CHAPTER II
THEORY REVIEW

2.1 The Concept of Syntax

Traditionally, the syntax is considered as the study of the combination properties of sentences and their parts. Therefore, as syntax is the study of the study of combinations of properties of sentences, it is part of grammar. Chomsky (as cited in Purnomoadjie & Mulyadi, 2019, p. 57) states that syntax is the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages. In syntax, people learn how a sentence can be arranged using a language. In this arrangement there are also rules and principles that must be followed. With these rules, people will understand each other's sentences.

The same thing was expressed by several experts as follows. Mariani et al. (2019, p. 15) explain that the syntax is defined as the study of arrangements of words into phrases, clauses, and sentences or syntactical constructions. Wafi (as cited in Purnomoadjie & Mulyadi, 2019, p. 57) states that English syntax discusses about the system of rules and categories that allows words to be combined to form sentences. From this opinion, it can be seen that syntax is the study of how a word is arranged into a phrase, phrases are arranged into clauses, and clauses are arranged into a sentence. In its construction, there is a system of rules and categories which enables a person to form sentences and their variations.

By understanding the syntax, one can also find out how humans can produce infinite and varied sentences.

Fromkim et al. (2014, p. 77) state that the part of grammar that represents a speaker's knowledge of sentences and their structures is called syntax. From this opinion, it can be seen that the main study of syntax also includes how a person's knowledge in making sentences in his mind is explained. Syntax also has several important roles in understanding sentence structure or in other words how the language is arranged and the meaning in it.

Fromkim et al. (2014, p. 80) also explain that syntactic rules reveal the grammatical relations among the words of a sentence as well as their order and hierarchical organization. In one of its roles, syntax describes how the order of words, phrases, clauses and sentences in the language. If an arrangement is wrong, then someone will realize that the arrangement is wrong. Fromkim et al. (2014, p. 80) also explain that syntax also explains how the grouping of words relates to its meaning, such as when a sentence or phrase is ambiguous. By using tree diagrams, it can be seen that two sentences that are the same, with different meanings, will have a different tree structure.

Fromkim et al. (2014, p. 80) adding that in addition the rules of syntax permit speakers to produce and understand a limitless number of sentences never produced or heard before — the creative aspect of linguistic knowledge. The rules of syntax can create a new language that is grammatically correct. Therefore, every year the dictionary will always be updated, because there are new

vocabulary words. Likewise, there are also variations of new sentences that fill books, internet articles, and even contents on YouTube.

In conclusion, syntax is a branch of linguistics that studies how a phrase, clause and sentence is formed using certain rules. Syntax rules can also explain how words or sentences are in order, how they relate to their meanings, how to understand an ambiguous sentence, and how a new word or sentence can be formed.

2.2 Syntactic Category

The syntax category is related with noun, verb, preposition, adjective, and adverb, or also called part of speech. Fromkim et al. (2014, p. 84) explain that a family of expressions that can substitute for one another without loss of rammaticality is called a syntactic category. Fromkim et al. (2014, p. 86) also explain that syntactic categories include both phrasal categories such as NP (Noun Phrase), VP (Verb Phrase), AP (Adjective Phrase), PP (Prepositional Phrase), and AdvP (Adverbial Phrase), as well as lexical categories such as N (Noun), V (Verb), P (Preposition), A (Adjective), and Adv (Adverb). According to this definition, words or phrases that can be replaced with other words or phrases are called syntactic categories. For example, noun the horse can be replaced with it. Fromkim et al. (2014, p. 86) give examples of syntactic categories:

1. Phrasal categories

The following are include in the phrasal categories and also the examples:

a. Noun Phrase (NP) *men*, *the man*, *the man with a telescope*

b. Verb Phrase (VP) *sees*, *always sees*, *rarely sees the man*, *often sees the man with a telescope*

c. Adjective Phrase (AP) *happy*, *very happy*, *very happy about winning*

d. Prepositional Phrase (PP) *over*, *nearly over*, *nearly over the hill*

e. Adverbial Phrase (AdvP) *brightly*, *more brightly*, *more brightly than the Sun*

2. Lexical categories

The following are include in lexical categories and also the examples:

a. Noun (N) *puppy*, *boy*, *man*, *soup*, *happiness*, *fork*, *kiss*, *pillow*

b. Verb (V) *find, run, sleep, throw, realize, see, try, want, believe*

c. Preposition (P) *up, down, across, into, from, by, with, over*

d. Adjective (A) *red, big, happy, candid, hopeless, fair, idiotic, lucky*

e. Adverb (Adv) *again, always*, *brightly*, *often*, *never*, *very*, *fairly*.

2.3 Syntactic Unit

Syntactic unit consists of elements that make up a sentence, namely words, phrases, clauses and sentences.

1. Words

The word is one of the syntax units, and is the smallest unit among the other units. Mariani et al. (2019, p. 47) state that the smallest units of syntax are words. Morley (2000, p. 26) states that the word is the basic unit of syntax,

orthographically, words are typically bounded by a blank space either side of them. Each word has its own class. Fabb (2005, p. 11) explains that every word belongs to a word class, such as noun, verb, adjective, article, conjunction, etc. other names for word class are category or part of speech. The word class or also called a category determines the type of phrase that will be formed by two or more word combinations.

2. Phrases

Phrase is a unit of syntax which consists of compound words. A phrase in meaning terms expresses one of the elements of a proposition. Morley (2000, p. 26) empashizes that trammatically, it is the grouping of one or more words which together fulfil the role that in other circumstances might be expressed by a single word. Fabb (2005, p. 20) also explains that category phrases are influenced by the head, which is a word belonging to a certain class of words. Phrase and its head share the same category: hence a noun is a head of a noun phrase. There are 5 types of phrases.

The first is nominal phrases. Morley (2000, p. 53) states that nominal phrases have a noun or pronoun as its headwod. Examples of nominal phrases are *rights and obligations, the afterlife, inner and outer, and just and prosperous*. The second is verbal phrases. Morley (2000, p. 55) explains that verbal phrases have a verb as a headword, which is the main verb. For examples: *go away, make up, take off, stand up off, call on.* The third is adjectival phrases. The adjectival phrases are phrases that have an adjective headword. For example: *I took the <u>broken bicycle</u> to the garage to be repaired*. The fourth is prepositional phrases;

Morley (2000, p. 55) explains that prepositional phrase is comprises a preposition as the headword plus complement which is integral to the structure of phrase. For example: *For us, money is not everything*. The last is Adverbial phrase that have an adverb as their headword. For example: *yesterday morning, tomorrow night, the day after tomorrow.*

From the above opinion it can be concluded that a phrase is a combination of two or more words whose role can be replaced by just one word in a certain sentence. Phrases are in the same category as the head. There are five kinds of phrases, namely nominal phrases or also called noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases.

3. Clause

A clause is a group consisting of one or more phrases. Morley (2000, p. 26) emphasizes that a clause in meaning terms typically expresses a single proposition and grammatically consists of one or more phrases. In the clause there are several types, namely independent clause and dependent clause. Independent clause is a clause that can stand alone and can be a direct simple sentence if no other clauses are followed. Meanwhile, the dependent clause is a clause that cannot stand alone, because it must follow the independent clause so that it becomes a complete sentence.

a. Independent Clause

Independent clause (or main clause) is a complete sentence. Morley (2000, p. 60) explains that a main clause which is grammatically well-formed is typically able to stand on its own as a simple sentence in its own right. An independent

clause is a group contains the main subject and verb of sentences, often a complement to express a complete thought.

TABLE 1
EXAMPLES OF INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

Part	Subject	Verb	Complement
A	We	Ran	
	I	Was	Late to work
	Various element	Contributed	To the success
B	Where	Does	Fay live?
	What	Happened	With you?

b. Dependent Clause

Dependent clause (or subordinate clause) cannot stand alone; it has to be attached to an independent clause. Morley (2000, p. 60) explains that where a main clause is connected to other clause which is not a main clause, the other clause is dependent clause. Dependent clause formed to add more information to independent clause. Dependent clause usually marked with subordinate conjunction or reparative pronoun. It also consists of subject and predicate, but combination of subordination conjunction or relative pronoun with subject and predicate makes the meaning of the clause is not complete.

TABLE 2
EXAMPLES OF DEPENDENT CLAUSE

Main clause	Dependent clause (sentences fragment)	Completed sentences
Almost 200 people were evacuated	Because the city was struck by a powerful earthquake	Because the city was struck by a powerful earthquake, almost 200 people were evacuated.

We are very afraid of cockroach	When we are children	When we were children, we were very afraid of cockroach.
I know	Where Shofie lives	I know where Shofie lives.

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that the clause is the origin of the sentence. There are two types of clauses, namely independent clause and dependent clause.

4. Sentences

Morley (2000, p. 25) explains that orthographically the sentence begins with a capital letter and is terminated by a full stop. He also said that the sentence is a textual unit which it has been convenient to adopt as the largest grammatical unit for the purposes of syntactic analysis. Sentence is the largest unit in the syntax which is the main object in its analysis. Sentences are also independent thoughts, namely units that stand alone and have complete meaning. Spears (as cited in Purnomoadjie & Mulyadi, 2019, p. 57) explains that sentence is a group of words that forms an independent thought, usually including at least a subject and a verb.

Chaer (2009, p. 44) explains that sentences are syntactic units composed of basic constituents, which are usually clauses, supplemented by conjunctions when needed, and accompanied by final intonation. In Latin script, the sentence starts with a capital letter and ends with a period (.), A question mark (?), Or an exclamation point (!); meanwhile, it also includes various punctuation marks such as commas (,), colons (;), dashes (-), and spaces. Alwi et al. (2003, p. 311) state

that periods, question marks, and exclamation points commensurate with the final intonation, whereas punctuation marks commensurate with pauses. In a sentence there is also a punctuation mark that indicates the intonation in the sentence. So that readers understand whether the sentence is positive, negative, an interrogative sentence, or a command sentence.

Based on the statements above, a sentence is a unit of language that can be used to describe ideas. A statement can be said as a sentence if in that statement there is at least a subject and predicate. Sentence also based on the presence of intonation, punctuation, pauses, and the relationship between other and larger construction. There are also sentence elements that make a pattern of a sentence.

A. Sentence Elements

To analyze the sentence pattern, the elements of sentences are used. So that the sentence pattern consists of a combination of these elements. A sentence, at least has a subject and predicate in it so that it has a complete meaning.

1. Subject

The subject is something that does the action in a sentence. The subject of a clause or sentence is the noun (a person, place, or thing) that performs, controls, or is responsible for the action of a verb (Herring, 2016, p.805). Subjects can be people or people, animals, places, or things. In accordance with the expert's explanation, that the minimum subject consists of a noun, or a pronoun can also be used. Herring (2016, p. 801) states that the subject is at least a noun (or a pronoun representing a noun).

Subjects are often consisting of more than one word because there are other words that complement them. The word can be a determiner like *the boy* or it can be added with a modifier such as *the boy who is wearing a cap*. Herring (2016, p. 801) states that the subject can also include any words that add meaning to the noun or pronoun, such as determiners or other modifiers (adjectives, adverbs, or phrases acting like them).

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that the subject is something that does the action in the sentence. Subject is a noun phrase in a sentence which can consist of a noun or pronoun, as well as a determiner and modifier.

2. Predicate

The predicate is another part of the sentence besides the subject. In the minimum elements, there is a verb in it so that it forms an SV sentence pattern. The predicate is made up of at least one finite verb, the action of which is performed or controlled by the subject (Herring, 2016, p. 805).

Besides that, in the predicate there are also other parts that complement the sentence, namely object, complement, and adjunct. These parts can form a complete sentence pattern such as SVOCA. Herring (2016, p. 801-802) explains that the predicate includes any words that add meaning to the verb, such as modifiers, objects, or complements. The following are parts of the predicate.

a. Verb

In the predicate, there is at least one verb, which is in the form of a finite verb. The only verbs that can be considered finite are verbs in their base form (the infinitive form without the particle to), verbs in their past-tense form, or verbs inflected for the thirdperson singular (Herring, 2016, p. 821). Auxiliary verbs are also a finite verb. Finite verbs can also join other types of verbs, namely gerunds, infinitives, and participles. But the most important thing is the finite verb which is the essence of what the subject is doing. Then, Herring (2016, p. 821) explains that verb forms that are never considered to be finite verbs in a sentence are gerunds, infinitives, and participles (both past and present).

Examples of verbs:

1. "I *came* to the party yesterday." (*Came* is a finite verb).

2. "She *hates cleaning* the pool." (*Hates* is a finite verb, and cleaning is a gerund).

3. "They *were being* difficult to us." (*Were* is a finite verb and being is the present participle).

b. Object

Objects are things that complete the meaning of verbs. Objects are the same as subjects, that is, they can be people, animals, places, or things. However, the function is different from the subject, because the object is something that got the action from the verb. The objects of verbs tell us who or what is receiving the action of the verb (Herring, 2016, p. 822). Note that only transitive verbs require

an object. Herring (2016, p. 822) states that only transitive verbs take objects. Objects also consist of two types, namely direct objects and indirect objects.

1. Direct Object

Direct object is the main object that is affected by the transitive verb, and it is mandatory. Direct objects are directly affected by the verbs they complete—that is, the verbs action is happening directly to them (Herring, 2016, p. 822). The direct object answers the question "what" is affected by the verb.

Examples of sentences with direct objects are:

1. "The kids play *baseball* every Sunday."

2. "She bought *a box of tea* from the convenient store."

2. Indirect Object

Indirect object is an additional object, usually in the form of a person or something that can be asked "who" receives the direct object. An indirect object is the person or thing who receives the direct object of the verb and appear directly between the verb and its direct object (Herring, 2016, p.822). Indirect objects can be placed between the verb and direct objects, but can also be placed at the end of a sentence in the form of a prepositional phrase.

Examples of sentences with indirect objects, namely:

1. "He gets *me a bottle of water*." (*Me* is an indirect object and *a bottle of water* is a direct object).

2. "They write *you a bunch of letters*." (*You* are indirect objects and *a bunch of letters* is direct objects).

3. "She gave *a book* yesterday *for me*." (*A book* is a direct object and *for me* is an indirect object).

c. Complements

Complement is an important part of completing the meaning of a sentence. Herring (2016, p. 823) discusses that complements are words or groups of words that are necessary to complete the meaning of another part of the sentence. One of the confusing parts of complement and adjunct is that they both complete sentences. However, if complement is omitted in a sentence, the sentence loses meaning or becomes incomplete.

1. Object Complement

Complement objects are complementary objects in sentences. Herring (2016, p. 823) explains that an object complement is a word or group of words that describes, renames, or completes the direct object of the verb. Then Herring (2016, p. 823) also explains that object complement can be a noun, adjective, relative clause, infinitive, or gerund.

1. "They announce Rina *a winner*."

2. "They elected Sam *a new leader*."

2. Adjective Complement

An adjective complement is the part that complements the predicative adjectives. So if there are predicative adjectives, there will likely be adjective complement. An adjective complement is a phrase or clause that provides information necessary to complete an adjective's meaning (Herring, 2016, p.823). Adjective complements almost always appear with predicative adjectives (adjectives that appear after linking verbs) and can be prepositional phrases, infinitives and infinitive phrases, or noun clauses. (Herring, 2016, p.823)

Here's an example of complementary adjectives:

1. "She is perfectly happy *on her own*." (The prepositional phrase *on her own* completes the meaning of the adjective *happy*.)

2. "He was a little curious *why she decided to leave*." (The noun clause *why she decided to leave* completes the meaning of the adjective *curious*.) (Herring, 2016, p. 824).

3. Adverbial Complement

Adverbial complements are adverbs or adverbial elements that are required to complete the meaning of the verb. Adverbials always appear after the verb they complement (Herring, 2016, p.824). Adverbial complement is different from adverbial adjunct, because as a complement the meaning of the sentence will change if the complement is removed.

Here's an example of adverbial complement:

1. "The teacher sent Tim *home*." (The adverbial noun *home* completes the meaning of the verb *sent*.)

2. "Please put the book *on the shelf*." (The adverbial prepositional phrase *on the shelf* completes the meaning of the verb *put*) (Herring, 2016, p. 824).

4. Subject Complement

The compelement subject is the part that complements the subject. It usually marked by an auxiliary or linking verb. Subject complement is the information that follows a linking verb to describe, identify, or rename the subject of the clause. Subject complements can be nouns, pronouns, or adjectives (Herring, 2016, p.824).

Here is an example of a complement subject:

1. "She is *a writer*."

2. "The chef is *her*."

3. "It seems *funny*."

d. Adjuncts

Adjuncts are one of the five main elements in a sentence. Herring (2016, p. 860) said that adjuncts are parts of a sentence that are used to elaborate on or modify other words or phrases in a sentence. He also said a distinguishing feature of adjuncts is that their removal from sentences does not alter the grammatical integrity and meaning of the sentence. In other words, the adjuncts expand the

meaning of the modified sentence, but in the absence of the adjuncts the sentence remains functional and functional. Nouns, adjectives, and adverbs can all be adjuncts (Herring, 2016, p.860).

Adverbial adjunct is that which modifies the whole part in a sentence. Here are examples of each type of phrase being used as an adverbial adjunct:

1. Prepositional phrase: "The group went swimming *at the beach*."

2. Adverb phrase: "The surfer looked calm, *although the wave looked huge*."

3. Noun phrase: "The grandfather will give his grandson his birthday present *next month*."

Meanwhile, another adjunct is a noun adjunct which modifies other noun and creates a compound noun (example: *soldier* toy). There is also an adjective adjunct, which is an adjective that modifies the noun (example: the *red* car). These two adjuncts come before the noun.

From the above explanation, it can be concluded that the predicate is the second part of the sentence other than the subject. Predicates can be verbs only or a combination of verbs, objects, complements, and adjuncts. It is from these elements that a sentence pattern can be seen. The sentence pattern can be in the form of SV, SVO, SVC, SVA, SVOC, SVOA, or SVOCA. However, there are also other sentence patterns that were investigated in Maher Zain's Thank You Allah song.

2.4 How to Make a Tree Diagram

Making tree diagrams is useful for analyzing sentences and the composition in them. The building starts from the lexical level, the phrase, to the sentence. Here the researcher uses Carnie's (2013) tree diagram analysis. The researcher used a bottom-up tree diagram method, namely making a bottom to up or word to sentence tree diagram. This method is very useful for beginners because it is easier.

But before that there were rules that had to be obeyed to link modifying items to one another. These rules are (Carnie, 2013, p.106-107):

1. Constituent: a group of words that function together as a unit.

2. English Phrase Structure Rules:

   a) CP → (C) TP

   b) TP → {NP/CP} (T) P

   c) VP → (AdvP+) V (NP) ({NP/CP}) (AdvP+) (PP+) (AdvP+)

   d) NP → (D) (AdjP+) N (PP+) (CP)

   e) PP → P (NP)

   f) AdjP → (AdvP) Adj

   g) AdvP → (AdvP) Adv

   h) XP → XP conj XP

   i) X → X conj X

3. Head: the word that gives its category to the phrase.

4. Abbreviation:

    a. TP is tense phrase or a label for clause.

    b. CP is complementizer phrase. It is a clause that has a complementizer in the beginning of a clause.

    c. Complementizer is a word used to introduce a complement clause, including subordinate conjunctions, relative pronouns, and relative adverbs.

    d. NP (Noun Phrase), VP (Verb Phrase), PP (Prepositional Phrase), AdvP (Adverb Phrase), AdjP (Adjective Phrase).

    e. N is a noun, V is a verb, P is a preposition, Adv is an adverb, Adj is an adjective.

    f. D is determiner, T is tense.

    Here is how to make a tree diagram after understanding the rules:

1. Write out the sentence and identify the part of speech.

```
 D  Adv  Adj  N   V    D N
 The very smart girl brought the cat.
```

2. Identify what modify what.
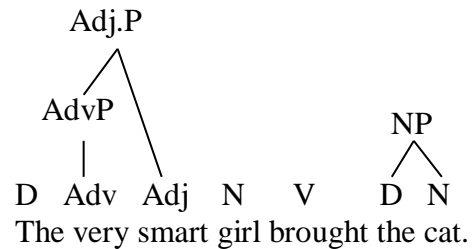
Very modifies smart.	Very smart modifies girl.
The modifies girl.	The modifies cat.

The cat modifies brought.

3. Start linking together items that modify one another. It often helps to start at the right edge. This example contains NP rule and AdjP rule first.

```
         Adj.P
         /\
     AdvP  \              NP
      |     \            /\
  D  Adv  Adj  N    V   D  N
  The very smart girl brought the cat.
```

4. Apply the rule exactly as it is written. For example: AdjP reads AdjP →
(Adv.P) Adj. This means that Adv must have an AdvP on top of it before
combined with AdjP.

5. Keep applying the rules until all modifiers attached to the modified constituens.
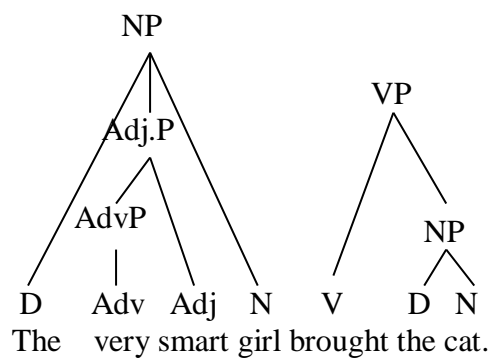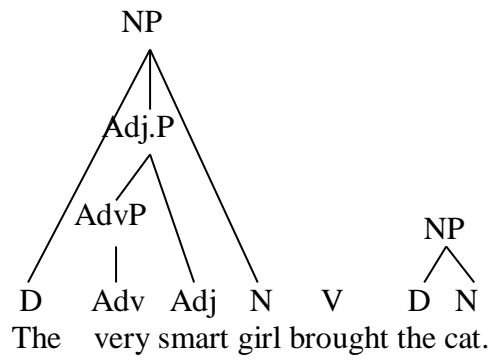Apply one rule at a time.

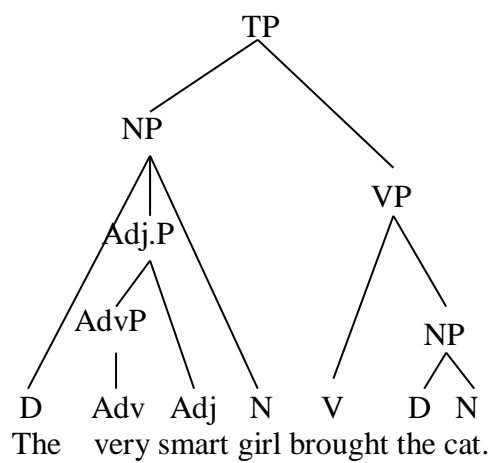a) AdjPs and AdvPs   b) NPs and PPs

c) VPs   d) TP

e) If the sentence has more than one clause, start with the most embeded
clause.

6. Built subject and predicate NP and VP, apply the TP (and if appropriate CP)

rule:

7. Go back and make sure that the tree is really generated by the rules. Check each level in the tree and make sure the rules will generate it. If they do not, apply the rule correctly and fix the structures.

8. Some important considerations:

    a) Make sure that everything is attached to the tree.

    b) Make sure that every category has only one line immediately on top of it (it can have more than one under)

    c) Do not cross lines.

    d) Make sure all branches in the tree have a part of speech label.

    e) Avoid triangles (Carnie, 2013, 91—93).

2.5 Similarities and Differences between English and Indonesian Syntax

In the syntax analysis there are differences and similarities between English and Indonesian, which is based on its function. Chaer (as cited in Ruminda and Komariah, 2018, p. 53) explains that the syntactical function are in Indonesia is a subject, predicate, object, complement and adverb. Altenberg and Vago (as cited in Ruminda and Komariah, 2018, p. 53) syntactic categories in English consists of noun, verb, determine, adjective, proposition, conjunction, pronoun and adverb. In here there are difference and similarities between English and Indonesian syntax:

a. Indonesian and English syntax is such differences of phrases (Noun Phrase).

English:

1. An adjective > NP : Adjective + Noun

   Example in English   : Beautiful girl, Big House

   Noun + Adjective

   Example in Indonesian   : Wanita Cantik, Rumah Besar

2. Ving > NP : Ving + Noun

   Example in English   : Raining Water, Glowing Face

   Noun + Ving

   Example in Indonesian   : Air Hujan, Wajah Bercahaya

3. Noun > NP : Noun + Noun

   Example in English   : Orange Juice, Ghost Story

   Noun + Noun

   Example in Indonesian   : Jus Jeruk, : Cerita Hantu, : Cerita Hantu

4. Past Participle > NP : V3 + Noun

   Example in English   : Boiled Eggs, Fried Chicken

   Noun + V3

   Example in Indonesian   : Telur Rebus, Ayam Goreng

5. Determiner > NP : Determiner + Noun

   Example in English   : My Family, This Pen

   Noun + Determiner

   Example in Indonesian   : Keluarga saya, Pena ini

b.   Similarities of English and Indonesian Syntax

1.   Verb Phrase

Example in English   : Eat Rice, Read Book

Example in Indonesian   : Makan Nasi, Baca Buku

2.   Prepotional Noun

Example in English   : For you, Look For

Example in English   : Untuk mu, Mencari

3.   Determiner + Noun

Example in English   : All Book, A Chair

Example in Indonesian   : Semua Buku, Sebuah Kursi

Based on the similarities and differences between English and Indonesian syntax, the researcher can be concluded that, the differences between English and Indonesian syntax lies in the Phrase or noun phrase consisting of adjective noun, V_{ing} Noun, Noun Noun, V_3+Noun, and Determiner Noun. While the similarities between English and Indonesian syntax is consisting of Verb Phrase, Proportional Noun, and Determiner Noun.

2.6 Songs and Lyrics

Music is a work that has lyrics and melody in it and delivered by singing. Agung et al. (as cited in 'Ain and Triyono, 2019, p. 261) state that song is a composition for voice and musical instrument. Meanwhile, the lyrics are the content of the song itself and have a deep meaning to convey to listeners. Yastanti and Setiawati (as cited in 'Ain and Triyono, 2019, p. 261) song lyric is one of the creation has a deep meaning that try to deliver for the listener.

Musicians do not only think about the melody in composing the song, but also the lyric in it. Because it is from the lyrics that listeners learn what the song means. Sutompul (as cited in Suharto, 2004, p. 4) emphasizes that it is clear that to face the musical works such as song music, musicians do not only learn the melody or music but also learn its lyrics as a source of the study to find interpretation and expression in the song. So that listeners can understand the meaning of the song if they understand the words, phrases, clauses contained in the song. Oktariani et al (as cited in 'Ain and Triyono, 2019, p. 261) explain that all of words, phrases, in a song lyric need to be understood to catch what the information conveyed in song lyric. Because of that, in syntax analysis, not only the structure of the song is understood, but also the meaning of the song.

Based on the explanation above, music is a work that has sound and instruments in performing it, and has lyrics as a message to convey its contents. Lyrics are the content of the song which has a deep meaning to be conveyed to listeners. Songs and lyrics will be well understood if listeners understand the words and phrases contained in the song lyrics. Thus, it can be concluded that lyric is the words of a song, describing a feeling and it is composed for singing.

2.7 Previous of Related Research

To complement the study of the theory, the researcher following are some relevant previous research results, the first previous research by Christianto (2018). The title is *Syntactical analysis on sentences patters in john Denver's song lyrics.* This researcher used qualitative approach as the scope of research because this research explained certain phenomena in detail. Which method used in this research is contact analysis because this study analyzes patters the

sentences in the lyrics of the song john Denver. Based on the results of the study, researchers found it there are 8 out of 9 sentences patterns used in song lyrics. Sentences patters frequently used pattern 3: S + Vt + DO. There are 12 sentences use this pattern in the lyrics of the song john Denver. However, there is penalty which uses patterns 6: S + Vt + Io + Do.

Another research is done by Togarotop (2016). The title is *A Syntactical Analysis on Sentence Patterns Used in ColdPlay's Song Lyrics*. This research is aimed to find out the sentence pattern used Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) theory by Noam Chomsky. The lyric used are from Coldplay's songs, entitled Fix You, Paradise, and Atlas. The results of the research are: 1) The sentence patterns found in Fix You is S → Pron + Aux + V (4 data) with 12.5%. 2) In Paradise song S → NP + VP + P + NP (3 data) with 12.5% and S → NP + V + P + N (3 data) with 12.5%. 3) In Atlas S → NP + V + Poss.Pron + N (5 data) with 27.77%.

Based on the previous related research above, the researcher takes the research about *The Syntactical Analysis in the English song lyric of "thank you Allah" By Maher Zain.* Therefore, the researcher will analyze the sentence patterns that found in the lyric songs. The analysis is using tree diagram by Conie to make sure that the patterns are compatible to their composition, namely subject, verb, object, complement, and adjunct.