

CHAPTER II

THEORIES AND REVIEW OF PREVIOUS STUDIES

In this chapter, I present theory of literature and review of previous study. Theory of literature which concerns about some theories used in designing this study. The next part is review of previous study is the brief description about theory related to the topic. It is used as the base of thinking.

2.1 Theories

In this part, it will be explain more about the concept of contrastive analysis, concept of syntactic, word order in English, constituent word order and definition of sentence, clasification of sentences and sentences structure of Lio language.

2.1.1 Concept of Contrastive Analysis

The topic of this study is related to the concept of contrastive analysis; therefore, the writer thinks that it is necessary to define what contrastive analysis is. There is various definition of contrastive analysis which is presented by some experts. According to Hastuti (2003: 45), contrastive analysis to discuss two differences and two analyses the differences between them. Guntur Tarigan (1988: 23), contrastive analysis is an activity which tries to compare the structure of L1 and L2 in order to identify the differences between two languages. Lado (1962: 21) introduces contrastive analysis as the comparison between two languages. Lado (1962: 21) introduces contrastive analysis as the comparison of the structures of two languages to determine the point where they differ and the difference is the source of difficulty in learning of

target language. From the definition above we can conclude that contrastive analysis is how we differentiate one language and another that every language has their own characteristic.

According to Sujoko (1989: 1), the contrastive analysis hypothesis is the interfering effect of the first language on the second language learning and claimed, in its strong form, that second language is primarily, if not exclusively, a process of acquiring whatever items are different from the first language. Tarigan (1992: 50) says that at the level of process, we acquaint two versions of contrastive analysis hypothesis. They are 'strong form' and 'weak form'. Strong form hypothesis states that the L2 errors can be predicted by identifying the differences between L1 and L2 which are learned by the learners. Weak form hypothesis states that contrastive analysis has diagnostic characteristics. Therefore, contrastive analysis and error analysis must be mutually complete. Error analysis identifies the errors done by the learners while contrastive analysis determines which the errors by the differences of both languages. In the other hands, contrastive analysis helps to know the strength and the weakness of the learner on the second language learning.

Lee, as quoted by Tarigan (1992: 5) states that the strong form hypothesis of contrastive analysis based on the assumptions as follows:

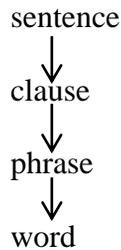
- a. That the prime cause or single cause of difficulty and error in foreign language learning is interference coming from the learner's native language. The difficulty is caused by the differences between L1 and L2.

- b. The greater the differences between L1 and L2 are the more difficult the learning foreign language is.
- c. The results of comparison between two languages are needed to predict the difficulties and errors in learning of foreign language.
- d. Teaching material can be determined exactly by comparing both languages.

Contrastive analysis is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two valued typologies (a contrastive analysis is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared (James, 1980: 3). The term Contrastive Analysis is often compared the same contrastive linguistics both of them are different. It is an applied linguistics for two reasons namely that the Contrastive Analysis is different from the pure linguistics in approaching the other disciplines of knowledge, meanwhile linguistics is used a lot of by Contrastive Analysis (Tarigan, 1992: 60). From the definition above, it can be concluded that contrastive analysis can help in analyzing two differences things.

2.1.2 Concept of Syntactic

The study of English syntax is the study of rules which generate an infinite number of grammatical sentences. These rules can be inferred from observations about the English data. One simple mechanism we recognize is that in forming grammatical sentences, we start from words, or 'lexical' categories. These lexical categories then form a larger constituent 'phrase'; and phrases go together to form a 'clause'. A clause either is, or is part of, a well-formed sentence:



There are some definition of syntax which represented by some experts. Syntax is the branch of grammar which is concerned with the study of the arrangement of words in sentences and of the means by which such relationship are shown, e.g. word order or inflexion (R.R.K. Hartmann and F.C. Stork, 1972). Syntax is the part of grammar that represents a speaker's knowledge of sentences and their structures (Fromkin, 2013: 98). Syntax describes possibilities of co-occurrences and order of constituents (Bonvillain, 2003: 24).

The three definitions emphasize similar points, that is grammatical arrangement of words, sentence structures and order of constituents, it implies that a sentence consist of constituents, and constituents consist of words.

Here are four types of syntactic structure are:

A. Structure of Modification.

It is grammatical structure whose immediate constituents are a head and a modifier (Francis, 1958:296).

For example: small *house*, running *water*, *people* here.

The words in italic are the head and the normal words are modifier.

B. Structure of Predication.

The grammatical structure whose immediate constituents are subject and predicate (Francis, 1958:296).

For example: *people* say, *he* was killed, *Dion* is eating

The words in italic are the subject and the normal words are predicate.

C. Structure of complementation.

The type of grammatical structure whose immediate constituents are verbal element and complement (Francis, 1958:296).

For example: *my brother* is clever, *keep* silent, *be* careful.

Verbal elements stay in the italic words and complements stay in normal words.

D. Structure of Coordination.

Structure of coordination is a grammatical structure consisting of two or more syntactically equivalent units, which may be joined by the coordinator (Francis, 1958:296).

For example: table *and* chair, pen *and* pencil, I was born *and* living in Ende.

The words “and” is a coordinator.

2.1.3 Word Order in English

In linguistics, word order typology is the study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language, and how different languages can employ different orders. Correlations between orders found in different syntactic sub-domains are also of interest. The primary word orders that are of interest are the constituent order of a clause – the relative order of subject, object, and verb; the order of modifiers

(adjectives, numerals, demonstratives, possessives, and adjuncts) in a noun phrase; and the order of adverbials.

Some languages use relatively restrictive word order, often relying on the order of constituents to convey important grammatical information. Others—often those that convey grammatical information through inflection—allow more flexibility, which can be used to encode pragmatic information such as topicalisation or focus. Most languages, however, have a preferred word order, and other word orders, if used are considered "marked".

There are six theoretically possible basic word orders for the transitive sentence. The overwhelming majority of the world's languages are either subject–verb–object (SVO) or subject–object–verb (SOV), with a much smaller but still significant portion using verb–subject–object (VSO) word order. The remaining three arrangements are exceptionally rare, with verb–object–subject (VOS) being slightly more common than object–verb–subject (OVS), and object–subject–verb (OSV) being the rarest by a significant margin.

In English, word order within sentences is more rigid than it is in many other languages, or than it was in English 1.000 years ago. One reason for this is that English has lost most of its original Germanic system of inflections. This was a system of (1) suffixes on nouns and adjectives that reflected the gender, number and case of every noun in a sentence and (2) suffixes on verb that reflected the person and number of the subject noun. Without recourse to this full range of inflections to mark subjects (and objects of various kinds) English came to rely on a more fixed word order to

distinguish subjects from objects. This rather fixed word order operates in conjunction with prepositions, which help to indicate the semantic functions of various objects. The basic underlying word order in an English sentence is:

Example: Niko eats banana
 Subject — Verb ——— Direct Object

Thus, we say that English is an S-V-O language like French, Spanish, and many other languages.

2.1.4 Constituent Word Order

Frequency distribution of word order in languages surveyed by Tomlin (1986). These are all possible word orders for the subject, verb, and object in the order of most common to rarest (the examples use "she" as the subject, "ate" as the verb, and "bread" as the object).

Here are a tabel of constituent word order, as follow:

Word Order	English Aquivalent	Proportion of Languages	Example Language
SOV	“She him loves”	45%	Sanskrit, Hindi, Ancient, Greek, Latin, Japanese, Korean
SVO	“She loves him”	42%	Chinese,English, French.Hausa, Italian, Malay, Russian, Spanish.

VSO	“Loves she him”	9%	Biblical, Hebrew, Arabic, Irish, Filipino, Tuareg-Berber, Welsh
VOS	“Loves him she”	3%	Malagasy, Baure
OVS	“Him loves she”	1%	Apalai, Hixkaryana
OSV	“Him she loves”	0%	Warao, (certain dialect of Korean)

SOV is the order used by the largest number of distinct languages; languages using it include Korean, Mongolian, Turkish, the Indo-Aryan languages and the Dravidian languages. Some, like Persian, Latin and Quechua, have SOV normal word order but conform less to the general tendencies of other such languages. A sentence glossing as "She bread ate" would be grammatically correct in these languages. SVO languages include English, the Romance languages, Bulgarian, Macedonian, Serbo-Croatian, the Chinese languages and Swahili, among others. "She ate bread".

VSO languages include Classical Arabic, Biblical, Hebrew, the Insular Celtic languages, and Hawaiian. "Ate she bread" is grammatically correct in these languages. VOS languages include Fijian and Malagasy. "Ate bread she." OVS languages include Hixkaryana. "Bread ate she." OSV languages include Xavante and Warao. "Bread she ate". Sometimes patterns are more complex: German, Dutch, Afrikaans and Frisian have SOV in subordinates, but V2 word order in main clauses, SVO word order being the most common. Using the guidelines above, the unmarked word order is then SVO.

Many synthetic languages such as Latin, Greek, Persian, Romanian, Assyrian, Russian, Turkish, Korean, Japanese, Finnish, and Basque have no strict word order; rather, the sentence structure is highly flexible and reflects the pragmatics of the utterance.

2.1.5 Definition of Sentence

Sentence is the largest independent unit of grammar. It begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark or exclamation point. The sentence is traditionally defined as a word or group of words that expresses a complete idea and includes a subject and a verb (Halliday, 1985). According to Francis (1958:372), for instance, defined a sentence as much of uninterrupted utterance of a single speaker as is included either between the beginning of utterance and the pause which ends a sentence final contour or between two such pause.

2.1.6 Classification of Sentences

Sentence may be classified according to their purpose. The four types of sentences are declarative, imperative, interrogative, and exclamatory.

- a. A declarative sentence makes a statement. It normally ends with a period. It is the type of sentence used most frequently in speaking and writing (Ackley, 1986: 203).

Example:

Spinal injuries are serious.

The human backbone has thirty-three bones in it.

- b. An imperative sentence gives a command or makes a request. It usually ends with a period. The subject “ you” is understood (Ackley, 1986: 203)

Example:

Stand up straight!

Please use your muscles.

- c. An interrogative sentence asks a question. It ends with a question mark. It often begins with an interogative pronoun or with an auxiliary verb (Ackley, 1986: 203).

Example:

Does your back hurt?

What is the best exercise?

- d. An exclamatory sentence expresses strong emotion. It is a declarative, imperative, or interogative sentence expressed with a strong emotion. The exclamation point at the end of the sentence conveys the strong emotion to the readers (Ackley, 1986: 204)

Example:

Try harder!

How terrific you look!

That’s excellent!

Francis (1958) classified sentences based on their position in the conversation, include situation, sequence and response sentences. Whereas, based on the context sentences are classified into greeting, call, exclamation, question, request and

statement sentence. Although there are many classification of sentences the writer will employ the theory regarding the classification of sentence based on the number and kind of clauses as proposed by Frank (1972: 222) which are classified into four types of sentences will be discussed in the following sections:

1. Simple sentence.

Simple sentence has only one main clause and no subordinate clauses. A simple sentence may have a compound subject or a compound predicate or both. The simple subject and the simple predicate may also be expanded in many other ways. Adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrases, appositives and verbal phrases may make some simple sentences seem anything but simple. Yet as long as the sentence has only one main clause, it remains a simple sentence. (Frank, 1972: 222).

- a. The girls sing. (simple sentence)
- b. The girls and the boys sing. (simple sentence with compound subject)
- c. The girls sing and dance. (simple sentence with compound predicate)
- d. The girls and the boys sing and dance. (simple sentence with compound subject and compound predicate)
- e. The girls and the boys sing and dance together until midnight. (simple sentence expanded).

2. Compound sentence

Compound sentence has two or more main clauses. As the following examples show, each main clause of a compound sentence has its own subject and predicate.

Notice that the main clauses of a compound sentence are usually joined by a comma or a coordinating conjunction such as and, but, or, nor, yet, and for (Frank, 1972: 222).

MAIN CLAUSE 1 MAIN CLAUSE 2

The girls ↓ sing, and the boys ↓ dance

S V S V

MAIN CLAUSE 1 MAIN CLAUSE 2 MAIN CLAUSE 3

The girls ↓ sing, and the boys ↓ dance, but the mothers ↓ cook.

S V S V S V

Two main clauses may also be joined to form a compound sentence by means of a semicolon.

MAIN CLAUSE 1 MAIN CLAUSE 2

The girls ↓ sing; the mothers ↓ cook.

3. Complex Sentence.

Complex sentence is form by join the two simple sentences together to change one of them into a subordinate idea (Frank, 1972: 222).

MAIN CLAUSE SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

The favorite ↓ singer who sang ↓ in the room has gone.

4. Compound Complex Sentence.

Compound Complex Sentence contains two or more independent clauses and one more dependent clauses, or they are achieved by combining together a compound and complex sentence (Frank, 1972: 222)

MAIN CLAUSE 1

↓
The man believed in the sistem,

MAIN CLAUSE 2

↓
and he knew that justice would prevail

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

↓
after that the murder was sent to the jail.

1.1.7 Sentences Structure of Lio Language

A. Sentence of Lio Language.

Sentence is unit of grammatical which is not element from other construction. Here are some definitions of sentence. According to Bloch and Trager (1944: 75) a sentence is an expression, which is not in construction with any other part of the utterance. In the same definition with another statement Hockett (1959: 199) says a sentence is a grammatical form which is not in construction with any other grammatical form: a constitute which s not constituent.

Oni!	“Joni”
Ema	“Father”
La’e	“Not yet”

Three words above is a form of sentence because it is a unit of grammatical which is not in construction with other part of utterance.

Every sentence comprises of two elements. The first element is intonation and the second is clause but there is a sentence which is not clause (Ramlan, 1991: 6).

There are three types of sentence, namely declarative sentence, imperative sentence

and command sentence. It is not too different from English, they have the same definition and the meaning.

B. Types of Sentence

A sentence consists of one clause is simple sentence. It is differentiated into two sentences, namely major sentence and minor sentence.

a. Major Sentence

Major sentence is a simple sentence which has S and P elements. it is also has elements of O and K but it should not have. Major sentence is predicate construction (Sawardo, 1987: 83). There are a formula of major sentence:

$N + (Asp) = N, Kj, Sf, Bil, FD$

Ket: Asp : Aspect Sf : Adjective

N : noun Bil : Numeral word

Kj : Verb FD : Preposition Phrase

There are two formula is written in two position, they are main sentence and complement sentence.

1. Main sentence

Main sentence is a major sentence which has obligatory elements. Based on formula above there are five main sentence patterns in Lio language (Sawardo, 1987: 83).

(a)N + N

e.g:

Ema guru

'My father is a teacher'

Kai kepala sekolah 'He is a headmaster'

Ina Jery 'This is Jery'

(b)N + Kj

e.g:

Dina rio 'Dina swims'

Nene tawa 'Grandmother laughs'

Ebe nonto 'They watch'

Ngi wau 'wind blows'

(c)N + Sf

e.g:

Mamo rango 'Grandfather is sick'

Saoghea ria 'The house is big'

Keti gaga 'Keti is beautiful'

(d)N + Bil

e.g:

Fai kolo telu 'Three wives'

Ana imu sambulu 'Ten children'

rongoeko rua 'Two goats'

(e)N + FD

e.g:

Almari ghea wisu 'Cupboard is in the courner'

Ine leka one sao 'My mother is in the house'

Ema da ghea uma ‘ My father is in the garden’

2. Complement sentence

Complement sentence is a major sentence which has not only S and P elements but it has other elements such as O and K elements (Sawardo, 1987: 84).

b. Minor sentence

Minor sentence is a simple sentence which has not S or P functional elements (Sawardo, 1987: 94).

Example:

Sai? ‘Who?’

Ema? ‘Ayah?’

Oe ‘Yes.’

La’e ‘Not yet.’

C. Compound Sentence in Lio Language.

Compound sentences in Lio Language are not much different from compound sentence in English. In Lio language compound sentences consist of two or more clauses. Based on the relationship between direct elements, compound sentences are divided into two kinds, they are equivalent compound sentence and multilevel compound sentence. There are some examples about equivalent compound sentence and multilevel compound sentence.

Example of equivalent compound sentence:

Sinta mbana de ghea ma'u ta kai iwa sena

*Sinta pergi ke pantai **tetapi** dia tidak menikmatinya*

*Sinta goes to the beach **but** she does not enjoy it.*

Example of multilevel compound sentence:

*Ola nara kau ngala deki **demi** kau kema dema-dema*

*Cita-citamu dapat tercapai **jika** kau berusaha sungguh-sungguh.*

*Your dream will come true **if** you work hard*

Nevertheless, the writer just want to explain more about equivalent compound sentence.

1. Equivalent Compound Sentence

Equivalent Compound Sentence is compound sentence whose relationship properties between direct elements are equivalent, it means one clause is not part of the other clause (Ramlan,1981:28). It can be distinguished based on the structural meaning arising from the relationship between one clause and other clause.

Example: *Aku pake lambu warna meta **no** kai pake lampu warna kune.*

*Saya pakai baju hijau **dan** dia pakai baju kuning*

*I wear a green t-sirt **and** he wears a yellow t-sirt.*

a. Compound Sentences Equivalent to Addition

In this sentence, one clause and another state the meaning of addition, namely the sum of events, the sum of conditions, maybe even the sum of conditions. (Ramlan, 1981: 28). This sentence is indicated by the conjunction *no'o*. It means **and**, but it sometimes pronounced only *no*.

Example:

*Kai mbana da ghea kantor ghe **no'o** ine neku jaka ae*

*Dia pergi ke kantornya **dan** ibunya merebus air*

*He goes to his office **and** my mother boils water*

b. Compound Sentences Equivalent to Sequences.

These equivalent sentences have the nature of relations expressing the sequence of events or conditions between one clause and another (Sawardo, 1987: 95). This sentence is sometimes not indicated by a conjunction. The conjunction that often used is *sawe*, it means **after** or **after that**.

Example:

*Ka **sawe**, aku iwa kelo sika ngi'i.*

***Setelah** makan, tidak lupa aku menggosok gigi.*

***After** I take my breakfast, I do not forget to brush my teeth.*

c. Compound Sentences Equivalent Select.

The nature of the select relationship means the receiver will see in reality only one clause will happen (Sawardo, 1987: 95). The conjunction that often used is *demi* or *ta*, it means **or**.

Example:

*Sapi kau ghea eo ro **demi** iwa na puú ke menga eo mo weé.*

*Sapimu itu kelihatan sakit **atau** mungkin hanya kelelahan.*

*Your cow is sick **or** perhaps he is tired.*

d. Compound Sentence Equivalent Contention.

This compound sentence is characterized by the structural meaning of the clause which is one that is contradicted or rejected by another clause (Sawardo, 1987: 95). The appropriate usage of conjunction is *ta* or *di*, it means **but**.

Example:

*Aji kai nuwa jie, **ta** kasia kai bhongo dema.*

*Adiknya cantik sekali, **tetapi** dia sangat bodoh.*

*Her daughter is so beautiful, **but** she is stupid.*

e. Compound Sentence Equivalent Level.

This sentence has a structural meaning that the next clause exceeds what was stated in the previous clause (Sawardo, 1987: 96). The conjunction that often used are *mala*, *ele mesi* it means **even** or **though**.

Example:

*Kai biasa ro, **mala** nebu ina to'o talo sawe leka ola ero kai.*

*Dia sering sakit, **bahkan** sekarang ia tidak bisa bangun dari tempat tidur.*

*He is often sick, **even** he cannot wake up from his bed.*

f. Compound Sentence Equivalent Cause.

This sentence has a structural meaning that the second clause is the reason or the cause from the first clause. The conjunction that often used in this sentence is *ngai pu'u*, it means **for**.

Example :

Nua Raja no'o Kaja jadi dowo sera ngai pu'u tana mbe'bho melo ae mesi nai

Kampungnya Raja dan Kaja menjadi dangkalan karena terjadi gempa dan tsunami

Raja and Kaja 's village became a shallows for there were a quake and tsunami

2.2 Review of Previous Studies

Bernadus (2003), conducted a study entitled “A constractive study on the basic sentence petterns of English and those of Imulolong dialect”. The writer wanted to identify the basic structure patterns of Imalolong dialect and to know the similarities and differences between the sentence petterns of Imulolong dialect and those English. The writer used ten informants of each village randomly.The procedure used in completing the data was interview.

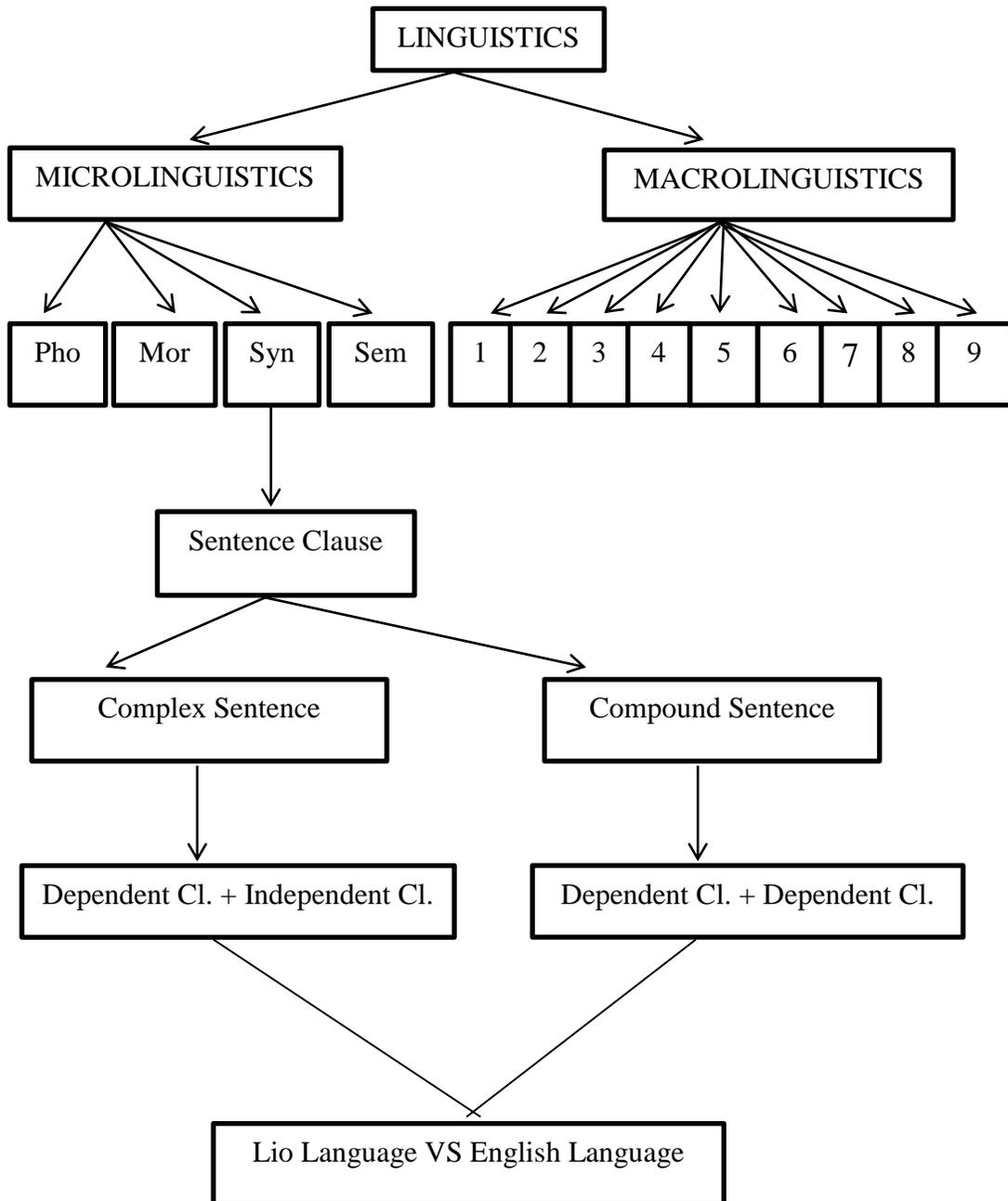
According to the explanation above,there is a weakness of the study is he get ten informants from several villages. I think it is too difficult and it is not efficiency. Why he could not only take ten informants from one village. It is more help him to gather the data and do not waste time. From the research aboveHe found that the basic sentence petterns of both languages were equivalent in forms but they have the same meaning. The other result was the element of grammar show that there were differences and similarities. So the conclusion is every language has their own structure whereas between one language and another sometimes have the same form or meaning.

Margareta (2007), conducted a study entitled “ A study on the structure of complementation of Kemak language in comparison with English”. The writer wanted

to identify and describe the pattern of structure of complementation of Kemak language and to know the differences and similarities between Kemak language and English. The writer used survey method and the instrument that she used was translation. The writer found that the structure of complementation of Kemak language has two component: the verbal element and complement and they are the same as English.

According to the explanation above, I can say that the study had the strength and the weakness. The strength of the study are she conducted the study use comparative method which is helps her to analyze the data easier and addition she conducted the study in her mother tongue. She gets much information from the informants although she just chose two informants to be the sampel. The weakness of the study is she conducted the study used a survey method so she took eleven days to got the data. So the conclusion is the structure of Kemak language and those English has the same structure whereas it have a little bit differences.

2.3 Research Model



Remarks:

Pho: Phonology

Mor: Morphology

Syn: Syntax

Sem: Semantics

1. Cultural Linguistics
2. Psycholinguistics
3. Sociolinguistics
4. Anthropological Linguistics
5. Stylistics
6. Language Teaching
7. Mathematical and Statistical Linguistics
8. Philosophical Linguistics
9. Ecolinguistics