

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### A. Writing

Writing is a creative process in transforming knowledge, idea, though, or meaning into written language. Based on the writer's view, it is one of the most difficult courses in English Department. It focuses on transforming something inside of mind into written language. Every student tends to have different written language style.

Grammar of a language including its rules such as punctuation, capitalization, word order, and *etc.* is a part of written language elements. Different with consonant writing system, alphabetic writing system such as English concerns on presenting all kinds of humans' language sounds. However, space in alphabetic writing system is used to vary each word within a language<sup>1</sup>.

Writing gives possibility to students to explore their idea inside their minds and transform it into real functional communication between her/him as writer and her /his reader<sup>2</sup>. It means that through writing, learners can express thought, feeling, ideas, experience, etc. to convey specific purpose. The purpose is to give someone information.

Usually if we want to write something or transform our idea into written language we have to understand process of writing. Process of writing has several which we have to do it in order that our writing can be easy to understand and also well-structured.

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<sup>1</sup> Victoria Fromkin, *An Introduction to Language*, (Boston: Heinle and Thomson, 2003), p.559

<sup>2</sup> Richard Kern, *Literacy and Language Teaching*, (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000), p.172

Process of writing is learning how to write by writing, or to note. This current emphasis in writing instruction focuses on the process of creating writing rather than the end product. The basic premise of process writing is that all students, regardless of age, can write. The initial focus is on creating quality content and learning writing skill.

Whether we know it or not, there's a process to writing – which many writers follow naturally. If we are just getting started as a writer, though, or if we always find it a struggle to produce an essay, short story or blog, following the writing process will help.

When writing, students work through the stages of the writing process. The creation of writing occurs in basically five stages: prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing<sup>3</sup>.

Prewriting is the planning and idea-gathering stage. Drafting refers to time spent composing a rough draft. Revising is the process of improving the draft. Students reread their work and share it with a partner or small group; they then make changes in the writing based on the feedback from their peers. Editing is the process of correcting mechanical errors. Publishing, or sharing, is accomplished in a wide variety of ways when the work is in final form. Student of all ages move back and forth among these stages while writing; the stages are not lockstep or sequential.

ESL students are ready to begin writing as soon as they are able to speak in social and classroom situations, especially if they are initiating the conversations. The beginning writer will often use a variety of approaches when writing from illustrations, wiggles, invented spellings, or other representations of words. It is important

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<sup>3</sup>David Hatcher, "The Writing Process", <http://www.dailywritingtips.com/the-writing-process/> on Thursday December, 16 2010

that the student be able to discuss with the ESL teacher what those representations mean in order for the instructor to help the ESL students develop their writing skills. The five stages of the writing process are a framework for writing well and easily.

Pre-writing means when we sat staring at a blank piece of paper or a blank document on our computer screen, we might have skipped the vital first stage of the writing process: prewriting. This covers everything we do before starting our rough draft. As a minimum, prewriting means coming up with an idea.

Ideas and Inspirations are all around us. If we want to write but we don't have any ideas. Then we build on our Ideas. These are a couple of popular methods we can use to add flesh to the bones of our idea; 1) free writing: we open a new document or start a new page, and write everything that comes into our head about our chosen topic. We don't stop to edit, even if we make mistakes, 2) brain storming: we write the idea or topic in the center of our page. We write down ideas that arise from it – sub-topics or directions we could take with the article. Once we've done one or both of these, we need to select what's going into our first draft<sup>4</sup>.

Some pieces of writing will require more planning than others. Typically, longer pieces and academic papers need a lot of thought at this stage. First, decide which ideas we'll use. During our free writing and brain storming, we'll have come up with lots of thoughts. Some belong in this piece of writing: others can be kept for another time. Then, decide how to order those ideas. Try to have a logical progression. Sometimes, our topic will make this easy. It made sense to take each step of the writing process in order.

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<sup>4</sup> David Hatcher, "The Writing Process", <http://www.dailywritingtips.com/the-writing-process/> on Thursday December, 16 2010

In drafting, we sit down with our plan beside us, and start our first draft (also known as the *rough draft* or *rough copy*). At this stage, we don't think about word-count, grammar, spelling and punctuation. We don't worry if we've gone off-topic, or if some sections of our plan don't fit too well. If we're a new writer, we might be surprised that professional authors go through multiple drafts before they're happy with their work. This is a normal part of the writing process – no one gets it right first time.

Some things that many writers find helpful when working on the first draft include; the first is setting aside at least thirty minutes to concentrate. It's hard to establish a writing flow if we're just snatching a few minutes here and there. The second is going somewhere without interruptions. A library or coffee shop can work well, if we don't have anywhere quiet to write at home. The third is switching off distracting programs. If we write our first draft onto a computer or laptop, we might find that turning off our Internet connection does wonders for our concentration levels.

When we're writing fiction, we like to use the free program dark room (we can find more about it on our collection of writing software). We might write several drafts, especially if we're working on fiction. Our subsequent drafts will probably merge elements of the writing stage and the revising stage.

Revising our work is about making “big picture” changes. We might remove whole sections, rewrite entire paragraphs, and add in information which we've realized the reader will need. Everyone needs to revise – even talented writers<sup>5</sup>.

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<sup>5</sup>David Hatcher, "The Writing Process", <http://www.dailywritingtips.com/the-writing-process/> on Thursday December, 16 2010

Good revising also includes; 1) adding is what else the reader need to know. If we haven't met the required word-count, what areas we can expand on. This is a good point to go back to our prewriting notes – look for ideas which we don't use. 2) Rearranging is even when we've planned our piece, sections may need rearranging. Perhaps as we wrote our essay, we found that the argument would flow better if we reordered our paragraphs. Maybe we've written a short story that drags in the middle but packs in too much at the end. 3) Removing is when one of our ideas doesn't work out, perhaps we've gone over the word count, and we need to take out a few paragraphs. Maybe that funny story doesn't really fit with the rest of our article. 4) Replacing is more vivid details will help bring our piece to life.

We need to look for stronger examples and quotations to support our argument. If a particular paragraph isn't working, we can try rewriting it.

The editing stage is distinct from revision, and needs to be done after revising. Editing involves the close-up view of individual sentences and words. It needs to be done after we've made revisions on a big scale: or else we could agonize over a perfect sentence, only to end up cutting that whole paragraph from our piece.

When editing, go through our piece line by line, and make sure that each sentence, phrase and word is as strong as possible. Some things to check for are: Have we used the same word too many times in one sentence or paragraph? Use a thesaurus to find alternatives. Are any of our sentences hard to understand? Rewrite them to make our thoughts clear. Which words could we cut to make a sentence stronger? Words like “just” “quite”, “very”, “really” and “generally” can often be removed. Are our sentences grammatically correct? Keep a careful look out for problems like subject-verb agreement and

staying consistent in our use of the past, present or future tense. Is everything spelt correctly? Don't trust our spell-checker – it won't pick up every mistake. Proofread as many times as necessary. Have we used punctuation marks correctly? Commas often cause difficulties. We might want to check out the daily writing tips articles on punctuation.

The final step of the writing process is publishing. This means that different things depending on the piece we're working on. Bloggers need to upload, format and post their piece of completed work. Students need to produce a final copy of their work, in the correct format. This often means adding a bibliography, ensuring that citations are correct and adding details such as our student reference number. Journalists need to submit their piece (usually called "copy") to an editor. Again, there will be a certain format for this. Fiction writers may be sending their story to a magazine or competition. Check guidelines carefully, and make sure you follow them. If we've written a novel, look for an agent who represents our writing<sup>6</sup>.

## B. Genres of Writing

Usually there are several genres of writing used by writer to arrange his/her idea. To know kinds of writing will help us to guess sequence of writer's writing so that it can make us easier to understand their work. Several genres of writing are narrative, news story, anecdote, recount, procedure, explanation, report, exposition, discussion and description.

In fact genres of writing are divided into two kinds that are factual genres and story genres. The factual genres include procedure, explanation, report, exposition, discussion and description. Meanwhile,

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<sup>6</sup> David Hatcher, "The Writing Process", <http://www.dailywritingtips.com/the-writing-process/> on Thursday December, 16 2010

the story genres include narrative, news story, anecdote, and recount. Mary Macken in her book gave explanation as follow;

“Procedural genre is a factual text designed to describe how something is accomplished through a sequence of actions and steps. Procedures are also more about processes than thing but explain how perform different processes in a sequence of steps. Procedures are found in the written texts to do with Science, Art and Craft, Cookery, media Studies and Health as well as other subjects.”

“Explanation genre is a factual text used to explain the processes involved in the evolution of natural or socio cultural phenomena. Explanations are used to account for why things are as they are. Explanations are more about processes than things. In the school curriculum, explanations are often found in Science and Social Studies<sup>7</sup>.”

“Report is factual text which describes the way things are. It describes about what is in our environment such as phenomena, natural, synthetic and social<sup>8</sup>.”

“Exposition genre is a factual text used to put forward a point of view, or argument. Expositions are found in essay, letter to the editor.”

“Discussion genre is a factual text used to represent information about and arguments for both sides of an issue, concluding with a conclusion or recommendation based on the weight of evidence. Discussions are commonly used by royal commission, local councils and school bodies to look at two sides of a topical issue. In later secondary school, students are required to use ‘Discussion’ to explore different points of view in History, English and Economics essays as well as in other subjects<sup>9</sup>.”

Descriptive genre is based on order of importance. It can be from the most important one (increasing importance) to decreasing

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<sup>7</sup> Mary Macken., *et all*, *A Genre-Based Approach To Teaching Writing Years 3-6*, (Australia: Common Ground, 1990), p. 16-18

<sup>8</sup> Mary Macken., *et all*, *A Genre-Based Approach To Teaching Writing Years 3-6*, (Australia: Common Ground, 1990), p. 14

<sup>9</sup> Mary Macken., *et all*, *A Genre-Based Approach To Teaching Writing Years 3-6*, (Australia: Common Ground, 1990), p. 20-22

importance or from decreasing importance to important one (increasing importance). A descriptive writing is usually signed by words; the first, the second.

When we are writing a description essay, we are "painting a picture" with words. Good descriptive writing includes specific details to make the incident come alive for our reader. We focus on re-creating an incident that happened to us over a short period of time (usually an emotional experience). We convey a particular mood (feeling) - do we want to surprise our readers, make them laugh, have them share in our sorrow or fear?<sup>10</sup>

Newspaper article usually follows decreasing importance model by showing important information in the initial, whereas argumentation proceeds important one (increasing importance) model, that is, by showing decreasing importance followed by the most persuasive point in the final.

“Narrative genre is a non-factual text used in a variety of modes to amuse, entertain and to deal vicarious experience in different ways. Stories deal with events that are problematic and which lead to a crisis or turning point of some kind. The construction of the ‘complication’ depends on the ‘evaluation’ of the events by the narrator. In the final part of the text, there is a ‘resolution’ for better or worse”.

“News story is factual text which informs readers of daily newspaper about events of the day which are regarded as newsworthy or important. Newspapers need to make the news as readable as possible in order to attract as many readers as possible. More readers mean more money from advertisers and wider circulation of the newspaper. News story- especially the ones published in afternoon newspaper- often make the events of the day as dramatic or as sensational as they can in order to make more people buy them<sup>11</sup>.”

“Anecdote genre is a story text dealing with something unexpected or out of the ordinary. The anecdote is almost

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<sup>10</sup> Meeks, “Descriptive Writing”, <http://ksdl.ksbe.edu/writingresource/narration.html> on Wednesday December 15 2010

<sup>11</sup> Mary Macken., *et al*, *A Genre-Based Approach To Teaching Writing Years 3-6*, (Australia: Common Ground, 1990), p.30-34



exclusively an oral genre and is a common feature of casual conversation. It is the unexpected events-which is what makes the story worth telling. An interesting anecdote is one in which the teller makes the listener want to listen for more. Therefore, handling interpersonal meanings well is an important part of the narrator's anecdote skill-evaluating the significance of the events."

"Recount genre is a story genre used to retell events for the purpose of informing or entertaining. Events are usually arranged in a temporal sequence. Interpersonal meanings occur scattered throughout a text, if they are there at all. Recounts are used in most subjects to show memory of a series of events as in accounts for a science excursion, everyday life in another time or culture. Personal letters to friends are often recounts of experience<sup>12</sup>."

### C. Teaching Writing

According to Oxford dictionary, teaching is work of a teacher<sup>13</sup>. It means that a teacher has responsibility to teach. Whom s/he teaches are students. Usually a teacher practices his/her teaching in a course. A course is a series of lesson. A starting point in a course development is a description of the course rational. It seeks to answer the question; for whom is the course? , what is course about?, and what kinds of teaching learning will take place in the course? The course rational answers these questions by describing the beliefs, values and goal that underline the course. From this explanation we can sum up that those determine teacher's teaching model in a course to get the course goal.

In teaching-learning process, teachers have authority to the students about giving knowledge, showing something, or changing students' idea. Teaching theories, whatever they are, have aim to make teaching learning more effective based on students achievement during the lesson or teaching learning. In teaching course, usually it is written on the curriculum and syllabus.

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<sup>12</sup>Mary Macken., *et all*, *A Genre-Based Approach To Teaching Writing Years 3-6*, (Australia: Common Ground, 1990), p.24&28

<sup>13</sup> Oxford, *Oxford Learner's Pocket Dictionary*, ( New York: Oxford University Press, 2003), p.443

In writing class, teacher gives writing knowledge, showing how to do it, and instructing students as the teacher's idea. Teacher's idea is related with the teaching process, especially at teaching model.

As our discussion before, writing is a creative process in transforming either knowledge, idea, though, or meaning into written language. Based on the writer's view, it is one of the most difficult courses in English Department. It focuses on transforming something inside of mind into written language. Every student tends to have different written language style.

Writing is the series of lesson which writing becomes a subject study. It is aimed at preparing knowledge about basic principle of writing. Teacher gives writing knowledge, showing how to do it, and instructing students as the teacher's idea. Teacher's idea is related with the teaching process, especially at teaching model.

The writing course meets the growing need for writer with training in application of the theoretical frame work to writing performance. The course links the development of expertise in advanced writing skills with critical discussion of theoretical frame work of writing. In addition, the program encourages the development of extensive understanding of notion integration. Writing in this course is as solution for getting new information from the original language. It happens because students in our department are second language writing students of English. It means that English as major in our writing course is not our mother language.

#### D. English Grammatical Collocation

Talking about English collocation means that we talk about one of writing elements that is usually forgotten by students or second

language English writer. It is classical problem when we discuss it here. Most of us, maybe, don't know what English collocation is. It is basic element in writing. If we write English writing without knowing and using English collocation, our writing will be rejected by native speaker of English inasmuch as they feel strange.

Longman dictionary of applied linguistic defines collocation as the way in which words are used regularly. It refers to the restrictions on how words can be used together<sup>14</sup>. Collocation can be determined based on co-occurrence of certain words frequently in a language in which we can not get collocation meaning logically.

Collocational patterning, however, has unique meaning which can not be though logically. Native English prefers to use verbs such as *to carry out*, *to undertake*, and *to perform* to collocate with noun *visit*. Likewise, native English don not typically use *grilling bread* regard instead of *to grill bread*. In case, we always suppose that synonym or near-synonym words can replace each other in term of collocation without changing meaning. Regardless of the fact that *rules* and *regulations* are synonyms or near-synonyms, however, native English prefer to use *break rules* than *break regulations*. It happens also when we talk about words previously though synonyms like *wasting* and *squandering* when such synonyms are collocated with *time*. Native of English prefer to use *wasting time* than *squandering time*. Nevertheless, they use both *deliver* and *pronounce verdict* acceptably<sup>15</sup>.

Likewise, we can find collocation in Javanese. Javanese speaker typically *bapak/romo dahar* but they do not use either *bapak nyekek* or

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<sup>14</sup> Jack Richards, *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistic*, (Hongkong : Longman Group, 1985), p.46

<sup>15</sup> Mona Baker, *In Other words: A Course Book on Translation*, (London: Routledge, 1992),p.47

*bapak mangan* although either *nyekekek*, *mangan*, or *dahar* is synonyms, that is “to eat”. We usually do not aware of collocation either in Javanese or in other languages. It happens also in Japanese. If we want to express negation in Japanese, we can use “*ja arimasen*” or “*dewa arimasen*”. However, when the subject is someone who has elder statuses like father, teacher, older brother and sister we can not use “*ja arimasen*”. We had better use “*dewa arimasen*”<sup>16</sup>.

If two words collocate, they also collocate in different forms like *achieving aims* which can be modified by *aims having been achieved*, *achievable aims*, and *the achievement of an aim* without any changing of meaning, however, it can be applied in others collocation such as *bend rules* which cannot be modified by *rules being unbendable* in its negation but we can use *inflexible rules* instead of it.

We cannot make collocation patterning logically by ourselves inasmuch as collocation is arbitrary and we cannot think meaning based on its construction grammatically. Collocation occurs in many languages. We can observe collocation patterning of synonyms or near-synonyms when we look up dictionary within English and English, however, it also happens when we compare collocation across language like English and Arabic. Examples bellow show collocation in both languages<sup>17</sup>.

English	Arabic
Deliver a letter/ telegram	<i>Yusallimu</i> <i>khitaaban/tiligraafan</i>
Deliver a speech	<i>Yulqi khutbatan</i>

<sup>16</sup> Taeko Kamiya, *Bimbingan Belajar Otodidak Bahasa Jepang*, (Jogjakarta: Diva Press, 2009), p.93

<sup>17</sup> Mona Baker, *In Other words: A Course Book on Translation*, (London: Routledge, 1992), p.48-49

Deliver news	<i>Yanqilu akhbaaran</i>
Deliver blow	<i>Yuwajjihu darbatan</i>
Deliver a verdict	<i>Yusdiru hukman</i>
Deliver baby	<i>Yuwallidu imro'atun</i>

Table 1: Comparison of English& Arabic Collocations

In fact, English collocation is divided into two kinds, that is, English grammatical collocation and English lexical collocation. In this study, the writer only focuses on English grammatical collocation. The writer focuses on English grammatical collocation taking into consideration that it can be maximum result.

English collocation is divided into two kinds. The first is English grammatical collocation and the second is English lexical collocation. The writer in this occasion only focuses on English grammatical collocations. He does it in order that it can be focused and will give maximum result and understanding for all.

According to BBI dictionary of English word combinations, English grammatical collocation is combinations of a dominant word (noun, adjective, and verb) and preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause<sup>18</sup>. For example, Noam Chomsky in his *Aspect of the Theory of Syntax* (page 191) points out that *decide on a boat*, meaning '*choose (to buy) a boat*' contains the collocation *decide on* (in his terminology: close construction), whereas *decide on a boat*, meaning '*make decision while on a boat*' is a free combination (in his terminology: loose association). Any native speaker of English feels that the components of *decide on* '*choose*' and of other fixed phrases such as *account for*, *accuse (somebody) of*, *adapt to*, *agonize over*, *aim*

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<sup>18</sup> Morton Benson., *et all*, *The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations*, (Philadelphia: Jhon Benjamins Publishing, 1997) on its introduction

*at, etc.* ‘collocate’ with each other. The native speaker will reject violations of collocability such as *decide at a boat, account over a loss, accuse somebody on a crime, adapt towards new condition, etc*<sup>19</sup>.

The writer described eight major types of grammatical collocation. The classification of eight major types of English grammatical collocation will make us easy to understand English grammatical collocations well.

The first type is a collocation consisting of noun + preposition combinations. The writer does not include noun + of combinations<sup>20</sup>. A very large number of English nouns can be used with of, especially to denote the concept of direct object, subject, or possession. Hence, it includes the combination *blockade against* but not *blockade of*. The phrase *the blockade of enemy ports* is a regular transformation of *to blockade enemy ports*. It includes *the apathy towards*, but not *apathy of*. A phrase such as *the apathy of electorate* is predictable on the basis of the known function of the preposition of.

The second type is collocation consisting of noun followed by to + infinitive<sup>21</sup>. There are five syntactic patterns in which this construction is most frequently encountered; these patterns are the following;

- It was *a pleasure (a problem, a struggle)* to do it.
- They had *the foresight (instruction, an obligation, permission, and the right)* to do it.

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<sup>19</sup> Morton Benson., *et all, The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations*, (Philadelphia: Jhon Benjamins Publishing, 1997) on its introduction

<sup>20</sup>B.S Azar, *Understanding and Using English Grammar*, Third edition, (Prentice Hall: 1989), Appendix 24

<sup>21</sup> Marcella Frank, *Modern English*, (New York: Prentice Hall, 1972), p.340

- They felt *a compulsion (an impulse, a need)* to do it.
- They made *an attempt (an effort, a promise)* to do it.
- He was *a fool (a genius, an idiot)* to do it.

The third type is collocation consisting of noun that can be followed by a *that clause*: we reached an agreement that she should represent us in court<sup>22</sup>. Some nouns can be followed by a clause with the present subjunctive in formal English: it was his desire that his estate be divided equally. Noun expressing emotion (*astonishment, surprise*) may take a putative should: *she expressed surprise that she should be thinking of changing of jobs*.

The fourth type is collocation consisting of preposition + noun combinations. Examples are: *by accident, in advance, to somebody's advantage, on somebody's advice, in agony, at anchor*.

The fifth type is collocation consisting of adjective + preposition combinations that occur in the predicate or as set-off attributive (verb less clause): *they were angry at everyone*<sup>23</sup>.

The sixth type is collocation consisting of predicate adjectives and a following to + infinitive<sup>24</sup>. Adjectives occur in two basic constructions with infinitives.

- *It was necessary to work*.

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<sup>22</sup> Marcella Frank, *Modern English*, (New York: Prentice Hall, 1972), p.290

<sup>23</sup> Marcella Frank, *Modern English*, (New York: Prentice Hall, 1972), p.191-197

<sup>24</sup> B.S Azar, *Understanding and Using English Grammar*, Second edition, (Prentice Hall: 1989), p.175

In this construction, the *it* is a dummy or empty subject; it has no antecedent. Prepositional phrases with *for* can be inserted into this construction with many adjectives: *it was necessary for him to work.*

- *She (the girl) is ready to go; it (the machine) was designed to operate at high altitudes.*

In this construction, the subject is real and usually animate. Some adjectives, however, normally occur in this construction with inanimate subject.

The seventh type is collocation consisting of adjective that can be followed by *a that clause*: *she was afraid that she would fail the examination.* Several adjectives are followed by the present subjunctive in formal English: *it was imperative that I be there at three o'clock*<sup>25</sup>.

The eighth type is collocation consisting of five teen English verb patterns which have different grammatical structures. Each pattern has different structure of grammar. The classification is important to make reader easy to understand and remember it.

The first pattern is collocation consisting of ditransitive verbs which have two objects, which are direct object and indirect object<sup>26</sup>. The position of indirect object can be replaced by direct object and before indirect object must be preceded by preposition “to”, these patterns are the following:

- John often *teaches Mary new words* or John often *teaches new words to Mary.*

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<sup>25</sup>Marcella Frank, *Modern English*, (New York: Prentice Hall, 1972), p.298

<sup>26</sup>George E. Wishon, *et all, Let's Write English*, Revised edition, (Litton Educational Publishing: 1980), p.47



- The University will *write Tim a letter* or The University will *write a letter to Tim*.
- Septi *sent a parcel to me* or Septi *sent me a parcel*.

In this construction, the position indirect object which is replaced by direct object is not obligatory inasmuch as indirect object can back to the previous position. It is just kinds of variation in its construction.

The second pattern is collocation consisting of ditransitive verb which have two objects, which are direct object and indirect object<sup>27</sup>. The position of indirect object can be replaced by direct object and before indirect object must be preceded by preposition “to” and the construction is obligatory, these patterns are the following:

- He always *says “Hello” to me*.
- They *hand over a criminal to the police*.

The third pattern is collocation consisting of ditransitive verb which have two objects, which are direct object and indirect object. The position of indirect object can be replaced by direct object and before indirect object must be preceded by preposition “for”<sup>28</sup>. These patterns are the following:

- We *bought a book for her* or we *bought her a book*.
- He *broiled a few steaks for us* or he *broiled us a few steaks*.

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<sup>27</sup>B.S Azar, *Understanding and Using English Grammar*, Second edition, (Prentice Hall: 1989), p.47-48

<sup>28</sup>George E. Wishon, *et all, Let’s Write English*, Revised edition, (Litton Educational Publishing: 1980), p.49

The fourth pattern is the verb forming a collocation with a specific preposition (+ object). Free combination such as to walk in the park are excluded. In addition, combinations of the type verb + by or with are excluded when the latter denote 'means' or 'instrument': *they came by train, we cut bread with a knife*, etc.

The pattern verbs are normally not used without a prepositional phrase. For example, one does not say: *we will adhere, they based their conclusions, our committee consists*, and etc. well formed sentences are: *we will adhere to the plan, they based their conclusions on the available facts, our committee consists of six members*, and etc.

The transitive pattern verbs used with to and the second pattern verbs produce identical constructions. We can assign to the second pattern verbs that are normally used with an animate direct object, and to the fourth pattern- verbs normally occurring with inanimate indirect object. Compare the second pattern: *we described the meeting to them* and the fourth pattern: *we invited them to the meeting*.

The fifth pattern is verbs followed by to + inf<sup>29</sup>. Examples of this construction are: *they begin to speak, she continued to write, he decided to come, we offer to help*, etc. verbs are not included if they are normally used in phrases of purpose, that is, if in order can be inserted with no change of meaning: *they were drilling (in order) to improve their pronunciation, he was running (in order) to catch a train, she stopped (in order) to chat*, etc.

The sixth pattern includes the small number of verbs that are followed by an infinitive without to: we must work<sup>30</sup>. These verbs,

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<sup>29</sup>B.S Azar, *Understanding and Using English Grammar*, Second edition, (Prentice Hall: 1989), p.168-169

<sup>30</sup>B.S Azar, *Fundamentals of English Grammar*, Second edition, (Prentice Hall: 1992), p.94

with the exception of *dare*, *help* (esp. AE), and *need*, are called *modals*. The verbal phrases *had better* and *would rather* also fit this pattern: *he had better (would rather) go*.

The seventh pattern is verbs followed by a second verb in *-ing*. Typical examples of this construction are: *they enjoy watching television, he kept talking, she quit smoking, etc*<sup>31</sup>.

The eighth pattern is transitive verbs followed by an object and *to* + infinitive<sup>32</sup>. Typical examples of this construction are: *she asked me to come, they challenged us to fight, we forced them to leave, etc*.

The ninth pattern is transitive verbs followed by a direct object and an infinitive without *to*<sup>33</sup>. Examples of this construction are: *she heard them leave, we let the children go to the park, they saw her drive up to the house, etc*.

The tenth pattern is transitive verbs followed by an object and a verb form in *-ing*<sup>34</sup>. Typical examples of this construction are: *I caught them stealing apples, we found the children sleeping on the floor, he kept me waiting two hours, etc*.

The eleventh pattern is verbs which can be followed by a noun clause beginning with the conjunction *that*<sup>35</sup>. Examples are: *they admitted that they were wrong; she believed that her sister would come; he denied that he had taken the money*.

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<sup>31</sup>B.S Azar, *Understanding and Using English Grammar*, Second edition, (Prentice Hall: 1989), p.168

<sup>32</sup> B.S Azar, *Understanding and Using English Grammar*, Second edition, (Prentice Hall: 1989), p.277-278

<sup>33</sup> Marcella Frank, *Modern English*, (New York: Prentice Hall, 1972), p.309

<sup>34</sup> A.J Thompson and A.V Martinet, *A Practical English Grammar*, Fourth edition, (London: Oxford University Press, 1968), P.240-242

<sup>35</sup> Marcella Frank, *Modern English*, (New York: Prentice Hall, 1972), p.287

The twelfth pattern is transitive verbs which can be followed by a direct object and an adjective or a past participle or a noun or pronoun<sup>36</sup>. Here are several examples of this construction: *she dyed her hair red, we found them interesting, the soldiers found the village destroyed, she had her tonsils removed, we appointed Bob secretary, her friends call her Becky.*

The thirteenth pattern is intransitive, reflexive, and transitive verbs which must be followed by an adverbial<sup>37</sup>. The adverbial may be an adverb, a prepositional phrase, or a clause. For example, we can not say normally in English *he carried himself*. An adverbial is required to form a complete sentence: *he carried himself well*; or, *he carried himself with dignity.*

The fourteenth pattern is verbs which can be followed by an interrogative word: *how, what, when, which, who, why*; to these we also add *whether* (which often alternates in clauses with *if*). These interrogative words often called *w-h question words*. Note: verbs that can be followed by what are not included. An example is verb want: we can say *he wants what I want*, but not *he wants how I want*.

The verbs can be followed by a w-h question word and usually by either a to + infinitive construction or by a clause: *he asked how to do it, they informed us where applications were being accepted, etc.*

The fifteenth pattern is a small number of transitive verbs followed by a predicate noun or by a predicate adjective: *she became an engineer, he was a teacher, he becomes smug*. The verb *make*, used transitively, belongs here: *he'll make a good teacher.*

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<sup>36</sup> George E. Wishon, *et al*, *Let's Write English*, Revised edition, (Litton Educational Publishing: 1980), p.56-61

<sup>37</sup> George E. Wishon, *et al*, *Let's Write English*, Revised edition, (Litton Educational Publishing: 1980), p.8-14

A somewhat larger of intransitive verbs can be followed by a predicate adjective<sup>38</sup>. Examples are: *she looks fine; the flowers smell nice, the food tastes good.*

#### E. Newspaper

We can describe a newspaper as a publication containing news, information, and advertising<sup>39</sup>. In other words, newspaper is a group of large pages usually folded together that have pictures and stories that tell about things which just happened<sup>40</sup>. It is usually printed everyday or at least one a week. From these definitions, the writer can sum up that newspaper is one of printed journalism containing either news, information which just happened or advertising which has pictures and announcement and it is usually printed everyday or one a week.

The first daily newspapers were hand-written by Benedictine monks in the tenth century. In keeping with regularity of the routine impose by the rule of St. Benedict; every issue was identical, except on holiday and when abbots died<sup>41</sup>.

Now day, the newspaper is very essential for us to know what happen around the globe. As students, we have to frequently read newspaper in order that we can know information around the globe. Reading newspaper helps us to understand how to write good writing

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<sup>38</sup>George E. Wishon, *et all, Let's Write English*, Revised edition, (Litton Educational Publishing: 1980), p.68-77

<sup>39</sup>C. Dow Tate, "Newspaper", <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/newspaper.com> on Tuesday December, 7 2010

<sup>40</sup>Lane Goddard , "Definition of Newspaper", <http://library.ci.glendale.ca.us/lr-definitions.asp.com> on Tuesday December, 7 2010

<sup>41</sup>Bolis, "The History of Newspaper", <http://drboli.wordpress.com/2009/06/dr-bolis-encyclopedia-of-mininformatio-16> on Tuesday December, 7 2010

work. Newspaper is kinds of factual text. It can be model of students to identify writing elements which they have to posses in the hope that they can improve their writing skills.

One of writing elements found in newspaper is English grammatical collocation. It gives significant impact in meaning when the author/writer uses it. It can be reject able when we write writing work but we ignore English grammatical collocation. It will affect the meaning. So, English grammatical collocation is frequently used by author/writer of newspaper to convey the information to the reader.

The language which is frequently used by certain community can be referred as language style of certain community and we have known that newspaper also has language style and usually it is called language style of newspaper. Therefore, we have known that newspaper uses written language as its vehicle to deliver its work.

Writing as branch study of language means that if we study writing it means that we are studying language. If newspaper is used as the object study in writing subject, the learner must have knowledge of its language style.

Newspaper is one of the printed journalisms which have elements to build students' ability in writing English as second language. Language and its style is the important thing of newspaper elements.

Language becomes the vehicle that carries the other elements to the reader. The English grammatical collocation is integral part of language style of newspaper. The advantages of the language here is to convey news, information, and advertising and to describe something as so much as do with our visualization and res pond to it. The style of the language is used by the author/writer of Jakarta post newspaper to tell us a great deal about the "event", and the symbolic nature of

language may complement and support the identification about news and information or meaning.

Newspaper language is recognized as a particular variety of style, characterized by specific communicative purpose and its own system of language means. It includes system of interrelated lexical, phraseology, and grammatical means serving the purpose of informing, instructing, an in addition, of entertaining the readers. As a result of this diversity of purpose, newspaper contains not only strictly information but also evaluative material such as comments and views of the news-writers, especially characteristic of editorials and feature articles<sup>42</sup>.

Newspaper language is recognized as a particular variety of style, characterized by specific communicative purpose and its own system of language means. It includes system of interrelated lexical, phraseology, and grammatical means serving the purpose of informing, instructing, an in addent, and conclusion including recommendation and solution.

Editorial is newspaper voice in general and does not mention its writer. It is written by single writer. Editorial writer uses plural pronoun such as “our voice” taking into consideration of the fact that editorial is newspaper voice despite of the fact that it is written by unidentified writer. Opinion expressed inside usually represents majority of newspaper member and editorial board. Editorial board discusses topics, seeks agreement, and presents single or several argumentations to support agreed/approved opinion. In fact, there are

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<sup>42</sup> Sherry A. Taylor , “Newspaper”, <http://eng.1sept.ru/2007/12/9.htm> on Tuesday December, 7 2010

three types of editorial in a newspaper. They are advocate, problem solution, and appreciation editorials<sup>43</sup>.

Advocate editorial represents, explains, and pursues and supports change/transformation which usually relates with important news/information within newspaper. Such editorial will give information to its reader why such important events happened. It also can elaborate significance of idea and certain condition. In several cases, editorial identifies term and issue, figure and factor, and also elaborate background and cultural history.

Problem solution editorial is another type which often we find in newspaper. Sometimes we call it “critical editorial”. It is used by editorial staff which wants to concern on a problem or to criticize person activity. Because a newspaper needs to act responsibly, it not only presents critic but also elaborate causal problem and the solution which has to be offered. The three-steps process is identical with scientific method: argumentation of problem, presenting evident, and conclusion including recommendation and solution.

Appreciation editorial is one of editorial writer’s choices. In many communities including school, and university, a newspaper has status and central of authority. Because of its position, a newspaper concerns on what happen in campus or in other circumstances/environments. When a person or a community does phenomenal thing, newspaper will concern on and perhaps inform his/her/their achievement. However, a newspaper also has another choice; a newspaper can

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<sup>43</sup> Tom E. Rolnicki, *Pengantar Dasar Jurnalisme (Schoolastic Journalism)*, (Jakarta: Kencana, 2008), p.133



appreciate a person or a community directly by a mean of editorial. This will make a person or a community famous<sup>44</sup>.

#### F. Previous Research

1. The research has been done by Cita Noormasari (2201405565), a student of UNNES Semarang (2008), on title Interpersonal meaning in the article of reader's *Digest Magazine* issued in February 2008 and its contribution to teaching writing. The process of interpersonal meaning was realized in lexicogrammar through the system of mood and residue. The result of this study can give pedagogical implication in teaching writing.
2. The research has been done by Iping Nurwijayanti Widyani (2250402529), a student of UNNES Semarang (2008), on title A syntactical analysis on Oscar Wilde's short story *the young king*. The goal of study is meant that teacher will be more selective in choosing reading material for their students by making the short story.

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<sup>44</sup> Tom E. Rolnicki, *Pengantar Dasar Jurnalisme (Shoolastic Journalism)*, (Jakarta: Kencana, 2008), p.135-141