

## **CHAPTER II**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter presents about the definition of grammar, definition of error analysis, kinds of errors, and more information about grammatical errors.

#### **2.1 Definition of Grammar**

According to Oxford learner's pocket dictionary (2008, p.193), grammar is rules for forming words and making sentences. Moreover, it usually takes into account the meanings and functions. These sentences have in the overall system of the language. It may or may not include in the description of the sounds of a language.

#### **2.2 Definition of Error Analysis**

According to Richards et al as cited in Emmaryana (2010, p.5), Error analysis is an activity to reveal errors found in writing and speaking. Error analysis is the study of errors made by the second and foreign language learners. Error analysis may be carried out in order to :

- a. find out how well someone knows language,
- b. Find out how a person learns language, and
- c. obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. This definition stresses the functions of error analysis.

In addition, James as cited in Emmaryana (2010, p.5), error analysis is the process of determinating the incidence, nature, causes, and consequences of unsuccessful language.

### 2.3 Kinds of Errors

There are four kinds of errors according to Dulay et.al as cited in Miryanti (2012, p.152) :

1. Omission. This is kind of error are characterized by the absence of an item appearing in a well-formed utterance. For example, “*Please, call back*”. The example is characterized by omitting an item namely “the object”. This sentence should be “*Please, call me back*”.
2. Addition. This type of error is characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear a well-formed utterance. For example, “*He doesn’t likes playing football*” instead of “*He doesn’t like playing football*”.
3. Misinformation errors are characterized by the use of wrong form of the morpheme. For instance, “*This is he’s dog*”. The sentence must be reconstructed as “*This is his dog*”.
4. Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in a sentence. For example, “*She doesn’t know what time is it*”. It should be “*She doesn’t know what time it is*”.

### 2.4 The Causes of Error

Based on Norrish as cited in Emmaryana (2010, p.7), there are three types of cause error. They are :

#### a. Carelessness

It is often closely related to lack of motivation. Many teachers will admit that it is not always the student’s fault if he loses interest, perhaps the material and/or style of presentation do not suit him.

b. First language

Norrich reveals that learning a language ( a mother tongue or foreign language) is a matter of habit formation. When someone tries to learn new habits, the old ones will interfere the new ones. This cause of error is called first language interference.

c. Translation

It happens because a student translate his first language sentence or idiomatic expression in to the target language word by word. This is probably the most common cause of error.

## 2.5 The Procedures of Error

The procedures of error analysis according to Gass and Selinker as cited in Emmeryana (2010, p.10) are as follows :

1. Identify errors, and what error is (e.g. incorrect sequence of tenses, wrong verb form, etc).
2. Classify errors. Is it an error of tense ?, or is it an error n sentence pattern ?.
3. Quantify errors
4. Analysis of sources / causes.
5. Remediation. Based on the kind and frequency of an error type, pedagogical intervention is carried out.

## 2.6 Sources of Error

According to Brown (2000, pp.223-227), there are some possible sources of errors, they are :

### 1. Interlingual transfer

The beginning stages of learning a second language are especially vulnerable to interlingual transfer from the native language, or interference. In these early stages, before the system of the second language is familiar, the native language is familiar, the native language is the only previous linguistic system upon which the learner can draw. For example, we have all heard all English learner's say "sheep" for "ship", or "the book of jack" instead of "Jack's book". All these errors are attributable to negative interlingual transfer. While it is not always clear that an error is the result of transfer from the native language, many such errors are detectable in learner speech. Fluent knowledge or even familiarity with a learner's native language, of course aids the teacher in detecting and analyzing such errors.

### 2. Intralingual Transfer

Intralingual errors or intralingual interference the native transfer items within the target language, or put another way, the incorrect generalization of rules within the target language is a major factor in second language learning. The early stages of language of learning are characterized by a predominance of interlingual transfer, but once the learner has begun to acquire parts of the new system, more and more intralingual transfer (generalization within the target language) is manifested. Negative interlingual transfer (over generalization) has already been illustrated in such utterances "does John can sing ?" other example abound utterances like "he goed" "I don't know what time is it".

### 3. Context of Learning

Context refers to the classroom with its teacher and its materials in the case of school learning, or the social situation in the case of untutored second language learning. In a classroom context the teacher or the textbook can lead the learner to make faulty hypotheses about the language. Students often make errors because of a misleading explanation from the teacher, faulty presentation of a structure or word in textbook. Or teacher may be out of some ignorance provide incorrect information-not an uncommon occurrence by way of misleading definition, word, or grammatical generalization.

#### 4. Communication Strategies

A communication strategy is the conscious employment of verbal or non verbal mechanism for communicating an idea when precise linguistic forms are for some reasons not readily available to the learner at point in communication.

## **2.7 Inaccurate Grammar Found in The Book**

### **2.7.1 Sentences**

In addition, Ann as cited in Ginting (2009, p.16) said that a sentence in standard written English has essential requirements. They are :

- Each new sentence must begin with capital letter.
- A sentence must end with a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point.
- A sentence must contain a subject that is only stated once.
- A sentence must contain a complete verb phrase, containing auxiliary verbs such as is, were, has, will, et cetera.
- A sentence must contain standard word order.
- A sentence must have one independent core idea that can stand alone.

Based on those above explanations, at least, it must have one subject and one verb. For examples :

- **I like** playing basketball. “**I**” is the subject, and “**like**” is the verb.
- **We have** a meeting with them. “**We**” is the subject and “**have**” is the verb.
- **She gets** a new book. “**She**” is the subject and “**gets**” is the verb.

Based on Eliah as cited in Reza (2012, p.6), sentence has four types when it is divided structurally. They are simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentence, and compound-complex sentence.

a. Simple sentence

Clark (1865, p.39) said that a simple sentence is a sentence that asserts but one proposition. The characteristics of simple sentence are :

- a. A simple sentence may have more than one subject.
- b. A simple sentence may have more than one verb.
- c. A simple sentence may even have several subjects and verbs.

Here are the examples of simple sentence :

- a. **They** and **I** have a great plan.
- b. I **greet** her and **pick** her up
- c. **You** and **I** will **go** shopping at 6.00 P.M and **go** fishing tomorrow morning.

## b. Compound Sentence

Clark (1865, p.39) claimed that a compound sentence is a sentence that asserts more than one proposition. According to McClelland and Marcotte as cited in Erlangga (2008, p.8), the combination between two or more simple sentences is called a compound sentence. In addition, Oshima and Hogue as cited in Octarina (2011, p.6) defined that a compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses joined together. To connect dependent clause with independent clause, the sentence always uses coordinating conjunction. There are seven of coordinating conjunction such as *-for*, *-and*, *-nor*, *-but*, *-or*, *-yet*, and *-so* which abbreviated as FANBOYS. Here are the examples of compound sentence :

- I come late, **for** the bus broke down.
- You pay this, **and** I give my word.
- She did not go there, **nor** did I.
- I am doing my best, **but** I am still wrong.
- You want to take this, **or** you want to buy that.
- I have no money in my sleeves, **so** I go to ATM.

Meanwhile, according to Edgar (1915, p.7), there are sixteen coordinating conjunctions such as *-also*, *-and*, *-but*, *-for*, *-hence*, *-however*, *-nevertheless*, *-nor*, *-or*, *-so*, *-still*, *-therefore*, *-whereas*, *-wherefore*, *-while*, and *-yet*.

To make compound sentence, a sentence sometimes uses conjunctive adverb. Edgar (1915, p.7) defined that there are 13 conjunctive adverbs. They are *-after*, *-as*, *-before*, *-since*, *till*, *until*, *-when*, *-whenever*, *-where*, *-wherever*, *-while*, *-whilst*, and *-why*.

### c. Complex Sentence

Hogue as cited in Reza (2012, p.13) claimed that a complex sentence contains one independent clause, and (or more) dependent clause(s). In line with Hogue, Bram as cited in Octarina (2011, p.9) stated that the independent clause or main clause can stand by itself, but the dependent clause or subordinate clause cannot stand by itself. The examples of complex sentence are as follows :

- When you are coming down, you are unable to do those things properly.
- I will be back soon when the mission is done.
- We know what affects them.
- The man who is running after you is one of interpol's staff.

### d. Compound-Complex Sentence

Kierzek and Gibson as cited in Randora (2010, p.15) stated that the elements of a compound-complex sentence are :

- a. Containing two or more independent clauses.
- b. Containing one dependent clause.

The example of compound-complex sentence is **“I am going to buy a new car, but I firstly have to earn more money after I had a long vacation on Hawaii”**. The word **“I am going to buy a new car”**, and the word **“but I firstly have to earn more money”** are the independent clauses, and the word **“after I had a long vacation on Hawaii”** is the dependent clause. Those independent clauses can stand without the dependent clause and they are still able to be understood which mean that he or she must get more money before buying that new car.



### 2.7.2 Tenses

According to Oxford Learner's pocket dictionary (2000, p.445), tense is the verb form that shows the time of the action or state. Wren and Martin (1999, p.78) said that the word *tense* comes from the latin *tempus* which means time. The tense of a verb not only shows the time of an action or event, but also the state of an action referred to. From the definitions, it can be deduced that tense is the relationship between the form of the verb and the time of the action or state it describes. The tense has relation to grammar in making good sentences.

There are four fundamental tenses which consist of four tenses. At this part, the writer only explain about simple present tense, present perfect tense, and simple past tense.

#### a. Simple present tense

Based on Azar (1941, p.3), simple present expresses daily habits or usual activities and general statement. In sum, the simple present is used for events or situations that exist always, usually, or habitually in the past, present, and future. These are Azar's forms of the simple present as follows :

	Simple Present
Statement :	{I-You-We-They} work. {She-He-It} works.
Negative:	{I-You-We-They} do not work. {She-He-It} does not work.
Question :	Do {I-You-We-They} work ? Does {She-He-It} work ?

Table 1

Moreover, Wren and Martin (1999, p.106), simple present tense is used :

1. To express a habitual or repeated actions. For example, *He **eats** bread every morning.*
2. To express general truth. For example, *sun **rises** in the east*
3. In exclamatory sentences beginning with **here** and **there**, to express what is actually taking place in the present. For example, ***there** you are!*
4. In vivid narrative, as a substitute for the simple past. For example, *Sohrab now **rushes** forward and **deals** a heavy blow to Rustum*
5. To express a future event that is part of a fixed timetable or arrangement or fixed programme. For example, *we **go** to New York next week*

b. Present perfect tense

Azar (1941, p.162) defined that present perfect expresses activities or situations that occurred (or did not occur) “before now,” at some unspecified time in the past. These are Azar’s forms of the present perfect as follows :

Statement : Have / Has + Past Participle a) I <b>have finished</b> my work. b) The students <b>have finished</b> . c) Jim <b>has eaten</b> lunch.	The basic form of the present perfect : <b>have</b> or <b>has</b> + <b>the past participle</b> . Use <b>have</b> with I, you, we, they or a plural noun (e.g., <b>students</b> ). Use <b>has</b> with she, he, it, or a singular noun (e.g., <b>Jim</b> ). With pronouns, <b>have</b> is contracted to apostrophe + ve (‘ve) and <b>has</b> to apostrophe + s (‘s).
d) I’ve / You’ve / We’ve / They’ve eaten lunch. e) She’s / He’s eaten lunch. f) It’s been cold for the last three days.	
Negative : Have / Has + Not + Past Participle g) I <b>have not (haven’t) finished</b> my work. h) Ann <b>has not (hasn’t) eaten</b> lunch.	
Question : Have / Has + Subject + Past Participle i) <b>Have you finished</b> your work ? j) <b>Has Jim eaten</b> lunch	In a question, the helping verb ( <b>have</b> or <b>has</b> ) precedes the subject.
k) A : Have you seen that movie ?	The helping verb ( <b>have</b> or <b>has</b> ) is used in a short

B : Yes, <b>I have</b> . Or : No, <b>I haven't</b> . 1) A : Has Jim eaten lunch ? B : Yes, he <b>has</b> . Or : No, he, <b>hasn't</b> .	answer to a yes / no question. The helping verb in a short answer is not contracted with the pronoun.
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Table 2

In addition, Wren and Martin (1999, pp.82-83) reveals that present perfect tense is used :

1. To indicate completed activities in the immediate past. For example, *Julia **has just finished** junior high school*
2. To express past actions whose time is not given and not definite. For example, *I **have been** in Europe many times*
3. To describe past events when we think more of their effect in the present than of the action itself. For example, *I **have broken** my leg* (my leg **is** broken now)
4. To denote an action beginning at the same time in the past and continuing up to the present moment. For example, *My parents **have lived** in their house for 40 years*

c. Simple past tense

These are Azar's forms of the simple past as follows :

Statement	{I-You-She-He-It-We-They} <b>worked</b> yesterday. <b>ate</b> breakfast.
Negative	{I-You-She-He-It-We-They} <b>did not (didn't) work</b> yesterday. <b>did not (didn't) eat</b> breakfast.
Question	Did {I-You-She-He-It-We-They} <b>work</b> yesterday ? <b>eat</b> breakfast ?
Short Answer	Yes, {I-You-She-He-It-We-They} <b>did</b> .

	or No	<b>didn't.</b>
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Table 3

According to Wren and Martin (1999, p.83), the simple past is used to indicate an action completed in the past. It often occurs with adverb or adverb phrases of time. For example, *the security **found** stranger's body laid on the ground a week ago.*

Simple past tense is sometimes used without an adverb of time and the time may be either implied or indicated by the context. For example, I ***didn't watch*** the match (i.e last night).

In addition, Azar (1941, p.18) revealed that simple past tense is used to talk about activities or situation that began and ended in the past (e.g., yesterday, last night, two days ago, in 1999). For example, *Sarah **walked** uptown a couple of weeks ago.*

In addition, Thomson and Martinet (1986, p.198), the simple past tense is also used in conditional sentence type two. For example, *if I **had** a time, I would do it.*

### 2.7.3 Possessives

Based on Thomson and Martinet (1986, p.75), possessive adjective in English refers to the possessor and not to the thing possessed. Everything that a man or a boy possesses is his thing, or everything that a woman or a girl possesses is her thing

No.	Possessive Adjective	Possessive Pronoun
1.	My	Mine
2.	Your	yours

3.	his / her / its	his / hers
4.	Our	ours
5.	Their	theirs

Table 4

Everything that a non-living thing or an animal possesses is its thing. For instance, *a cat plays **its** tail*. On the other hand, when the sex of animal is already known, **his** or **her** would be used and **their** would be used for the animal more than one.

Moreover, Azar (1941, p.79) stated that a possessive adjective is used only with a noun following it. For example, the sentence is “*She borrowed **my** book*”. The word “**my**” must be followed by a noun. At this example, the word “**book**” comes after the possessive adjective namely “**my**”.

In addition, Azar (1941, p.79) also defined that a possessive pronoun is used alone, without a noun following it. For instance, the sentence is “*They have **theirs***”. The words “**theirs**” stands alone without having any noun. In addition, Phillips said in these following examples :

1. The boys will cause trouble if you let **him**.
2. Everyone must give **their** name.

That “be sure that every pronoun and possessive agrees with the noun it refers to” for number 1, and “you generally check *back* in the sentence agreement” for number 2.

#### 2.7.4 Singular and Plural Nouns

Wren and Martin (1999, pp.10-12) stated that singular noun is a noun that denotes one person or thing such as ant, cat, tree, baby, and et cetera.

Plural noun is a noun that denotes more than one person or thing such as ants, cats, trees, babies, and et cetera.

- a. Plural noun is commonly formed by adding *-s* to the singular.

Book => Books

- b. Singular noun ends with *-s*, *-sh*, *-ch*, or *-x* form. They should be added by *-es*.

Appendix => Appendices

Speech => Speeches

Class => Classes

- c. Singular noun that ends with *-y* should be added with *-es* after *-y* changed to be *-i*.

Story => Stories

- d. For singular noun ended with *-f* or *-fe*, it should be added with *-es* after *-f* or *-fe* changed to be *-v*.

Wolf => Wolves

Sometimes there are singular nouns *-f* or *-fe* that can use *-s* or *-es* when they are plural.

Scarf => Scarves

Other word ends in *-f* or *-fe* added *s* in the ordinary way.

Cliff => Cliffs

- e. Several singular nouns only change the inside vowel of the singular.

Woman => Women

- f. There are also several nouns that their plural forms are added by *-en*.

Child => Children

- g. There are also the singular nouns which have the same form with the plural form.

Fish => Fish

### 2.7.5 Subject-Verb Agreement

According to Wren and Martin (1999, p.267), a verb must agree with its subject in number and person. For example, *the boss of their companies is her family*.

### 2.7.6 Article –a or –an

Based on Thomson and Martinet (1986, p.15) the form **–a** is used before beginning a word with a consonant, or a vowel with a consonant sound such as *a man, a university, and a European*.

The article **–an** is used before beginning word with a vowel (**–a, –i, –u, –e, –o**) or beginning with **–a** mute **–h** such as *an apple, and an hour*. The examples are :

*She has **a** cute cat*

*We brought **an** unfamous nove*

**–a** is used in front of words begin with a consonant such as *a hard day, a nice girl, and a polite person*. **–an** is used in front of words that begin with the vowels **–a, –i, –u, –e, and –o**. These are the examples :

*He is **an** impolite boy*

*It is **an** unnecessary thing*

For words that begin with letter **–u** :

- a. **–an** is used if the **–u** is a vowel sound.

*An unnecessary moment*

- b. **–a** is used if the **–u** is a consonant sound.

*A universe*

For words that begin with letter **-h** :

- a. **-an** is used if the **-h** is silent.

*An honourable teacher*

- b. **-a** is used if the **-h** is pronounced.

*A lucky day*

### 2.7.7 Passive

According to Thomson and Martinet (1986, p.263), the passive voice of an active tense is formed by putting the verb to be into the same tense as the active verb and adding the past past participle of the active verb. The subject of the active verb becomes the ‘agent’ of the passive verb. The agent is very often not mentioned. When it is mentioned, it is preceded by “**by**” and placed at the end of the clause.

For instance : this book was paid by my brother.

In addition, Ed swick as cited in Rukiah (2011, p.1) defined that passive voice is a structure that allows you to make a statement without knowig who performed the action of sentence.

Based on Azar (1941, p.277), here are the tense forms of passive verbs :

Notice that all the passive verbs are formed with <b>BE + Past Participle</b>			
No.	Tense	Active	Passive
1.	Simple Present	The news surprises me	I am surprised by the news
2.	Simple Past	The news surprised us	We were surprised by the news
3.	Present Perfect	Bob has mailed the letter	The letter has been mailed by Bob
4.	Future	Bob will mail the letter	The letter will be mailed by Bob

Table 5



### 2.7.8 Infinitive

Azar (1941, p.251) stated that to infinitive should be followed by the simple form of a verb.

For example : Tom has decided **to buy** a new car.

Based on explanation above, it can be deduced that the verb that comes after to infinitive must be in the simple form of a verb.

### 2.7.9 Superlative

According to Azar (1941, p.332) the superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs are as follows :

One-Syllable Adjectives	The oldest The wisest	For most one-syllable adjectives, <b>-est</b> is added.
Two-Syllable Adjectives	The most famous	For most two-syllable adjective, <b>most</b> is used.
	The prettiest	<b>-est</b> is used with two-syllable adjectives that end in <b>-y</b> . The <b>-y</b> is changed into <b>-i</b> .
	The cleverest The most clever	Some two-syllable adjectives use <b>-est</b> or <b>most</b> .
Adjective with three or more syllables	The most important	<b>Most</b> is used with long adjectives.
Irregular Adjectives	The best	<b>Good</b> has irregular comparative and superlative forms.

-ly Adverbs	The most carefully	<b>Most</b> is used with adverbs that end in <i>-ly</i> .
One-Syllable Adverbs	The fastest	The <i>-est</i> forms are used with one-syllable adverbs.
Irregular Adverbs	The worst	

Table 6

From the table, we can conclude that the form of superlative is **the + adjective** or **adverb** (the use of *most* depends on whether the adjective or the adverb is more than one-syllable or not).

#### 2.7.10 Appositive

According to Phillips (2008, pp.101-102), “an appositive is a noun that comes before or after another noun and has the same meaning. The example is :

- Tom, **a really good mechanic**, is fixing the car.
- **A really good mechanic**, Tom is fixing the car.

He also revealed that “an appositive is a noun that comes before or after and is generally set off from the noun with commas. If a word is an appositive, it is not the subject”.