

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the writer presents punctuation, the kinds and the usages of punctuation, the concept of errors and mistakes, the kinds of errors, and abstract.

2.1 Punctuation

Punctuation plays very important role in giving intended meaning to the language. Use of wrong punctuation or even wrong placement of punctuation can change the meaning of the sentence completely and sometimes even convert the sentence to complete nonsense.

According to Nordquist (2016), punctuation is the set of marks used to regulate texts and clarify their meanings, principally by separating or linking words, phrases, and clauses.

Lauchman (2010:17) said that punctuation is a code, used in writing, often necessary for meaning and for emphasis. The code originated in attempts to capture, in text, the various stops, pauses, and inflections of speech, while Wikoff (2012) states that punctuation is the “symbols” used to help people read/process sentences, the way people want them to be heard and understood.

Punctuation is the system of symbols that we use to separate sentences and parts of sentences, and to make their meaning clear. Each symbols is called “punctuation mark.”

From the definition above, the writer concludes that the punctuation is symbols used in writing to explain the meaning of the text clearly.

2.1.1 Kinds and Usages of Punctuation Marks

According to Tunicak (2003), there are nearly 18 punctuation marks frequently used in writing. They are period/full stop (.), question mark (?), exclamation mark (!), hyphen (-), dash (--), parentheses (()

), bracket set ([]), ellipsis (...), slash (/), asterisk (*), display dot (‘), italics, underscore (_), quotation marks (“ ”), colon (:), semicolon (;), apostrophe (’), comma (,).

2.1.1.1 Period (.)

a. A period (.) is used at the end of a sentence that makes a statement.

Example :

- I’ll take the test tomorrow morning.

b. A period (.) is used inside quotation marks.

Example :

- The attorney replied, “Your Honor, I had temporary brain damage when I wrote this brief.”

2.1.1.2 Question Mark (?)

a. A question mark (?) is used at the end of a direct question.

Example :

- Do you know the most direct route to New York City?

b. A question mark (?) is used inside quotation marks when the quoted material is a question.

Example :

- She asked, “Has the meeting been rescheduled?”

2.1.1.3 Exclamation Mark (!)

An exclamation mark (!) is used at the end of an emphatic declaration.

Example :

- Keep off the grass!

2.1.1.4 Hyphen (-)

a. A hyphen (-) is used to separate words at the end of lines, to create compound words, and to write numbers.

Example :

1. To separate word at the end of lines: - **Incorrect** : sup
-port
- **Correct** : sup-
port
2. To create compound word : - noun+adjective : sugar-free
adjective+participle : good-looking
3. To write number : the past twenty-seven years, thirty-six members

- b. Use a hyphen to join prefixes to capitalized nouns unless the combined form has become conventional.

Example :

- An up-to-date dictionary supplies guidance here.
- anti-European, pre-Columbian, Pro-American

2.1.1.5 Dash (—)

- a. A dash (—) or two hyphens (—) is used to set off parenthetical or related elements. When writing dialogue, it is used to show breaks in thought, or shifts in tone.

Example :

- The Smith triplets—Tom, Dick, and Harry—argued constantly.
 - “How often do I have to tell you not to—” the teacher stopped talking and stared at the floor.
- b. Use a dash (instead of a colon) to introduce a summary statement. Use the dash for this purpose only when you want to strongly emphasize the concluding thought. Example:
 - The project manager came right to the point—productivity must improve.

2.1.1.6 Parentheses [()]

- a. A parentheses [()] is used to include either material that you want to de-emphasize or does not comfortably fit with the text flow.

Example :

- Six years after her retirement, Esther Franklin (we remember her for deep-dish sweet potato pie) is still spoken of fondly by her co-workers.
 - Six years after her retirement, Esther Franklin is still spoken of fondly. (We remember her for her deep-dish sweet potato pie.)
- b. Use parentheses to introduce acronyms and abbreviations (including unfamiliar abbreviation of measurement).

Example :

- The Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) can't agree on a quota.

2.1.1.7 Bracket Set ([])

A bracket set ([]) is used either to include explanatory words within quoted language or to enclose changed letters or words within a quotation.

Example :

- Steve Smith, the Regional Director of Marketing, explained that Roger Right, a new sales manager [at Smithco headquarters] will be responsible for issuing bonuses. Right credited his former employer with “guiding [his] career advancement.”

2.1.1.8 Ellipsis (...)

An ellipsis (...) is used when you're quoting some material and want to omit several words.

Example :

- The dance contest features talented couples from Hartford who are attending classes at Harvard.
- The dance contest features talented couples ...attending classes at Harvard.

2.1.1.9 Slash (/)

A slash (/) is used to indicate a choice between the words it separates.

Example :

- The stop/go traffic pattern wrought havoc with the small community's business district.

2.1.1.10 Asterisk (*)

An asterisk (*) refers readers to a footnote at the bottom of a page or replaces words considered unprintable.

Example :

- It was fortunate that the microphone was off when the moderator called the guest an *** during yesterday's live news program.

2.1.1.11 Display Dot (‘)

A display dot (‘) is used to emphasize specific items that are parallel in grammatical structure. They precede either complete or incomplete sentences.

Example :

- The lieutenant's speech followed a tried and true pattern:
Tell ‘em what you're going to tell ‘em
Tell ‘em what you told ‘em

2.1.1.12 Italics

Italics (*italics*) are used to distinguish and emphasize the word and the certain group of words, the names of ships, submarines, aircraft, spacecraft, magazines, and newspaper in printed material. Italicize the name only, not initials or numbers preceding or following the name.

Example :

- *East of Eden*
- The *best* ideas

2.1.1.13 Underscore (_)

An underscore (_) is used in place of italics to identify titles of whole published works and to distinguish the names of ships, planes and spacecraft when italics cannot be used (i.e. typewriter, handwritten documents). The underscore is also used to denote a word simply as a word and not for its meaning.

Example :

- Time magazine
- F-4 Phantom

2.1.1.14 Quotation Marks (“ ”)

Quotation marks (“ ”) set off material that represents quoted or spoken language. Double quotation marks are used to enclose direct quotations. Single quotation marks enclose a quotation within a quotation. Always capitalize the first word of a direct quotation because it's the first word of someone's sentence.

Example :

- “The best things in life are free,” said the seasoned shoplifter.
 - “The purpose of this study,” explained the researcher, “is to analyze the term ‘hoorah’.”
 - Jack said to Diane, “That is your third piece of pie.”
- a. Quotation marks are used around the titles of works that are part of larger works.
- “Grammar” is the first chapter in the book entitled Better English-Better Salary.
- b. Quotation marks may be used to enclose words used in a special sense.
- The most famous member of the “Hollywood rat pack” was Frank Sinatra.

- c. It is important that other marks of punctuation are placed in the proper position when used with quotation marks. An exception occurs when a source reference immediately follows a quotation. In this instance, a comma or period is placed after the reference. Commas and periods are placed inside quotation marks, while colons and semicolons are placed outside the quotation marks.
- “Life is sweet,” said the confectioner.
 - The research assistant termed the find “incredible” (Miller 6).
 - A decade ago, the team’s motto was “Refuse to Lose”; today, however, it’s “Win Again.”
- d. Dashes, question marks, and exclamation points are placed inside quotation marks only if they belong to the quotation. Otherwise, place them outside the quotation marks.
- With a trembling voice, Stacey said, "I thought you'd never call—"
 - “Get out of here!” said the disgruntled manager to his new employee.
 - She asked, “Will you still be my friend?”

2.1.1.15 Colon (:)

- a. A colon (:) is used before a list, a concluding explanation, an appositive, or a formal quotation.

Example :

- He had three passions: reading, writing, and speaking.
- Public radio programming is definitely eclectic: it includes music, talk shows, and newscasts.
- Life has only one major drawback: death.
- The historian had a great explanation: “A lengthy explanation would then follow.”

b. A colon is also used to separate titles, subtitles, and subdivisions of time.

- Hannibal: A History of His Tactics
- 7:26 PM

2.1.1.16 Semicolon (;)

A semicolon (;) is used to sort out items or to separate related independent clauses.

Example :

- There were delegates from Helsinki, Finland; Moscow, Russia; Paris, France.
- He rarely goes outside during the hot weather; he's afraid he'll get a sunburn.

2.1.1.17 Apostrophe (')

An apostrophe (') is used to create possessive forms, contractions, and some plural forms.

Example :

- The airman's uniform
- She should've
- Learners'

2.1.1.18 Comma (,)

A comma (,) is used to separate elements in a series of three or more things, including the last two. A comma may also be used with a conjunction to connect two independent clauses.

Example :

- "Eat, drink, and be merry," said the Mardi Gras coordinator.
- She stole the inbound pass, but lost the ball while dribbling on a breakaway.

- a. Use a comma to set off introductory elements. It is permissible to omit the comma as long as it does not leave the reader confused or hinder the sentence's readability.

Example :

- For some the day begins before dawn. (The meaning of this sentence is fuzzy.)
- For some, the day begins before dawn. (The comma provides clarification.)

- b. Use a comma to set off parenthetical expressions. The comma separates the essential parts of the sentence from the additional (and oftentimes expendable) parenthetical information. The non-essential elements are underscored in the provided

Example :

- The Richford Office Tower, which houses thirty-three business suites, occupies a city block.

- c. When both a city's name and that city's state or country's name are mentioned together, the state or country's name is treated as a parenthetical element. When the state becomes a possessive form, this rule is not followed. Also, when the state or country's name becomes part of a compound structure, the second comma is dropped.

Example :

- He moved here from Cleveland, Ohio, last year.
- He is Cleveland, Ohio's favorite son.

- d. Use a comma to separate coordinate adjectives. If you can put an *and* or a *but* between the adjectives, a comma will probably belong there.

Example :

- I drive a very old, run-down vehicle. = I drive a very old and run-down vehicle.

e. Use a comma to set off quoted elements. Generally, a comma will separate the quoted material from the rest of the sentence explaining or introducing the question.

Example :

- Arguing the minority opinion, Justice Philips said, “The legal principle here is one of quality and not of quantity.”

f. If the attribution of a quoted element comes in the middle of the quotation, then two commas will be necessary. Commas are not necessary if the quoted element is introduced by the word *that* or is embedded in a larger structure.

Example :

- Justice Philips said that “the legal principle...”

g. Instead of a comma, use a colon to set off explanatory or introductory language from a quoted element that is either formal or long.

Example :

- Justice Philips had this to say about the exploitation of children in the workplace: “We must endeavor...”

h. A comma is used to set off phrases that contrast. If the phrase begins with the word *but*, the comma may be omitted.

Example :

Incorrect : The vacation was incredibly enjoyable, but terribly expensive.

Correct : The vacation was incredibly enjoyable but terribly expensive.

- i. A comma should be used between the names of a city and state, a date and the year, a name and a title when the title follows the name and in long numbers.

Example :

- Richard L. Brewster, Director of Marketing, earned in excess of \$1,354,789 in salary and bonuses during 1999.
- The Denver, Colorado native retired July 17, 2000.

- j. When the date of a month is included, a comma or a set of commas is necessary. Without the date, the comma is omitted. Dates written in international or military format require no commas.

Example :

- July 17, 2000, was the day Richard L. Brewster retired.
- Richard L. Brewster retired 17 July 2000.

2.2 The Concept of Error and Mistake

Errors are described by the application of linguistic theory to the data or erroneous produced by a learner or a group of learners. Cunningsworth in Enam (2014) said errors are systematic deviations from the norms of the language being learned. Ellis (1997 : 17) states that the errors reflect gaps in learner knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct.

According to Hornby (1995:746), mistake is an action or opinion that is foolish or wrong. It is the most general and used in most situation. Corder (1981:10) states that mistakes are no significance to the system of the language learning.

From the definitions above, the writer concludes that error is the action or the state of being wrong because of lack of the data or the learner does not know which one is correct. Mistake is the action or opinion that is wrong because the learners are unable to perform what they know.

2.3 Sources of Error

According to Brown (2000), there are interlingual transfer and intralingual transfer sources of error, they are :

2.3.1 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 the only previous linguistic system upon which the learner can draw. For example, Uncle John said, “My car is blue”. instead of Uncle John said, “My car is blue.” 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, and many errors are detectable in learner speech.

According to Al-Khresheh in Sari (2015:5), he suggests that interlingual errors committed by literal translation.

- 1) Transfer Error: error caused by interference from mother tongue. A student who has not known the rules of target language will use the same rules as he obtained in his native language.
- 2) Mother tongue Interference: errors are produced in the learners’ attempt to discover the structure of the target language rather than transferring models of their first language.
- 3) Literal Translation: errors happen because a student translates his first language sentence or idiomatic expression in to the target language word by word.

2.3.2 Intralingual Transfer

Interference from the student’s own language is not the only reason for committing errors. Students may make mistake in the target language, since they do not know the target language very well, they have difficulties in using it. Richard states in Sari (2015:7), intralingual interference refers to items produced by learner, which reflect not the

structure of mother tongue, but generalization based on partial exposure of the target language.

Richard in Sari (2015:7) classifies the intralingual errors into four categories including over generalization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of the rules, and false concept hypothesized or semantic errors.

- 1) Overgeneralization: it happens when a learner creates a devian structure on the basis of his experience of other structure in the target language.
- 2) Ignorance of Rule Restrictions: ignorance is specific in the sense that one is normally said to be ignorant of structure; the learner of the second language does not obey the structure of the target language. In this type of error, the learner fails to observe the restrictions of existing structures. Some rule restriction errors may be accounted for in terms of analogy and may result from the role learning of rules.
- 3) Incomplete Application of the Rules: this error may occur when learner fails to apply the rules completely due to the stimulus sentence.
- 4) False Concept Hypothesized: learners' faulty understanding of distinctions of target language items leads to false conceptualization. Learners' faulty understanding of distinctions of target language items leads to false concept hypothesized.

2.4 Kinds of Errors

According to Dulay, Burt, and Krashen in Widyasari (2009), there are four kinds of error as follows :

1. Errors of Omission

Errors of omission where some element is omitted which should be present.

Example:

Incorrect : Before going to the school Joe stopped at my house.

Correct : Before going to the school, Joe stopped at my house.

In that sentence, sometimes you want to give an introduction or provide a background to a certain sentence. That is fine, but do not forget to place a comma after that introductory element. Notice that an introductory element can be a sentence (like in the example below) or a single word (e.g., however, moreover and so on).

2. Errors of Addition

Errors of addition where some element is present which should not be there. Dullay as quoted in Ristiyani (2011:26) divides addition error into three types, they are as follows:

1. Double Marking

Many addition errors are more accurately described as the failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistics construction, but not in others.

Example:

Incorrect : I don't know who its going to hurt more, you or me.
Look into it's eyes.

Correct : I don't know who it's going to hurt more, you or me.
Look into its eyes.

It's is short for "it is" or "it has," where the apostrophe (') designates a contraction and isn't possessive. The word "it's eyes" should be "its eyes" to show possessive.

2. Regularization

Regularization error refers to an error having exceptional items of the given class that do not take a marker's form.

For example:

Incorrect : Mouse's tail

Correct : Mice's tail

The examples above are regularization errors, in which the regular plural noun respectively have been added to items which do not take marker.

3. Simple Addition

Errors of simple addition refer to the addition of one element to the correct utterance.

Example:

Incorrect : My father has a car its color is green and it is very big.

Correct : My father has a car; its color is green, and it is very big.

In the utterance 1, the sentence is incorrect sentence because there is no punctuation mark to separate the item which is related to independent clause. And in the utterance 2, the sentence is correct sentence because the punctuation marks make the sentence clearer.

3. Errors of Selection

Errors of selection where the wrong item has been chosen in place of the right one. There are three subtypes of errors of selection, they are regularization error, archi-form, and alternating form.

1). Regularization Errors

Regularization errors are errors in which regular marker are used place of irregular ones. For example :

Incorrect : the platypus' bill

Correct : the platypuses' bill

The first sentence is singular noun while there is apostrophe (') to show the plural form. The correct sentence is the second sentence because "platypus" has changed into plural form with apostrophe of plural form.

2). Archi-forms

The selection of marker of one member of a class of forms to represent other in the class. The form selected by the learner is called archi-form. For example :

Incorrect : Ontario, Quebec and B.C are the three biggest provinces.

Correct : Ontario, Quebec, and B.C. are the three biggest provinces.

This type of misformation errors has been called archi-form. Before word “and” there is comma (,) to separate or listing three things or more.

3). Alternating Form

The use of archi-forms often gives the way to the apparently fairly free alternation of various member of a class with each other. For example :

Incorrect : Dan said: "In a town outside Brisbane, I saw “Tourists go home” written on a wall. But then someone told me, “Pay it no mind, lad.” "

Correct : Dan said: "In a town outside Brisbane, I saw 'Tourists go home' written on a wall. But then someone told me, 'Pay it no mind, lad.' "

In a sentence, if there is a quotation within quotation, the sign which is used for the quotation is single quotation mark. We can't use double quotation in quotation sentence.

4. Errors of Ordering

Errors of ordering where the elements presented are correct but wrong sequenced.

Examples:

Incorrect : “Watch Out”!, said the man to the children.

Correct : “ Watch Out!””, said the man to the children.

Taking a look at both sentences above have incorrect placement of exclamation mark (!). The first sentence is wrong because the exclamation mark is outside of the words. The second sentece is correct because “watch out” belongs to the quotation, so the exclamation mark is placed inside.

2.5 Definition of Abstract

According to Janecek (2013), the abstract is a succinct, single-paragraph summary of paper's purpose, main points, method, findings, and conclusions, and is often recommended to be written after the rest of paper has been completed.

An abstract contains brief summary of a research article, thesis, review, conference proceeding or any in-depth analysis of a particular subject and often used to help the reader quickly ascertain the paper's purpose. When it is used, an abstract always appears at the beginning of a manuscript or typescript, acting as the point-of-entry for any given academic paper or patent application.

The format of abstract follows these rules :

- The abstract's length should be a minimum of 150 words and a maximum of 250 words;
- It should be confined within a single paragraph.
- The first line of the abstract should not be indented five spaces from the left margin.
- The pages of the abstract should be double-spaced and typed in Times New Roman, 12 pt. The margins are set at 1" on all sides.
- While the running head is flush with the upper left-hand corner of every page, the page number is flush with the upper right-hand corner of every page.
- Note that all letters of the running head should be capitalized and should not exceed 50 characters, including punctuation, letters, and spaces.
- The title of the abstract is centered at the top of the page; there is no extra space between the title and the paragraph.
- Avoid formatting the title with bold, italics, underlining, or quotation marks, or mislabeling the abstract with the title of the research paper.