

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Grammar

Grammar is essential tools for succes in school, work, and life. We are judged, sometimes quite severely, by the word we use and by the way we use them in our speaking and writing. Our spoken and written words can betray us. They refect our background, education, and ability to communicate.

Words allow us construct meaning from our concept or ideas. Words and form make us to communicate to others. Our use of these words and form impact what others are able to understand. Pennington (2004:1) states that grammar is the independent among meaning, form, and use.

Grammar is the basic element that should be learn first before practiced four skills in learning English (listening, reading, wring, and speaking). According to Harmer (2001:12) explains grammar is the ways words change their forms and can be combined into sentences in that language. Thornbury (1994:4) state that grammar is process for a speaker's or writer's meaning clear when contextual is lacking. The types of grammatical error it focuses on noun phrase and verb phrase. Noun phrase covers the use of infinitive and gerund, number, pronoun, preposition. While, verb phrase includes the use of *to be*, progressive tense, verb-and-verb construction, auxiliary system, word order, and passive sentence.

2.2 Difference Between Errors and Mistakes

Corder (1984) states that three are two different errors in learning a second language. Firstly, errors happen unsystematically and secondly errors happen systematically in the second language learners. The two different errors have to be related to Noam Chomsky's concept, performance and competence. Chomsky (in Dulay et.al, 1982: 49) states that there are errors caused by the factor of competence. Based on the statement above, Corder indicated the differences between errors of

performances and 9 errors of competence. Errors of performance are deviations. They can be corrected by the learner themselves if they are reminded. Errors of competence are the systematic and consistence, and become the special characteristic from the learners' language system at certain level or stage. Corder, instead, says the use of transitional competence, which refers to the transferring of the foreign language that they learn. It can be concluded that errors of performance refer to mistakes, and errors of competence are errors.

Brown (2007) says that the students often make mistakes because of misleading explanation from the teacher, faulty presentation of the structure words. Brown (1982: 217) points out that a mistake is a performance of error, including a random ungrammaticalities, hesitations, slips and many other lapses. In short, a mistake is not really result of deficiency in the learners' competence. While error is a deviation from an adult grammar of a native speaker that can be recognized.

A learner studying a language as a foreign language or a second language tends to create errors and mistakes. But the problem is that there are many people who still consider errors and mistakes in the same thing. It is very important to recognize the distinction among those things before one is willing to conduct a research, because those things influence the evidences and the data needed by a researcher. In this study the writer does not intend to differentiate between error and mistake. Thus, she only uses the deviation of errors which is any deviations from selected norm of a language performance, which is English rule system, regardless of their characteristic or sources.

2.3 Types of Grammatical Mistakes

2.3.1 Article Use

According to Mehdi (2011), Articles are noun markers that give a signal that a noun will follow. There are two kinds of article namely definite and indefinite article. The indefinite articles are *a* and *an*. Article *a* is used before a word that begins with a consonant sound such as **a** car, **a** table, **a** pencil, etc.. while article *an* is used before a word beginning with a vowel sound such as **an** egg, **an** office, **an** hour, etc.. the definite article is *the*. This article may immediately precede a noun:

a smile, the reason. Or it may be separated from the noun by modifiers: a slight smile, the very big reason. To know which article is used, the understanding of countable nouns and uncountable noun must be mastered.

Countable nouns name people, places, things, or ideas that can be counted and made into plurals, such as *a teacher, two restrooms, three jokes, etc.*. Uncountable nouns refer to things or ideas that cannot be counted such as *flour, history, and truth etc.*.

Example:

- a. There is **a** book on the table.
- b. He bought **an** egg yesterday.

In general, use *the* with all specific nouns that is specific singular, plural, uncountable nouns. Certain conditions make a noun specific and therefore require the article *the*. When it has already been mentioned once then *the* should be put.

Example: He always comes on time to **the** office.

2.3.2 Possessive Use

According to Mehdi (2011), Possessive pronouns show ownership or possession. Here is a list of possessive pronoun that should be followed by noun:

Table 2.1

List of Possesive Pronoun

My	her	your
Your	its	their
His	our	

The following are some samples taken from students' writing that contain errors in using possessive pronoun.

Example:

- a. Mr. Jack asked **his** men to work harder.
- b. The students should use **their** mind doing the right thing.

Possessive pronoun also uses apostrophe (‘) to show ownership or possession.

Example: Usually small school built closer to the **student’s home**.

2.3.3 Tense Use

A.S Hornby (1995:78) stated that tense is a verb form or series of verb forms used to express a time relation. The most common tenses are the simple present, past and future. In addition, there are nine other tenses that enable us to express more specific ideas about time than we could with the simple tenses alone. The following are the examples of each tenses:

Table 2.2 Examples of Tenses

Tenses	Examples
Present	I work.
Past	Ellen worked on her car.
Future	You will work on a new project next week.
Present Perfect	He has worked for 3 years.
Past Perfect	The nurse had worked two straight shifts.
Future Perfect	I will have worked here by the end this year.
Present Progressive	You are working too hard now .
Past Progressive	He was watering the flower when i came.
Future Progressive	We will be visiting you at 5.00 tomorrow.
Present Perfect Progressive	Sarah has been working late this week.
Past Perfect Progressive	Until recently, i had been working nights.

Could	I could not find a seat.
May	The game may be postponed.
Might	Cindy might resent your advice
Shall	I shall see you tomorrow.
Should	He should get his car serviced.
Will	I will visit you sometime.

2.3.5 Gerund

According to Grabe, (1996), gerund is the *-ing* form of a verb that is used as a noun. The gerund can function as a subject, an object, or complement in a sentence. The gerund is also preceded by preposition.

The kind of Gerund

- a. Gerund as subject
Example: **Swimming** is my hobby.
- b. Gerund as object
Example: I like **fishing**.
- c. Gerund after preposition
d. Example: she came to the party **by riding** a motor.
- e. Gerund after possessive *my, your, his, ...*
- f. Example: we should refresh **our thinking**.

2.3.6 Number (plural and singular)

According to Ellis (1997), singular and plural regard nouns whether countable or uncountable nouns, so there should be an agreement between noun and verbs regarding singular and plural. In countable noun can have either *plural* or

singular, while uncountable nouns are always *singular*. Some nouns become plural after being preceded by *many, several, some, few, etc.* while much and little are used in uncountable nouns.

Examples:

Countable Noun

- We have **some books** to sell.
- There are **few students** in the classroom.

Uncountable Noun

- I bought **some sugar** at the shop near my house.
- **Water** is very important in human life.

2.3.7 Pronoun

According to Brown (1994), common types of pronoun can function as subject, object, possessive, and demonstrative pronoun. Subject pronouns are subject of verbs. Object pronouns are the objects of verbs or prepositions. The following table shows the difference between subject and object pronoun.

Subject pronoun	object pronoun
I	me
You	you
They	them
We	us
He	him
She	her
It	it

SUBJECT PRONOUN

1. Subject pronoun function as subject

- **They** are wearing a good shirt
- **She** walks to school everyday

2. Use subject pronoun in compound subject

- **My sister and I** visited my grandparents yesterday
- **She and he** decide to get married early

3. Use subject pronoun after be (tobe): is, am, are, was were, be, been)

- it was **I** who came or I was the one who came
- it is **she** or she is here

4. Use subject pronoun after *than* or *as*:

- I play the music better than he (play).
- She is happy as I (am).

OBJECT PRONOUN

She met **me** at mall last week.

I saw **her** in front of my house.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

1. Possessive as adjective

- I borrow **his** book to make a small note
- She takes **my** bag

2. Possessive pronouns as adverb

- this book is **mine**
- the card is **hers** (Not: the card is hers')

2.3.8 Preposition

According to McGroarty (1996), preposition in English is often idiomatic, a word that means peculiar to a certain language and there are many exceptions to general rules. Therefore, correct preposition use must be learned gradually through experience. The subjects of the sentence never appear within a prepositional phrase. A prepositional phrase is a simply a group of words that begin with a preposition. Following is a list of common preposition taken from Langen (415).

Table 2.3

List of Preposition

About	Concering	Onto
Above	Despite	On top of
According to	Down	Out
Across	During	Out of
After	Except	To
Againts	Except for	Toward
Along	Excepting	Under
Along with	For	Underneath
Among	From	Unlike
Apart from	In	Up
As	In back of	Upon
As for	In case of	Up to
At	In front of	With
Because of	In place of	Within

Before	Inside	Without
Behind	In spite of	Since
Below	Instead of	Through
Beneath	Into	Throughout
Beside	Like	Till
Between	Near	Regarding

2.3.9 Modal

According to McGroarty (1996), There are nine helping verbs (traditionally known as *modals*, or *modal auxiliaries*) that are always used in combination with other verbs. The following are the nine verbs and a sentence example of each:

Can	I can see the rainbow.
Could	I could not find a seat.
May	The game may be postponed.
Might	Cindy might resent your advice
Shall	I shall see you tomorrow.
Should	He should get his car serviced.
Will	I will visit you sometime.
Would	they would not understand.
Must	You must visit us again.

Modal should be followed by basic verb. It cannot be followed by *to*, *Ving*, *Vs/es*, and *Ved*. If a sentence has predicate noun, adjective, or adverb, it should be followed *be*.

2.3.10 Passive Voice

According to Carson (2001), There are some rules to be considered in passive voice. They can be seen as follows:

1. The pattern: *to be* + V3 (past participle).
2. The sentence should have object (transitive verb)
3. The verb used is in past participle preceded by *to be*.
4. The object usually is followed *by*.

The following table describes passive rules that cover all tenses with their characteristics and formula:

Table 2.4 formula of passive voice

TENSES	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Simple Present	Do/does V1	Is, am, are V3
Present Continous	Is, am, are V1 ing	Is, am, are being V3
Present Perfect	Has/Have V3	Has/have been V3
Simple Past	Did V1	Was, were V3
Past Continous	Was, were V1 ing	Was, were being V3
Past Perfect	Had V3	Had been V3
Future	Will/shall V1	Will/shall be V3
Future Perfect	Will/shall have V3	Will/shall have been V3

2.4 Brochures

2.4.1 Definition of Brochures

Yoety (1992) states that brochure is a sheet, printed with relatively good paper, lay-out attractively arranged with all the potential to be promoted. So, brochure is a sheet or small booklet with lay-out attractively that containing information about all the potential to be promoted.

2.4.2 The Purpose of Brochures

AArt Design (2013) mentions that the purposes of brochure are follow:

- a. To follow up after an initial sales contact.
- b. To give more-detailed information than a flyer.
- c. Brochures are used in direct mail campaigns as the follow-up to a postcard that was mailed out to generate interest.

Brochure as one of promotion media is created especially to be kept and referred to again and again. It is expected that only people who are interested in learning more about a product will pick up a brochure.

2.4.3 Principle of Design a Brochures

According to Pujiriyanto (2005,p.99) states that we must give attention for several things in designing brochure. First, determine the space that will be used for text, photoes or images. Second, distribution method will determine the format of brochures in relation to costs. Third, brochure always contain structured information. Fourth, determine the model of brochure, if the purpose of brochure is giving the structured information to the readers, so accordion fold model is very suitable. Last, type of paper is also important to describe the atmosphere and giving good quality results.

In addition, Hartsook (2010,p.2) states that the things that must be considered in making a brochure as follows:

- a. Do not use more than nine or ten lines per paragraph.
- b. Do not average more than two or three sentences per paragraph.
- c. Do not indent paragraphs that have a space between them.
- d. Do not start sentences with numbers.
- e. Do not put two spaces after periods if using a computer.
- f. Do not use underline or all capitals as a way to stress a point. Use bold or italics instead.
- g. Use italic and all capitals sparingly as they are hard for people to read.

2.4.4 The Language Style of Brochures

According to Ghina (2008), there are some rules of language style in brochures such as :

- a. Short and Informatif.
- b. Interesting title.
- c. Mention the benefits of the product.
- d. Put Call to Action.
- e. Put Yourself in Your Customer's Shoe

