modifier

(12) **some popular books on biology**

In reference to the above structure of a noun phrase, the construction (12) is a noun phrase because “some popular books on biology” is headed by the noun “book” which is modified by the determiner “some”, the pre-modifier “popular”, and the post-modifier “on

biology”.

2.1.1.2 Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is a phrase that is headed by a verb that can take the form of a main verb or an auxiliary verb (Herring, 2016, p. 901). The illustration is written bold below.

(13) She **runs**. (The verb phrase is headed by a main verb.)

(14) He **is a teacher**. (The verb phrase is headed by an auxiliary verb)

2.1.1.3 Adverb Phrase

An adverb phrase is a group of words that roles as an adverb of a sentence (Herring, 2016, p. 920). It may consist of an adverb which being followed by other elements, but not always (Herring, 2016, p. 920). The examples are written bold below.

(15) **Personally**, I like this dessert.

(16) She walks **very slowly**.

(17) They clean the tables **quickly enough**.

2.1.1.4 Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase is headed by an adjective. It consists of at least an adjective (Carter & Michael, 2006, p. 440) that is illustrated in construction (18). It functions as an adjective of a sentence to modify a noun or a pronoun (Herring, 2016, p. 915). It may be followed by modifiers and compliments (Carter & Michael, 2006, p. 440) as exemplified in the sentence (19). The construction “really sure that I can

do this” in the sentence “I am really sure that I can do this.” is an adjective phrase which consists of the adjective “sure” as the head of the phrase, the pre-modifier “really” and the complement “that I can do this”.

(18) You have a **smart** idea.

(19) I am **really sure that I can do this**.

2.1.1.5 Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase is formed from a preposition which functions as the head of the phrase and a complement (Carter & Michael, 2006, p. 462). The complement can be a noun phrase, an *-ing* clause, a *wh*-clause, and sometimes an adverb phrase (Carter & Michael, 2006, p. 462). The illustration is written bold below.

(20) She went **before us**.

(21) He came **in time**.

(22) she moved **to where she was born**.

2.1.1.6 Participle Phrase

Participle phrases consist of participles which act as the heads of the phrases which are accompanied by objects or modifiers (Herring, 2016, p. 903), as written bold in (23) and (24). The word “crying” in the sentence “The crying baby is hungry.” is the head of the participle phrase “Crying baby” and the word “painted” in the sentence “She showed me her painted skin.” is the head of the participle phrase “painted skin”.

(23) The **crying baby** is hungry.

(24) She showed me her **painted skin**.

2.1.1.7 Infinitive Phrase

An infinitive phrase is formed when the infinitive of a verb acts as the head of a sentence that is followed by an object or a modifier (Herring, 2016, p. 922) as illustrated below.

(25) This is a good course **to learn English**.

(26) I need **to talk to her**.

2.1.1.8 Gerund Phrase

A gerund phrase consists of a gerund that acts as the head of a phrase that is accompanied by modifiers and/or objects (Herring, 2016, p. 612). The word “Teaching” in the sentence “My passion is teaching English.” is the head of the gerund phrase “teaching English” and the word “eating” in the sentence “Eating healthy food can save people’s health.” is the head of the gerund phrase “eating healthy food”.

(27) My passion is **teaching English**.

(28) **Eating healthy food** can save people’s health.

2.1.1.9 Absolute Phrase

Absolute phrases are words that group independently which modify or gain information to the whole sentences (Herring, 2016, p. 932). They may be formed from nouns, pronouns, or participles that followed by modifiers or the objects of the participles as illustrated in (29) and (30).

(29) **Hoping to be an English teacher**, she studies in English education study program.

(30) I will travel to UK next year, **God willing**.

7.1.1.10 Appositive Phrase

An appositive phrase is a noun phrase that functions to depict or rename a noun that comes before it (Herring, 2016, p. 905), as shown in (29) and (30).

(31) She told me about Kapuas-river, **the Indonesia's longest river.**

(32) He meets Mr. Park, **an English teacher of him.**

2.1.2 Clause

A clause is a group of word which consists of a subject and a predicate (Herring, 2016, p. 939), as shown in (33).

(33) **...because she gets a new job**

The construction (33) is a clause because "...because she gets a new job" consists of a subject (**she**) and a predicate (**gets**).

There are two types of clauses, they are: independent clauses and dependent clauses (Herring, 2016, p. 938). An independent clause which can also be called a main clause conveys a complete meaning, so that it can stand independently as a sentence (Herring, 2016, p. 938). The examples are written bold below.

(34) **I drink water.**

(35) **I like to study in my campus.**

(36) **The boy in the black jacket played a game.**

A dependent clause which is also known as a subordinate clause is a clause that cannot stand alone as a sentence. It needs an independent clause

to form a complete meaning (Herring, 2016, p. 939). The illustration is written bold below.

(37) **Wherever she goes**, she likes to wear a hat.

(38) He remembers a child **whom he met in the hospital**.

(39) I found it strange **that some people do not know what they are going to be**.

There are three types of dependent clauses: noun clauses, relative clauses, and adverbial clauses (Herring, 2016, p. 939).

2.1.2.1 Noun Clause

A noun clause is a clause that roles as a noun. It means that it can act all the roles of a normal noun could do in a sentence such as a subject or an object of a verb (Herring, 2016, p. 940), as shown in (40) and (41). The clause “whatever she chooses to do” in the sentence “Whatever she chooses to do is fine for me.” becomes the subject of the sentence and the clause “what my mom cooks for dinner” in the sentence “I want to know what my mom cooks for dinner.” becomes the direct object of the verb “know”.

(40) **Whatever she chooses to do** is fine for me.

(41) I want to know **what my mom cooks for dinner**.

2.1.2.2 Relative Clause

A relative clause which is also known as an adjective clause is a dependent clause that modifies a noun. It can be essential to the sentence that is called a restrictive clause or non-essential to the sentence which is

known by a non-restrictive clause (Herring, 2016, p. 940). The clause “who has brown hair” of (42) is the illustration of a non-restrictive relative clause and the clause “that I made” of (43) is the example of a restrictive relative clause.

(42) The boy, **who has brown hair**, is sitting here.

(43) The song **that I made** is being released in December.

2.1.2.3 Adverbial Clause

Adverbial clauses function as adverbs that modify adjectives, verbs, other adverbs, and sometimes entire clauses (Herring, 2016, p. 940). In order to connect to independent clauses, adverbial clauses use subordinating conjunction. The illustration is written bold below.

(44) My son studies better **when he has total privacy**.

(45) My cats are so cute **while they are young**.

The clause “when he has total privacy” in the sentence “My son studies better when he has total privacy.” is the example of the adverbial clause which modifies the adverb “better” and the clause “while they are young” in the sentence “My cats are so cute while they are young.” is the illustration of the adverbial clause which modifies the adjective “cute”.

2.1.3 Sentence

Sentences are groups of words that at least consist of subjects and predicates (Herring, 2016, p. 964). Sentences have a hierarchical design with words grouped together combine with each other to form successively larger structural units (O'grady & Dobrovolsky, 1997, p. 167). At least, it

must consist of one independent clause (Eastwood, 1994, p. 3), as shown in (45).

(45) **She is a student.**

The construction (45) is a sentence because it expresses a complete idea, so it can stand alone as a sentence.

A sentence may be formed by five elements, which are a subject, a predicate, an object, a complement, and an adjunct.

2.1.3.1 Subject

A subject refers to a person or a thing that execute or controls the action of the verb in a sentence (Herring, 2016, p. 839). The illustration is written bold below.

(46) **Lisa** goes to the campus.

2.1.3.2 Predicate

A predicate is the action that is done, executed, and controlled by the subject (Herring, 2016, p. 848), as written bold below.

(47) Jhon **is sitting** on the chair.

2.1.3.3 Object

An object is a noun or a pronoun that a verb or a preposition act (Herring, 2016, p. 867), as shown bold below.

(48) Marry reads **a new book**. (The object “a new book” is getting the action from the verb “reads”.)

(49) I am looking for **work**. (The noun “work” is the object of the preposition “for”, which creates the prepositional phrase for “work”).

2.1.3.4 COMPLEMENT

A Complement is a word or a group of words that contains necessary information to get the intended meaning in the sentence (Herring, 2016). The illustration is written bold below.

(50) I am **a student**.

2.1.3.5 ADJUNCT

Adjuncts are optional words or phrases that modify and enrich the context of verbs in sentences (Herring, 2016, p. 894). The illustration is written bold below.

(51) I go to the library **once a week**.

Sentences have five patterns which are running pattern (Intransitive verbs), being pattern (copula), doing/seeing pattern (monotransitive verbs), giving/buying pattern (ditransitive verbs), and making/considering pattern (complex-transitive verbs).

2.1.3.6 The Running Pattern (Intransitive Verbs)

Sentences with this pattern consist of subjects (S) and predicates (P) (Verspoor & Sauter, 2000, p. 24). Verbs that are used in this pattern express an action involving only one main participant and it may be followed by one

or more adverbials (A) but no direct object nor subject complement (Verspoor & Sauter, 2000, p. 24), as shown in (52).

(52) $\frac{\text{They}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{lived}}{\text{P}} \frac{\text{on treacle.}}{\text{A}}$

2.1.3.7 The Being Pattern (Copula)

Sentences with this pattern consist of subjects (S), predicator (P), and subject complements (SC). The subject complements function to give information about the subjects. This pattern needs verbs that express the sense of mathematical equal sign (=). The most common verb used in this pattern is the lexical verb “be”, but there are a few more verbs may also be used, such as: appear, grow, seem, look, smell, sound, become, prove, taste, feel, turn, and the other. Notably, when the verb be is followed by an adverbial expressing a place as in “I am in the campus” is not used in this pattern but the running pattern (Verspoor & Sauter, 2000, p. 25). The illustration is shown in (53).

(53) $\frac{\text{I}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{am}}{\text{P}} \frac{\text{a hatter.}}{\text{SC}}$

2.1.3.8 The Doing/Seeing Pattern (Monotransitive Verbs)

Sentences with this pattern consist of subjects (S), predicates (P), and direct objects (DO) (Verspoor & Sauter, 2000, p. 26). There are many verbs like doing, such as, holding, counting, building, kicking, and many verbs like seeing that express (mental) experience like feeling, hearing, believing, thinking and the other (Verspoor & Sauter, 2000, p. 26). The illustration is shown in (54).

(54) $\frac{\text{I}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{haven't had}}{\text{P}} \frac{\text{a wrinkle of sleep}}{\text{DO}} \frac{\text{these three weeks.}}{\text{A}}$

2.1.3.9 The Giving/Buying Pattern (Ditransitive Verbs)

Sentences with this pattern consist of subjects (S), predicates (P), direct objects (DO), and indirect objects (IO) (Verspoor & Sauter, 2000, p. 26). There are some verbs used in this pattern such as give, pass, send, tell, make, buy, and the other (Verspoor & Sauter, 2000, p. 26). The illustration is shown in (55).

(55) $\frac{I}{S} \frac{\text{will tell}}{P} \frac{it}{DO} \frac{her.}{IO}$

2.1.3.10 The Making/Considering Pattern (Complex-Transitive Verbs)

Sentences with this pattern consist of subjects (S), predicates (P), direct objects (DO), and object complements (OC). There are some verbs may be used in this pattern such as wipe, drive, call, crown, name, assume, prove, declare, certify, regard, and the other. The illustration is shown in (56)

(56) $\frac{You}{S} \frac{\text{make}}{P} \frac{me}{DO} \frac{\text{giddy.}}{OC}$

In terms of structure, sentences are divided into four categories, they are: simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, and compound-complex sentences (Herring, 2016, p. 969).

2.1.3.11 Simple Sentence

A simple sentence consists of only one independent clause, with a single subject and a predicate, as illustrated in (57) and (58). In the

sentences “she cries” and “the boy jumps”, “she” and “the boys” function as the subjects; “cries” and “jumps” function as the predicates respectively.

(57) **She cries.**

(58) **The boy jumps.**

2.1.3.12 Compound Sentence

Compound sentences have two independent clauses or more that have equal or similar important ideas, joined by commas, conjunctions, or semicolons (Herring, 2016, p. 971), as illustrated in (59), (60), and (61).

(59) **She wants to watch cartoon, but he wants to watch news.**

(Independent clause + comma + conjunction “but” + independent clause)

(60) **She wants to watch cartoon; he wants to watch news.**

(Independent clause + semicolon + independent clause)

(61) **She wants to watch cartoon; however, he wants to watch news.** (Independent clause + semicolon + conjunction

“however” + comma + independent clause)

2.2.3.13 Complex Sentence

A complex sentence consists of an independent clause and a dependent clause that is introduced and linked the independent clause using a subordinating conjunction (Herring, 2016, p. 977), as shown in (62).

(62) **I go to the market because I was out of rice.**

The illustration (62) is the example of a complex sentence. The independent clause “I was out of rice.” in the sentence “I go to the market because I was out of rice.” was transformed into a dependent clause by adding the subordinating conjunction “because”. The subordinating conjunction “because” introduces the dependent clause and specifies its relationship to the independent clause “I go to the market.”

2.2.3.14 Compound-Complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence consists of two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses (Herring, 2016, p. 980). They are joined using coordinating conjunctions, correlative conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, and semicolons (Herring, 2016, p. 982). The illustration is written below.

(63) *Because I love to watch movies, I like to visit movie applications, **and** I enjoy going to cinemas, too.* (In bold is a coordinating conjunction)

(64) *Because I love to watch movies, **I not only** like to visit movie applications, **but** I also enjoy going to cinemas, too.* (In bolds are correlative conjunctions)

(65) *Because I love to watch movies, I like to visit movie applications; **additionally**, I enjoy going to cinemas.* (In bold is a conjunctive adverb)

(66) *Because I love to watch movies, I like to visit movie applications; I enjoy going to cinemas, too.* (In bold is a semicolon)

In each the cases above, in underlines are independent clauses, in italics are dependent clauses, and in bolds are links used to join the independent clauses.

2.2 Novel

A novel is a narration long enough to become a book (Hornby, 2010, p. 1006). It is one of creative literary works in the form of prose (Alviah, 2014, p. 129). It becomes one of media to convey ideas through stories (Ibrahim, 2015, p. 37). Stories, dialogues, or events that occur in the novel contain values, are explicit and or implicit (Setyamoko & Supriyanto, 2017, p. 308). In general, a novel consists of four hundred pages or more than thirty-five thousand words and has a complex storyline.

A novel is built by two elements, namely: intrinsic elements and extrinsic elements. Intrinsic elements are elements that build the literary work itself which may be found if someone reads literature such as themes, plots, characterizations and the others, while Extrinsic elements are elements that are related to the author such as biographies, psychology, environmental conditions and views of life (Hermawan & Shandi, 2018, p. 12).

Nowadays, a novel does not only become a fiction for pleasure reading, but also becomes a media for learning English. Many previous

researchers found that it is an effective media to increase students' English capability. Palupi, Shofiya, and iftanti (2021) conducted the research entitled "Novels Improve Students' English Skill". The result reported that Novels can improve students' English vocabulary and grammar. Rahmijati and Anggraeni (2019) did the research entitled "The Study of the Use of Popular Novels to Improve Reading Interest and English Proficiency". The result reported that novels help students to develop English vocabulary and learn the structure of sentences.