CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The Concept of Errors and Errors Analysis

Second language acquisition is a process that is clearly first language in its trial and error nature. Second language acquisition can be defined as the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom. It might be to find out what learners actually do, as opposed to what they think they do, when they try to learn a second language. These samples provide of what the learners know about the language they are trying to learn (the target language). If samples are collected at different points in time it may also possible to find out how learners’ knowledge gradually develops.

Researchers and teachers of second languages soon realize that the mistakes and the errors of the learners in process of constructing a new system of language is needed to be analyzed carefully, for they possible held in them some of the keys to the understanding of the process if the second language acquisition. By learning the errors, it will make the foreign languages meet the goal and master the language more closely, and it will make the students try to discover the right form if the grammar, especially the right form of their errors.

2.1.1 Errors

In order to analyze learner is errors in a proper perspective, it is crucial to distinguish between mistakes and errors.
Corder (1979: 168) states “An error is lack of competence and mistake is performance deviant”.

Based on the statement above it can be concluded that a mistake refers to a performance error, either a random guess or a “slip”. It can be said a failure to utilize a known system correctly.

Next Ellis (1997: 17) states, “Errors reflect gaps in a learner’s knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance; they occur because, in a particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows”.

There is an example of an apparent ‘mistake’ in Jean’s speech. Early in the narrative he says:

The big of them contain a snake.

using the past tense of the verb ‘contain’ correctly. However, in the final sentence he says:

The basket contained a snake.

Making what seems to be a past tense error. But clearly Jean knows what the past tense of ‘contain’ is as he has already used it correctly once. His failure to say ‘contained’ in the last sentence, then, might be considered a mistake.

How can we distinguish errors and mistakes? One way might be to check the consistency of learners’ performance. If they consistently substitute ‘contain’ for ‘contained’ this would indicate a lack of knowledge is an error. However, if they sometimes say ‘contain’ and sometimes ‘contained’, this would suggest that they possess knowledge of the correct form and are just slipping up or a mistake.
According to Webster's new English dictionary (1980) “Error a failure in correctness or accuracy, mistake is a wrong judgment or wrong action”.

All people make mistakes, in both native and second language situations. Native speakers are normally capable of recognizing and correcting such lapses and mistakes. Which are not the results of a deficiency in competence but the result of some sort of breakdown or imperfection in the process of producing speech, while the non-native speakers are not.

For example, an English learner says Yoga cans sing, but on other occasions says ‘Yoga can sing’, we may indicate that the learner is committing a mistake, on the other hand, if the learners, speech reveals such utterances as ‘Yoga cans sing’, ‘Yoga mays swim’, etc. With very few instances of correct third-person singular usage of modal auxiliaries, we might then conclude that “cans”, “mays”, and other such forms are error which indicates that the learner has not distinguisher modals from other verbs.

2.1.2. Errors Analysis

Realizing that it is not easy to analyze the student’s errors without reading theories of error analysis here are some theories about errors analysis.

Richards (1985: 96) says, “Error analysis is the study and analysis of the 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 a language (b) find out how a person learns a language (c) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation if teaching materials, error analysis may be used as well as or instead of contrastive analysis”.
Beside that errors can be observed and analyzed based on Brown (1980: 166) says, “that it is fact that he learners do make errors and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of study of learner’s error, called error analysis”.

The applied-linguistic concept of error analysis was initially an application of concepts derived from linguistic theory and language acquisition research. A primary focus of error analysis was on the evidence learner error and learner performance provides to an understanding of the underlying processes of second language acquisition. As Corder (1979: 167) says that a learners errors are significant in (that) they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedure the learner is employing in the discovery of the language.

The methodology of error analysis that is cited by Corder and Richard could be applied to the analysis of the adult learners in learning second-language corder present a model based on a distinction between an idiosyncratic dialect of a social group. Corder attributes greater importance to the relationship mother tongue/learner’s dialect than the others.

Richard, while acknowledging his influence of the mother tongue on the learner’s language, documents a number of other common features of the learners dialect. These are referred to as intralingua and developmental errors reflects the general characteristics to the rule learning, such as overgeneralization, incomplete application of target language rules, failure to learn the conditions under which rules apply, and the development of false concepts.
There are stages in error analysis recognition, description, and explanation.

**Recognition** of the error is this crucially depending upon correct interpretation of the learners intentions. For example, if the learner does not know the rules to form plurals, which distinguishes the singular and plural forms of noun he might express his meaning correctly half at the time.

**Description** can only begin when recognition has taken place. It is clear that for that purposes, the error analysis is a grammar which aims to relate the semantic structure of the sentence to its surface structure by a set of explicit rules. It is the most appropriate model for the description of error, since in the process of correction enables to show that the learner has failed to realize his intended message.

**Explanation** of error can be regarded as a linguistic problem, which is a statement of the way in which he has deviated from the realization if rules of the target language in the derivation of his sentences, which is what rules he has broken, substituted or regarded.

There are probable mistake and error in studying second language, like Richard cites that the errors are made by the second and foreign language learners. Error analysis may be carried out in order to find out how well someone knows a language, how a person learns a language and how to get information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials.
2.2. English Auxiliaries

Discussing about English Auxiliaries. According to Hudson (1984: 15) says, "Auxiliary verbs are as their name suggests 'helping verb'. They do not make up a verb phrase on their own, but must usually be accompanied by a following main verb". In English, every clause has a finite verb which consists of a full verb (a non-auxiliary verb) and optionally one or more auxiliary verbs, each of which is a separate word. Examples of finite verbs include eat (no auxiliary verb), has eaten (one auxiliary verb), and has been eaten (two auxiliary verb).

There is a syntactic difference between an auxiliary verb and a full verb, that is, each has a different grammatical function within the sentence. In English especially, there are some verbs that can act either as auxiliary or as full verbs, such as "he is climbing tree" and "he is a policeman". In he is climbing tree, be is function as an auxiliary verb while in the second sentence he is a policeman, be is function as a full verb.

In English, the extra meaning an auxiliary verb imparts alters the basic form of the main verb to have one or more of the following functions:

- **Negation**

  Auxiliaries take not (or n't) to form the negative, e.g. can't, won't, shouldn't, etc. In certain tenses, in questions, when a contracted auxiliary verb can be used, the position of the negative particle n't moves from the main verb to the auxiliary: e.g. Does it not work? and Doesn't it work?.

- **Inversion**

  Auxiliaries invert to form questions:

  — They will go?
Will they go?

- **Emphasis**

  The Dummy auxiliary *do* is used for emphasis in positive statement:

  — *I do* like this beer!

- **Ellipsis**

  Auxiliaries can appear alone where a main verb has been omitted, but is understood:

  — *I will go, but she won't [go].*

- **Tag Question**

  Auxiliaries can be repeated at the end of a sentence, with negation added or removed to form a tag question. In the event that the sentence did not use an auxiliary verb, a dummy auxiliary (a form of *do*) is used instead:

  — *You will come, won't you?*
  
  — *You ate, didn't you?*
  
  — *You won't play, will you?*
  
  — *You didn't eat, did you?*

Next, Hudson divided English auxiliaries into two: primary auxiliaries and modals auxiliaries.

### 2.2.1. Primary Auxiliaries (do, have, be)

- **Do (Do, Does, Did)**

  The auxiliary *do* has the following forms:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Non-Negative</th>
<th>Uncontracted Negative</th>
<th>Contracted Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>3rd person (She, He, It)</td>
<td>Does</td>
<td>Does not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>Do</td>
<td>Do not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>all subjects</td>
<td>Did</td>
<td>Did not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

e.g. Anita does not wash the floor  
Anton doesn’t go to school  
Did they come to the party last night

The functions of *Do* auxiliary in English sentence are:

1. To make question (interrogative sentence)

   "Do" will be put in front of the subject and always occurred an infinitive form of verb. The formula will be:

   Do / does / did + Subject infinitive

   e.g. - Do you love her?

   - does the baby drink milk?

   - Did the bird eat the caterpillar?

2. To make negative statement

   When we want to make negative sentences of simple present and simple past tense, we will need *do/does/did*. The formula is:

   Subject + Do / Does / Did + not

   e.g.  (+) You give him a basket of apples

          (-) You do not give him apples

          (+) He plays the badminton

          (-) He does not play the badminton
(+) The took the letters

(-) They did not take the letters

3. To make abridgement (omission or substitution).

   In making sentences, one usually needs to repeat some word, especially verb, in order to convey some information. This form will not be effective. So in order to make it effective, it needs abridgements. If we want to make abridgement for omitting or substituting verb, we use *do/does* for the present and *did* for the past form.

   e.g. - Do you feel good? Yes, I do (feel good)

   - She writes faster than her sister does (writes)

   *Do* auxiliary is often used to emphasize the invention of the sentence. The emphasis can be found in some cases, they are:

   a. as a positive resolution after some doubt

      e.g. They are so sad that I do want to help them.

   b. as positive contrasting with a negative (often introduced by but).

      e.g. She thinks I didn't get it but I did

   c. with concessive type of contrast

      e.g. Although she speaks no words, I do understand what she feel.

   d. with negative expression

      e.g. Rani never did come to my house after Christmas last year.

   e. with emphatic adverbs (definitely, positively, certainly).

      e.g. Does she remember? She certainly does remember

   f. to express entreaty

      e.g. Please, do sit down!
Do borrow me dictionary! I need it

**Have (Have, Has, Had)**

Like *do, have* auxiliary has the following forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Uncontracted Non-negative</th>
<th>Contracted Non-negative</th>
<th>Uncontracted Negative</th>
<th>Contracted Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Base</td>
<td><em>Have</em></td>
<td><em>'ve</em></td>
<td><em>Have not, 've not</em></td>
<td><em>Haven't</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-s form</td>
<td><em>Has</em></td>
<td><em>'s</em></td>
<td><em>has not, 's not</em></td>
<td><em>Hasn't</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td><em>Had</em></td>
<td><em>'d</em></td>
<td><em>Had not, 'd not</em></td>
<td><em>Hadhn't</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing form</td>
<td><em>Having</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Not having</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ed participle</td>
<td><em>Had</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Forms of *have* are used to create tenses known as the present perfect and past perfect. The perfect tenses indicate that something has happened in the past; the present perfect indicates that something happened and might be continuing to happen, the past perfect indicates that something happened prior to something else happening. Beside that, auxiliary *have* is also used in Future Perfect.

For examples:

1. Present perfect

   *She has bought the doll*
2. Past Perfect

She had bought the doll when I came

3. Future Perfect

She will have bought doll when you arrived

The formula like characteristics of English verb is apparent form the fact that each perfect tense uses a special auxiliary:

1. Present Perfect Tense: *has* (the 3rd person singular) and *have* (the others)

   Has / Have + past Participle

2. Past Perfect: *had* (for all the subjects)

   Had + Past Participle

3. Future Perfect: *will have*/*shall have*. *Shall* is used for first person / and *we*, *will* is used for all other persons.

   Will / shall + have + Past Participle

Like *do, have* is both can as a main verb and auxiliary. As a main verb (=possess) *have* is sometimes constructed as an auxiliary, especially British English (BrE). American English (AmE) prefers the do-construction:

   e.g. She hasn’t any apples     (esp.BrE)
        She doesn’t have any apples   (AmE and BrE)

- **Be**

   *Be* is constructed as an auxiliary even when it functions as a main verb. It normally has no do-construction. It has eight different forms:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Non-negative</th>
<th>Uncontracted Negative</th>
<th>Contracted Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>1(^{st}) person singular</th>
<th>Am, ’m</th>
<th>Am not, ’m not</th>
<th>(aren’t, ain’t)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3(^{rd}) person singular</td>
<td>Is, ‘s</td>
<td>Is not, ‘s not</td>
<td>Isn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1(^{st}), 2(^{nd}), and 3(^{rd}) person plural</td>
<td>Are, ‘re</td>
<td>Are not, ‘re not</td>
<td>Aren’t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past</th>
<th>1(^{st}), and 3(^{rd}) person plural</th>
<th>Was</th>
<th>Was not</th>
<th>Wasn’t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1(^{st}), 2(^{nd}), and 3(^{rd}) person plural</td>
<td>Were</td>
<td>Were not</td>
<td>Weren’t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-ing form</th>
<th>Being</th>
<th>Not Being</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ed participle</td>
<td>Been</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

e.g.  They are watching TV now
I’m not thirsty
He isn’t playing football
The bird wasn’t on the tree yesterday

Notes:

- *Aren’t* is widely used in questions in BrE, but there is not generally acceptable contracted form for am not in declarative sentences. *Ain’t* is
substandard BrE and is so considered by many in AmE. As well as serving as a contracted am not, it is used also for isn’t, aren’t, hasn’t and haven’t.

- The main verb be may have the Jo-construction in persuasive imperative sentences an regularly has it with negative imperatives.

  e.g.  

  Don’t be quite!

- In the construction be + to-infinitive only the finite (present and past form of be) can be used.

The functions of be are:

1. To form progressive tense

   Progressive tense or continuous tense is makes explicit that certain action is in progress. In other word, the construction emphasize that the action expressed by the verb phrase is going over a span of time. Progressive tense is signaled by some form of auxiliary verbs be plus a present participle (an-ing verb form) as part of the verb phrase. The form of be with depend on the tense of the sentences, as we have seen in the following:

   a. present progressive (IS/AM/ARE + V.Ing)

      e.g. - Intan is eating a basket of chikus
           
           - Tila and winda are studying English

   b. past progressive (WAS/WERE + V.Ing)

      e.g. - Intan was eating a basket of chikus
           
           - Tila and winda were studying English

   c. future progressive (WILL/SHALL + BE + V.ing)

      e.g. - Intan was eating a basket of chikus
           
           - Tila and winda will be studying english
d. perfect progressive (HAVE/HAS + BEEN + V.Ing)
   
ed. - Intan has been eating a basket of chikus
   
ed. - Tila and winda has been studying english

2. To form passive voice

   The most important auxiliary needed to form passive voice is *Be*. In
   this voice, *be* is always followed by past participle form of verb. Form of all
   passive verbs:
   
   #### Be + Past Participle

   For regular verbs, the past participle ends in -ed (e.g. corrected, wanted). Some participles are irregular (e.g. taught, seen). The form of *be* will vary as follows:

   a. Present tense (Is/Am/Are + Past Participle)
      
ed. Active (A) : Lia gives intan a new magazine
      
ed. Passive (P) : intan is given a new magazine by lia

   b. Present continuous tense (Is/Am/Are I Being + Past Participle)
      
ed. Active (A) : Lia is giving intan a new magazine
      
ed. Passive (P) : intan is being given a new magazine by lia

   c. Present perfect tense (Have/ has + Been + Past Participle)
      
ed. Active (A) : Lia has given intan a new magazine
      
ed. Passive (P) : intan has been given a new magazine by lia

   d. Past tense (Was/ Were + Past Participle)
      
ed. Active (A) : Lia given Intan a new magazine
      
ed. Passive (P) : intan was given a new magazine by lia

   e. Past continuous tense (Was/Were + Being + Past Participle)
e.g. Active (A) : Lia was giving intan a new magazine by lia

f. Past perfect tense (Had + Been + Past Participle)
   e.g. Active (A) : lia had given intan a new magazine
       Passive (P) : Intan had been given a new magazine by lia

g. Future tense (Will/Shall + Be + Past Participle)
   e.g. Active (A) : Lia will give intan a new magazine
       Passive (P) : intan will be given a new magazine by lia

h. Future perfect tense (Will/Shall + Have + Been + Past Participle)
   e.g. Active (A) : Lia will have given intan a new magazine
       Passive (P) : Intan will have been given a new magazine by lia

i. Past future tense (would + be + past Participle)
   e.g. Active (A) : Lia would give intan a new magazine
       Passive (P) : Intan would be given a new magazine

j. Past future perfect tense (Would + have + been + Past participle)
   e.g. Active (A) : Lia would have given intan a new magazine
       Passive (P) : Intan would have ben given a new magazine by Lia

2.2.2. Modals Auxiliaries

Modal auxiliaries are helping verbs that express a wide range of meanings (ability, possibility, permission, necessity). Most of modal have more than one meaning. The modal auxiliaries do not have -s forms, -ing forms, or-ed participles. Modal auxiliaries have the following forms:
### Non-Negative vs. Contracted Negative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-Negative</th>
<th>Uncontracted Negative</th>
<th>Contracted Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>Cannot, can not</td>
<td>Can’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could</td>
<td>Could not</td>
<td>Couldn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>May not</td>
<td>(Mayn’t)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Might</td>
<td>Might not</td>
<td>Mightn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>Shall not</td>
<td>Shan’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should</td>
<td>Should not</td>
<td>Shouldn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will, ‘ll</td>
<td>Will not, ‘ll not</td>
<td>Won’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would, ‘d</td>
<td>Would not, ‘d not</td>
<td>Wouldn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Must</td>
<td>Must not</td>
<td>Mustn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought to</td>
<td>Ought not to</td>
<td>Oughtn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used to</td>
<td>Used not to</td>
<td>Didn’t use(d) to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need</td>
<td>Need not</td>
<td>Needn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dare</td>
<td>Dare not</td>
<td>Daren’t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:**

a. Sometimes there is a choice between two contracted forms, e.g. won’t and ’ll not.

b. *Mayn’t* is restricted to British English, where it is rare.

c. *Shan’t* is rare in American English.

**Can / Could**

*Can* and *could* are used to express ability and sometimes permission (in informal speech). *Can* expresses the present ability and *could* expresses the past.
ability. In expressing the ability, "can and could" can be replaced by the phrase
be able to.

e.g. Clarissa can swim (present ability) → Clarissa is able to swim
Dea could sleep well (past ability) → Dea was able to sleep well
Liana can go now (giving permission)

Can I borrow your book? (asking permission)

As additional explanation about the using of can and could can be seen as
follow:

• The modal auxiliary can is used
  — To express ability (in the sense of being able to do something or knowing
    how to do something)
    e.g. Ardi can speak Spanish but Ardi can't write it very well
  — To express permission (in the sense of being allowed or permitted to do
    something):
    e.g. Can I talk to my friends in the library? (Can is less formal than may.
    Also, some writers will object to the use of can in this context).
  — To express theoretical possibility:
    e.g. American automobile makers can make better cars if they think
      there's a profit in it.

• The modal auxiliary could is used
  — to express an ability in the past:
    e.g. I could always beat you at tennis when we were kids.
  — to express past or future permission:
    e.g. Could I bury my cat in your back yard?
— to express present possibility:

e.g. We could always spend the afternoon just sitting around talking

— to express possibility or ability in contingent circumstances:

e.g. If he studied harder, he could pass this course

May/Might

May and might are used to express possibility and permission. In expressing possibility, they can be replaced by the words "possible, probable, and perhaps". In expressing permission, they can be replaced by the phrase "be allowed to" and "be omitted to".

e.g. He might be sick (possibility) → perhaps he was sick

In that day, anyone might enter this building (permission)

You may leave now (permission) → you are allowed to leave now

They left Medan one hour ago, they may be at Berastagi right now.

In addition to denoting possibility and permission, the auxiliary may or might may express:

1. A wish
   
e.g. - May God bless all of us
   
   - May all your day be nice and beautiful.

2. Reproach
   
e.g. - You might tried to be the chairman
   
   - You might have tried to avoid using drug
3. Purpose

   e.g. - Anta is studying hard, so that he *may* finish her study this year.
        - Ardy really cares to me, so that he *may* win my love.

4. Concession

   e.g. Try as he *might*, he could not win the competition.

**Will/Would**

*Will / would are* used to express the action in the future. In certain context, *will* and *would are* virtually interchangeable, but there are differences.

- The Functions of "Will"

1. To express willingness

   - *I’ll wash* the dishes if you dry
   - *We’re going to* go to the movies. Will you join us?

2. To express intention (especially in the first person)

   - *I’ll* do my exercise later on

3. To express prediction

   - specific: The meeting *will be* over soon.
   - Timeless: Humidity *will* ruin my hairdo
   - Habitual: The river *will* overflow its banks every spring.

- The Functions of "Would".

1. To express willingness

   - *would you turn on the light*

2. To form subjunctive mood

   - If she took the medicine, she *would* feel better (present unreal)
- If you had asked for it, you would have received it (past unreal)

3. To express past custom
   - Rini would spend her holiday in Hawaii

4. Combined with rather to mean prefer
   - He would rather go to the club.

5. In if clause, with the sense of he willing to
   - If you would be so kind, open that gate for me.

6. To mean desire or volition
   - She would not have anyone think bad of her.

7. To mean probability
   - That is what everyone would do in this situation.

**Shall/Should**

"Shall" is used to indicate that an action will occur in the future. "Shall" is regularly used only in two situations in present day spoken English.

a. When another person is being asked to participate, in making a decision.

   e.g. Shall we watch movie tonight?

b. When regulation is being stated in formal language.

   e.g. Each member shall pay his dues on the first Monday of each month.

In writing, especially in writing with formal tone, "shall" is used with first subject (I and We). Do not make mistake of carelessly substituting "shall" for "will". In a verb phrase, the verb form following will is invariably an infinitive.
e.g. - I shall come (rather formal)
- I will come (formal)

"Should", in modal auxiliary, is not really the past form of "shall" which occur in tense auxiliary. "Should" here is both the present and past form. "Should" usually occur in statements about one's duty or one's advantage which one is free to accept or reject. The exact functions are as the following:

1. To express obligation

    Should deals with what one is expected to do. It shows a less obligation than must.

    e.g.  Anita should help Rini

2. To express advisability

    It deals with what is wise for one to do.

    e.g. Ardy should tell His feeling to me.

3. To express expectation

    Should suggest a reasonable degree of probability but only when the idea of expected is possible.

    e.g.  Present : They should be coming now

           Past : They should have come by now

4. To form subjunctive Mode

    In traditional grammar, "should" is classified as the conditional tense and the past "should" have plus a lexical verb is considered the conditional perfect tense. This conditional form is required for the verb in the main clause of a sentence with an if unreal condition.

    e.g. - If she were a good girl, she should come when you were sick (past unreal)
- If she had loved you, he should have told you the truth.

**Ought to**

*Ought* regularly has the to-infinitive. "*Ought to*" is used to express the necessity. e.g.  
He *ought to* study harder  
You *ought to* listen to your teacher.

**Must**

"*Must*" can be used in some cases, such as:

1. To express necessity or compulsion.
   e.g.  
   - You *must* study hard  (necessity)

2. To express purpose or certain will.
   e.g.  
   - I *must* fixed it up before I go to the campus.
   - I *must* marry her, in all risk.

3. To express duty or obligation.
   e.g.  
   - Everyone *must* pay taxes to the government.
   - All students *must* do their homework.

4. To show a strong possibility.
   e.g.  
   - Rini looks so sad today. She *must have* broken heart.
   - Anta was late. He *must have* got a traffic jam.

In this function, "*must*" can be used in the past form:

**Must + Have + Past Participle**
"Must" can be replaced by "have to". "Must" show stronger obligation than "have to". In negative form, must not and do not have to have a different meaning, i.e.:

a. **Must not**

"must not" denotes that it is strongly recommended not to take a certain course of action.

   e.g. You **must not** rob the bank (you are strongly recommended not to rob the bank)

b. **Do not have to**

"Do not have to" denote that it is not necessary to take a certain course of action.

   e.g. You **don't have to** get there at six. (it is not necessary for you to get there at six)

**Used to**

“Used” always takes the to-infinitive and occurs only in the past tense. This auxiliary is used to express an action that took place in the past, perhaps customarily, but now that action no longer customarily takes place.

   e.g. My father **used to play** badminton very well.

   He **used to** work in that office.

"Used to" as an auxiliary for the past custom must be distinguished from "be used to". In this phrase, used is an adjective synonymous with accustomed and to is a preposition.

   e.g. Tila **is used to (accustomed to)** seeing me every Sunday.
Be to / Be Supposed to

Auxiliary "be to" can be used in some cases, such as:

1. To show the meaning of be required to or be expected to
   e.g. People are to give their support to Indonesian team

2. To form the meaning of hope to
   e.g. If I am to say love to you, you should be mine

3. To form the meaning of be destined to (a future outcome)
   e.g. He is to become the president of this country.

Auxiliary "be supposed to" can be used:

1. To show the meaning of it is believed that.
   e.g. I am not supposed to love you anymore

2. To show the meaning of be required to
   e.g. We were supposed to come to her house yesterday

3. To show the meaning of planned or schedule.
   e.g. The train is supposed to leave late night.

Where there is a choice with be to (for a requirement, or a schedule event), be supposed to express less definiteness.

Dare and Need

"Dare" and "need" can be constructed as modal auxiliaries (with bare infinitive and without the inflected forms dares/needs, dared/needed) or as main verbs (with to-infinitive, -s inflection and past forms). The modal auxiliary construction is mainly restricted to negative and interrogative sentences whereas the main verb construction can always be used and is in fact the more common.
### Modal Auxiliary Construction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Modal Auxiliary Construction</th>
<th>Main Verb Construction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive</strong></td>
<td>He need to go now</td>
<td>He need to go now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative</strong></td>
<td>He needn’t go now</td>
<td>He doesn’t need to go now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interrogative</strong></td>
<td>Need he go now?</td>
<td>Does he need to go now?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative-interrogative</strong></td>
<td>Needn’t he go now</td>
<td>Doesn’t he need to go now?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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### 2.3. The Previous Study

As the additional guidance and references for me in writing this thesis, it consults some thesis related to the auxiliary verbs.

Puspita, (2004) describes and analyzes the errors made by the tenth grade students of the SMU Al-Azhar Medan in using Auxiliary verbs. From the 1,496 total errors, there are 480 (32.09%) errors of be, 383 (26.60%) errors of have, 380 (25.40%) errors of do, and 253 (16.91%) errors of modal. From the result of analysis, it can be concluded that based on the total of the errors: the highest percentage of error produced is the percentage of error using be auxiliaries (32.09%), and the lowest percentage of error is the using modal auxiliaries (16.91%).

Suderia, (2007) analyzes the errors of analysis of auxiliary verbs made by second year students of SMU 13 Medan. The result of her research is the most kind of error that made by the students of SMUN 13 Medan is the error of 'omission' with nominal 41.40%. It means that most of the students omit or do not use the auxiliary verbs in their sentences while the sentences need the auxiliary verbs.
Dealing with the information after reading the theses, the objectives of the analysis are different with this thesis. In this thesis, the objectives are to find out and classify errors made by the respondents and then to make the percentage of them. But there is much information has got to complete the writing of this thesis.