**CHAPTER II**

**THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

1. **Contrastive Analysis**

Contrastive analysis refers to an activity that tries to compare between English and Indonesia language structures, to identify the differences between both languages and their 'similarities. CA is a work procedure of language activities comparing the structure of LI and L2 or any languages and identifying their differences from the two languages.[[1]](#footnote-1) This is important because the greatest obstacle in the process of mastering L2 is the mix up between the system of LI into L2. CA tries to overcome this problem by contrasting the system of both languages to predict the difficulties that commonly happen.

Contrastive analysis is often called contrastive linguistic. Contrastive linguistic is a branch of linguistics that compares between two languages synchronically so the similarities and differences be clear. The idea of contrastive analysis grew out of observing students learning a second language. Each student or group of students tended to repeat the same linguistic mistakes as previous groups. This turned into an assumption that the mistakes were caused by the student’s first language or regional language interfering with the second. This interference happened because the student applied the first language’s rules to the second language, much in the same way children apply the rules of regular words to irregular ones.

There is various definition of contrastive analysis which is presented by some experts. According to Jacek Fisiak, contrastive Analysis is a sub discipline of linguistics that is deals with the comparison of two or more languages in order to determine both the differences and similarities that hold between them.[[2]](#footnote-2) Stigg Johansson in his report from the project *Languages in Contrast* no. 3, October 2000, stated “Contrastive linguistics is the systematic comparison of two or more languages, with the aim of describing their similarities and differences.”[[3]](#footnote-3)

Then, the similar definition found in A *Glossary of Applied Lingustics* by Alan Davies, he simply stated that Contrastive Analysis makes comparison between Lx (source language) and Ly (target language).[[4]](#footnote-4)

From these explanation, it can be drawn the conclusion that what is meant by the term contrastive analysis is the study and comparison of two languages, learners’ target language and learners’ native language. Furthermore, contrastive analysis can help difficulties that may be experienced by a person while learning or teaching two different languages in the same time especially to cope difficulties and language errors committed by students.

However the theoretical foundations for what became known as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis were formulated in Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures*. In this book, Lado claimed that "those elements which are similar to [the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult".[[5]](#footnote-5) This involved describing the languages, comparing them and predicting learning difficulties.

According to Tarigan, CA has some essential contributions in teaching-learning process. These may be clearly seen as follows:

1. Constructing language teaching materials which are based on the divergent aspects of the two languages being leamt.
2. Constructing the system of pedagogical language which is based on the linguistic theory.
3. Arranging the class properly, in which the first language is applied to help in learning the second language.
4. Presenting the language materials directly by:
5. Showing the structural differences between the languages.
6. Showing the structural aspects of the first language which causes possible difficulties or errors in the second language.
7. Suggesting the ways of how to overcome the interferences.
8. Giving the exercise intensively to the aspects which are divergent.[[6]](#footnote-6)

The CA as one of the fields of stitches in language teaching gives favors toward composing the grammatical education. This contrastive attainment can give beneficial contributions for implementing the direct instruction of language. We can predict difficulties probably found in learning. Thus it can be used to tackle difficulties found.

Robert Lado explained that there are procedures in comparing two grammatical structures:[[7]](#footnote-7) *general procedure*, the analyzing of the foreign language and compare it structure by structure with the native language. And the other is *more specific procedure*, since it needed to illustrate the procedure in greater detail. This consists of three steps:

1. Locate the best structural description of the language involved.
2. Summarize in compact outline form all the structure.
3. Actual comparison of the two language structures, pattern by pattern.

Moreover most contrastive linguists have either explicitly or implicitly made use of translation as a means of establishing cross-linguistic relationships, and in his book on contrastive analysis Carl James reaches the conclusion that translation is the best basis of comparison: We conclude that translation equivalence, of this rather rigorously defined sort (including interpersonal and textual as well as ideational meaning) is the best available TC (Tertium Comparationis) for CA (contrastive analysis).[[8]](#footnote-8) So, next the technique of translation equivalence is going to be used in this research.

Refers to Peter Newmark (1988), translation is a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written massage and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language.[[9]](#footnote-9) And another definition of translation is converting one language (SL) to another (TL) so that the TL could convey the intended message in SL. In other words, it is a process through which the translator decodes SL and encodes his understanding of the TL form.[[10]](#footnote-10) In short, the definitions of translation above indicate that translation is a process of replacing a message of one language to another that must have similar or equivalent meaning.

Moreover, by the time learner learns foreign language, he/she consciously or not would make such translating the message from target language to native language or vice versa. The process must be happened naturally to get comprehension about the messages. In this case, the data from the students show their understanding about the sentences that they should convert into target language.

However, in doing the translation, the learners certainly do some procedures, as Nida and Taber define one of the system of translation consists of a more elaborate procedure comprising three stages, they are:[[11]](#footnote-11)

1. Analysis, in which the surface structure (*i.e.* the message as given in language A) is analyzed in terms of the grammatical relationship and the meaning of the words and combinations of words,
2. Transfer, in which the analyzed material is transferred in the mind of the translator from language A to language B,
3. Restructuring, in which the transferred material is restructured in order to make the final message fully acceptable in the receptor language.

Consequently, in the matter of translation, having the same meaning of the messages in either languages is important, or the equivalence meaning which presented in different codes -both languages. Since one of the most serious problems of contrastive studies is the problem of equivalence. Vinay and Darbelnet view a definition of equivalence in translation or equivalence oriented translation as a procedure which 'replicates the same situation as in the original, whilst using completely different wording'.[[12]](#footnote-12) In other words, the equivalence means the same meaning through presented in different words.

Therefore in assessing translation equivalence between source text and target text, J. C. Catford offers other dimension of correspondence, namely textual equivalence that is any TL text or portion of text is observed to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text.[[13]](#footnote-13)

So the writer uses translation equivalence in analyzing the data, since it as the TCs for grammatical studies. James considers translation equivalence to the best TC for CA, provided it embraces both semantic and pragmatic equivalence.[[14]](#footnote-14)

Finally in analyzing and comparing the declarative sentences next the writer is going to provide thirty five sentences in Indonesian language, which are given to the Indonesian learner. Then they have to write the translations in English. The errors they made were analyzed, to see which errors could be attributed to transfer.

1. **Sentences**

The term sentence is derived from Latin *sententia*, which literally meant feeling or opinion. A traditional way of defining a sentence is something that expresses a complete thought.[[15]](#footnote-15) There are many definitions of sentence, according to Michael Swan, a sentence usually has at least one subject and verb and consists of one or more clauses. In writing sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark.[[16]](#footnote-16) Marjolijn Verspoor and Kim Sauter states thatan utterance that expresses a feeling or opinion, but a more technical definition would be a grammatically self-contained speech unit consisting of a word, or a syntactically related group of words that expresses an assertion, a question, a command, a wish, or an exclamation, which in writing usually begins with a capital letter, ends punctuation mark.[[17]](#footnote-17) While Charles W Kreidler defined a sentence, on the other hand, is not an event; it is a construction of words (in English or whatever language) in a particular sequence which is meaningful (in that language).[[18]](#footnote-18)

From some sense above, the writer can summary that sentence is a group of words that expresses a statement, command, question or exclamation. A sentence consists of one or more clauses, and usually has at least one subject and verb. In writing, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark.

1. The Function of Sentences

Sentence can be used to do many different things. The most common used to give information. Sometimes it is used to obtain information, rather than to give it. Another time it can be used to express an opinion, give an order, make a suggestion, or make a promise. And all of the functions expressed by the order of words which indicates which way a sentence is being used. And these ways of distinguishing between uses of language are known as examples of mood.[[19]](#footnote-19)

1. The Types of Sentences

All of the types of English sentence have a big influence for English learners. Therefore, learning type of sentence will help them to solve their problems in learning English.

Sentence has four type’s simple, complex, compound, and compound-complex sentence. The first type of sentence is simple sentence. A simple sentence is a sentence which has one subject and one predicate. Secondly, a compound sentence is a sentence that contains two or more simple sentence. The third type is complex sentence. A complex sentence is a sentence that contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. And the last type is compound-complex sentence, a sentence that has two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clause.

Meanwhile, beside has four type sentence also has four functions declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative sentence.

1. Declarative Sentence

Declarative sentence is a sentence which makes a statement, in positive or negative, it begins with a capital letter and end with a period. Declarative sentences are the most straightforward sentence type. They are syntactic configurations which usually display an unmarked (i.e. expected) order of the functional categories subject, predicator, direct object, etc.[[20]](#footnote-20) Here are two examples of declarative sentences:

1. My Father likes books.
2. You haven’t closed the door.
3. Interrogative Sentence

Interrogative Sentence is a sentence that used to ask question, begins with capital letter and end with a question mark (the subject and auxiliary are often reserved) in writing. Interrogative sentences are normally used to ask questions, in the spoken language, most yes-no questions end with a rise in pitch; most interrogative-word question end with a fall in pictch:[[21]](#footnote-21)

1. How did you open the door?
2. Will you dance with me?
3. Imperative Sentence

Imperative sentence is a sentence which gives a command or makes a request, normally interpreted as directives ends with a period in writing and a drop in pitch in speech. In imperative sentence only the predicate is expressed. The simple form of the verb is used, regardless of person or tense:[[22]](#footnote-22)

1. Don’t move!
2. Don’t eat that sandwich
3. Exclamatory Sentence

Exclamatory sentence is sentence that shows excitement or expresses strong feeling. An exclamatory sentence, one that makes a forceful utterance, ends in an exclamation mark (or point).[[23]](#footnote-23) Exclamatives, like the open interrogatives, are formed with an initial Wh-word:

1. What a load of nonsense he talks!
2. How absolutely disgraceful he looks!
3. **Declarative Sentences**

The declarative mood is the mood used in most main clauses. It sometimes called as indicative mood. Declarative Sentences are used to convey information or to make or form statements. They state a fact or an argument.[[24]](#footnote-24)They consist of a subject and a predicate. The subject may be a simple subject or a compound subject. The subject is placed in front of the verb. In other words, in a declarative sentence the subject and predicate have a normal word order. The sentence ends with a period (called a full stop in British English) in writing and a drop in pitch in speech. It may take the passive and negative form.

In most English declarative sentences, the noun phrase that precedes the verb is the subject, and one that immediately follows the verb is a direct object.

1. The Function of Declarative Sentences

The declarative sentences can be used for:[[25]](#footnote-25)

1. Giving information

E.g. *They ate dinner at five.*

1. Expressing opinion

E.g. *I think he is a brilliant creator.*

1. Making promises

E.g. *I shall do everything I can to help her.*

1. Making emphasis

E.g. *I do feel sorry for Barra.*

1. Confirming that something is true, it is used as a question.

Questions expressed in the declarative mood often begin with a conjunction.

E.g. *So you admit something is wrong?*

When you ask a question using the declarative mood, you expect the answer ‘yes’, unless you use a negative construction, in which case you expect the answer ‘no’.

E.g. *You mean it’s still here? – ‘Of course.’*

You never learned the deaf and dumb alphabet? – ‘No, never.’

1. Instructing, means give an instruction in a fairly informal way with ‘you’ as the subject.

E.g. You put the month and the temperature on the top line.

1. The Patterns of Declarative Sentences
   1. The Indonesian Declarative Sentences

The pattern of declarative sentences in Indonesian language based on *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia* is as described in the following table:[[26]](#footnote-26)

**Table 2.1**

**Indonesian Declarative Sentence Patterns**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **FungsiTipe** | **Subjek** | **Predikat** | **Objek** | **Pelengkap** | **Ket.** |
| S-P | Orang itu  Saya | sedang tidur  mahasiswa | -  - | -  - | -  - |
| S-P-O | Ayahnya  Dewi | membeli  mendapat | mobil baru  hadiah | -  - | -  - |
| S-P-Pel | Beliau  Pancasila | menjadi  merupakan | -  - | ketua koperasi  dasar negara kita | -  - |
| S-P-Ket | Kami  Kecelakaan itu | tinggal  terjadi | -  - | -  - | di Jakarta  minggu lalu |
| S-P-O-Pel | Dia  Dian | mengirimi  mengambilkan | Ibunya  adiknya | Uang  air minum | -  - |
| S-P-O-Ket | Pak Bayu  Beliau | memasukan  memperlakukan | Uang  Kami | -  - | ke bank  dengan baik |

Moreover, Dr Liaw Yock Fang in his book *Indonesian Grammar Made Easy* provides some patterns that similar with theprevious pattern. He explained there are six basic sentence patterns inIndonesian, they are:

1. Subject-Complement (S-C)

In this pattern, sentences can be built by adding a noun, an adjective, a prepositional phrase or a numeral to the subject.

1. Subject-Predicator-Adverbial (S-P-A)

The predicator in an S-P-A sentence may be a simple intransitive verb without any affixes. It may also take the prefix *ber-, me-*, or *ter-.* Adverbial is an option element.

1. Subject-Predicator-Object-Adverbial (S-P-O-A)

The predicator in an S-P-O-A sentence may be a simple verb without any affixes. It may also take the following affixes *men-, -I, men-I, meper-I, -kan, men-kan*. Adverbial is an optional element. An S-P-O-A sentence is also known as a monotransitive sentence (kalimat ekatransitif).

1. Subject-Predicator-Complement-Adverbial (S-P-C-A)

The complement in S-P-C-A sentence may be a noun phrase, an adjective, or a noun preceded by an adjective as predicator.

1. Subject-Predicator-Object-Complement (S-P-O-C)

The complement in an S-P-O-C sentence may be an adjective, a noun phrase or a verb. The complement is called object complement, because it follows an object.

1. Subject-Predicator-Object-Object (S-P-O-O)

An S-P-O-O sentence has two objects; the first is called indirect object and the second direct object. The indirect object is often the beneficiary of an action. Hence an S-P-O-O sentence, also known as a bitransitive sentence (kalimat dwitransitif), is a sentence with bitransitive verb (*verbal dwitransitif*).

Actually in the simple way basic pattern of Indonesian sentences could be divided into three patterns according to Gorys Keraf, they are:[[27]](#footnote-27)

1. *Pola Kalimat I* : Kata Benda – Kata Kerja (KB-KK)
2. *Pola Kalimat II* : Kata Benda – Kata Sifat (KB-KS)
3. *Pola Kalimat III* : Kata Benda – Kata Benda (KB-KB)

In other words, the patterns of Indonesian declarative sentences may consist of arrangement of noun phrase followed by verb phrase, adjective phrase, or noun phrase. Furthermore, declarative sentences could be classified into seven categories seen from its clause:[[28]](#footnote-28)

1. *Kalimat Verbal monotransitif* or monotransitive sentence
2. *Kalimat Verba Bitransitif* or bitransitive sentence
3. *Kalimat Verba Intransitif* or intransitive sentence
4. *Kalimat Nominal* or nominal sentence
5. *Kalimat Adjektifal* or adjectival sentence
6. *Kalimat Preposisional* or prepositional sentence
7. *Kalimat Numeral* or numeral sentence
   1. The English Declarative Sentences

In the Grammar of Spoken and Written English explained there are major clause patterns[[29]](#footnote-29) that indicate declarative sentence patterns, they are:

1. Subject-Verb Phrase
2. Subject-Verb Phrase-Obligatory Adverbial
3. Subject-Verb phrase-Subject Predicative
4. Subject-Verb phrase-Direct Object
5. Subject-Verb phrase-Prepositional Object
6. Subject-Verb phrase-Indirect Object-Direct Object
7. Subject-Verb phrase-Direct Object-Prepositional Object
8. Subject-Verb phrase-Direct Object-Object Predicative
9. Subject-Verb phrase-Direct Object-Obligatory Adverbial

In addition, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman in their *The Grammar Book* expressed that there are five basic simple sentencepatterns in English, they are:[[30]](#footnote-30)

1. Type *SVC (*S V intensive C subject-comp)

E.g. *Mary is Kind.*

1. Type *SVA (*S Vintensive Aplace)

E.g. *Mary is in the house.*

1. Type *SV (*S Vintrans)

E.g. *The child was laughing.*

1. Type *SVO (*S Vmonotrans Odirect)

E.g. Somebody caught the ball.

1. Type SVOC (S Vcomplex-trans Odirect Cobject-comp)

E.g. We have proved him wrong.

1. Type SVOA (S Vcomplex-trans Odirect Aplace)

E.g. I put the plate on the table.

1. Type SVOO (S Vditrans Oindirect Odirect)

E.g. She gives me expensive present.

1. **The Comparison on the Patterns of Indonesian and English Declarative Sentences**

Moreover, the writer would like to present the comparison between the patterns of simple declarative sentences in languages, Indonesian and English language, as described in the following table.

**Table 2.2**

**Comparison on Indonesian and English Declarative Sentences**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **NO.** | **CATEGORY** | **INDONESIAN** | **ENGLISH** |
| 1 | Transitive | SPO(A)  SPOC | SVO  SVOC  SVOA |
| 2 | Bitransitive | SPOO | SVOO |
| 3 | Intransitive | SPA  SPCA | SV |
| 4 | Nominal | SC | **-** |
| 5 | Adjectival | **SC** | **-** |
| 6 | Prepositional | **SC** | **-** |
| 7 | Numeral | SC | **-** |
| 8 | Intransitive Verb | **-** | SVC  SVA |

This table shows us the patterns of declarative sentences; either in Indonesian and in English, which cover all types of simple declarative sentences, including transitive sentence with transitive verb that needs an object as the predicate; bitransitive sentence whose two objects (direct and indirect objects); intransitive sentence with intransitive verb that does not need any objects as the predicate; nominal, adjectival, prepositional, numeral sentence with complement as their predicate that exist in Indonesian declarative sentences. Then two sentence patterns with intensive verbs (verb “to be”) as the predicate that only exist in English declarative sentences.

1. **The Differences and Similarities between Indonesian and English Declarative Sentence**

The comparison of the pattern of declarative sentences in both languages above shows there are differences and similarities among the patterns in the two languages. First, the difference found in the Pattern *Subject-Complement* (SC) in Indonesian language (see no. 4 up to 7) that is the declarative sentence patterns for equational or nominal sentence, adjectival sentence, prepositional sentence, and numeral sentence, which is not found in English.

In Indonesian, this pattern is acceptable as grammatical sentence; while in English is not, the pattern is considered as ungrammatical sentence, since the rule of English predicate of a sentence must be in verb phrase -auxiliary verbs, linking verbs, or action verbs.

Next, the difference is found in English declarative sentence (see no. 8). There are patterns of SVA (e.g. Mary is kind.) and SVC (e.g. Mary is in the house.). The verbs in these patterns are intensive verb (followed by Cs – subject complement- and Aplace –adverbial of place).[[31]](#footnote-31) The verb usually is copula or verb “to be”. In contrast, there is no such pattern similar in Indonesian declarative sentences, since Indonesian has no verb “to be”.

However, because of the influence of English, a sort of Indonesian copula verb i.e. *adalah* or *ialah* is often inserted between the subject and its complement.[[32]](#footnote-32) In other words, the English pattern of SVC can be used for Indonesian adjectival sentence (SC). Also the pattern SVA in English represents the Indonesian prepositional sentence (SC).

Then, other difference lays in the one of the sentence elements that construct the sentence, it is the predicate. The predicate of English must in verb phrase; while in Indonesian it could be in verb phrase, adjective, noun phrase, numeral and prepositional. However for the others elements are likely similar in the two languages. The following table will give further description.

**Table 2.3**

**Element of Sentence**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **INDONESIAN** | **ENGLISH** |
| Subject   * A noun * Noun phrase * A clause * Verb phrase | Subject   * Noun phrase * A clause with nominal function |
| Predicate   * Verb phrase * Adjectival phrase * Noun phrase * Numeral phrase * Prepositional phrase | Predicates   * *Verb phrase, English has three main kinds of verbs: auxiliary verbs, linking verbs, and action verbs.* |
| Object   * A noun * Noun | Object   * Noun phrase * A clause with nominal function |
| Complement   * A noun * Noun phrase * Verb phrase * Adjectival phrase * Prepositional phrase * A clause | Complement   * A noun phrase * An adjective phrase * A clause with nominal function |
| Adverbial   * Noun phrase * Prepositional phrase * Adverbial phrase * A clause | Adverbial   * An adverb/adverb phrase * Adverbial clause * Noun phrase * Prepositional phrase |

Besides the differences found in the pattern of declarative sentences of both languages, the similarities are also found, that are: the others patterns of declarative sentence that presented in the table (see no. 1 up to 3) are acceptable in both Indonesian and English sentences. In view of the rest of patterns have verb phrase as predicate of the sentences, which considered as grammatical sentence in the two languages.

And then other similarity also found concerning the elements of sentence in the declarative sentences between Indonesian and English language. Both of them consists of the two main elements of sentence, that are subject and predicate, while the others elements such as complement, adverbial, adjective, etc. have role as completion of the sentences.

Summing up the differences between Indonesian and English declarative sentences are:

1. Indonesian has SC pattern in the equational or nominal sentence, adjectival sentence, prepositional sentence, and numeral sentence. In this pattern, the predicate is complement.
2. English declarative sentence pattern has SVA and SVC pattern with intensive verb or copula (verb “to be”) as the predicates.
3. In Indonesian, predicate of a sentence may in verb phrase, adjectival phrase, noun phrase, numeral phrase, and prepositional phrase.
4. English predicate of a sentence must in verb phrase: auxiliary verbs, linking verbs, or action verbs.

In addition the similarities between Indonesian and English declarative sentences are:

1. Some of declarative sentence patterns are similar in both languages that are in transitive, intransitive, and bitransitive sentences.
2. The major elements of declarative sentences in the two languages are subject and predicate, and the rest of elements required are as the complementation.

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16. Michael Swan, *Practical English Usage,* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1996), xxvii. [↑](#footnote-ref-16)
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18. Charles W Kreidler, *Introducing English Semantics*, (London: Routledge, 1998), 27. [↑](#footnote-ref-18)
19. Collins Cobuild, *English Grammar*, (London: HarperCollins Publisher, 1992), p. 195. [↑](#footnote-ref-19)
20. Bas Aarts*, English Syntax and Argumentation,* (New York: Palgrave Publishers, 2001), p.59 [↑](#footnote-ref-20)
21. Bas Aarts*, English Syntax and Argumentation,* (New York: Palgrave Publishers, 2001), p.59 [↑](#footnote-ref-21)
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25. Collins Cobuild, (1992), *English Grammar*, … pp. 196-197. [↑](#footnote-ref-25)
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