CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Theoretical Concepts

In learning a second language the student as the learner produces many forms which are not those which would be produced by a native of the standard form of the target language. The realization that the second language learner’s errors are potentially important for the understanding of the process of second language acquisition is a current focus on modern teaching.

The study of error is part of investigation of the process of language learning. Relating to this study, the writer puts some theories as her theoretical concepts which contain about definition of error and Error Analysis and the relationship between Second Language and Error Analysis.

2.1.1 Error and Error Analysis

There is a term ‘learning by mistake’. We often hear that people make a lot of mistakes in their past time and eventually be successful in the future. It may be occurred in learning a language or a target language. The definition of error can be seen through the classification of errors. Next, there is explanation of the classification of errors. The classification is very important to explain the errors in error analysis. The classification of errors based on the classification of errors proposed by Richards (1974), Ellis (1997), and Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982).

Jack Richards (1974) classifies errors into two kinds, they are:

a. Interlanguage Errors

Richards (1974:173) says that interlanguage errors are errors caused by the interference of the learner’s mother tongue. Through the meaning of interlanguage errors, can be seen and becomes clear that this kind of errors needs a contrastive analysis. The interference that is mentioned above means the interference of native language into foreign learning and it indicates the learning process.

b. Intralingual and Developmental Errors

Richards (1974: 174) says that intralingual and developmental errors emphasize the reflection of the learners’ competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of general characteristics of language acquisition. And the details, intralingual errors are those that reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply and developmental errors illustrate the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or textbook. For that the intralingual and developmental errors classify the errors become:

1. Over-generalization
Jakobvits (in Richards. 1974:174) defines generalization as ‘the use of previously available strategies in new situation. . . . In second language learning . . . some of these strategies will prove helpful in organizing the facts about the second language, but others, perhaps due to superficial similarities, will be misleading and inapplicable’. Over-generalization covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language.

Richards (1974:175) says that over-generalization is associated with redundancy reduction. It may be occurred, for instance, with items which are contrasted in the grammar of the language but which do not carry significant and obvious contrast for the learner. Generally, overgeneralization is the creation of one deviant structure in place of two regular structures for example:

- He can sings.

This sentence should be: He can sing. There is an over form of a structure verb sing becomes sings.

2. Ignorance of rule restrictions

Ignorance of rule restrictions is failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is, the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply, for example: The man who I saw him violates the limitation on subjects in structures with who. I made him to do it ignores restrictions on the distribution of make.
3. Incomplete application rules

Under this category of error, we may note the occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances. This category emphasizes the systematic difficulty in the use of questions to be observed. It means that the cases are about: a statement from may be used as a question, one of the transformations in a series may be omitted, or a question word may simply be added to the statement form. Here are some examples:

Teacher’s Question                                                                 Student’s Response

Do you read much?                                                                 Yes, I read much.
What does she tell him?                                                             She tell him to hurry.
Will they soon be ready?                                                            Yes, they soonbe ready.
What does he ask his mother?                                                        He ask his mother for the address.

4. False concept hypothesized

In addition to the wide range of intralingual errors which have to do with faulty rule learning at various levels, there is a class developmental error which derives from faulty comprehension of distinction in the target language. These are sometimes due to poor gradation of teaching items.

B. Ellis (1997)
Ellis (1985:297) says that error analysis is a procedure used by both researchers and teachers. It involves collecting samples of learner language, identifying the errors in sample, describing these errors, classifying them according to their hypothesized causes, and evaluating their seriousness. In relation to kinds of errors, Ellis (1997:15) classifies four kinds of errors through explaining three steps of analyzing the errors, they are:

1. Identifying Errors

   In this step, we have to compare the error sentences (the writer mentions it as ‘original sentence’) with what seem to be the normal or ‘correct’ sentences in the target language which correspond with them (the writer mentions it as ‘reconstruction’). But it is, in fact, easier said than done. Sometimes, it is difficult to make the reconstruction when we collide with the learner means to say.

2. Describing Errors

   This next step is the step where the errors are described and classified into kinds. This step can be done by several ways. According to Rod Ellis, there are two ways to classify errors, they are:

   a. The first way is classifying the errors through grammatical categories. It means classifying the errors through their word classes and tenses. As an example:

   Original sentence : The girl sings with beautiful.
   Reconstruction : The girl sings beautifully.

   b. The second way of classifying the errors is try to identify general ways in which the learners’ utterances differ from the reconstructed
target-language utterances. It means the errors are classified into several types:

1. Omission

   Omission is the error of leaving out an item that is required for an utterance to be considered grammatical, for example: There is picture on the wall. This sentence leaves out an article *a* that must be added before the word *picture*.

2. Misinformation

   Misinformation is the error of using one grammatical form in place of another grammatical form, example: I *see* her yesterday. This sentence contains misinformation in using irregular verb which marked by the using the wrong form *see* to replace *saw*.

3. Misordering

   Misordering is the error of putting the words in utterance in the wrong order. For example: She will come *evening tomorrow*. This sentence has the wrong order of adverb of time *evening tomorrow*. It must be changed becomes: She will come *tomorrow evening*.

4. Overgeneralization

   Overgeneralization is the error of using over grammatical form in an utterance. For example: The dog *eated* the chicken. This sentence uses –*ed* to signal past tense but it is an over grammatical
form because the word *eat* is an irregular verb so its past form should be *ate* not *eated*.

3. Explaining Errors

This is the last step of error analysis. In this step, a researcher tried to explain how and why a sentence called to be erroneous.


Dulay, Burt, and Krashen in James (1982:138) said that errors are the flawed side of learner speech or writing. People cannot learn language without first systematically committing errors.

There are four descriptive taxonomies to analyze errors, namely linguistic category taxonomy, surface strategy taxonomy, comparative taxonomy, and communicative effect taxonomy.

1. **Linguistic Category Taxonomy**

Linguistic category taxonomies classify errors according to either or both the language component and the particular linguistic constituent the error effects. Language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style). Constituents include the elements that comprise each language component.
2. Surface Strategy Taxonomy

Surface strategy taxonomy highlights the way surface structures are altered. The surface strategy elements of a language are altered in specific and systematic ways. Among the common errors are:

**a. Omission Errors**

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance. Language learners omit grammatical morphemes much more frequently than content words.

*e.g English use many countries. It must be English is used by many countries.*

**b. Addition Errors**

Addition errors are characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. Three types of addition errors are:

1) Double markings: She didn’t went back.
2) Regularization: eated for ate, childs for children
3) Simple additions: The fishes doesn’t live in the water.

**c. Misformation Errors**

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morphemes or structure. The types of errors are:

1) Regularization errors: The dog eated the chicken.
2) Archi-forms: I see her yesterday. Her dance with my brother.
3) Alternating forms: I seen her yesterday.

**d. Misordering Errors**

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance.
3. Comparative Taxonomy

Comparative taxonomies classify errors based on comparison between the structure of language learner errors and certain other types of construction. The errors are classified into developmental errors, interlingual errors, ambiguous errors, and unique errors.

4. Communicative Effect Taxonomy

Communicative effect taxonomy deals with errors from the perspective of their effect on the listener or reader. This taxonomy classifies errors into global errors and local errors.

2.2 ENGLISH TENSES

In this, the writer will talk about the understanding of the tenses that the English language has. According to the Macmillan Dictionary (1979:1028) that tense means the form of a verb that shows the time of its action or state of being or set of such forms indicating a particular time. It does not matter whatever the tense means. If someone wants to talk about tense he or she may not escape from grammar because tense is part of structure. Grammar may be roughly defined as the way a language manipulates and combines words in order to form longer units of meaning. For example, in English the present form of the verb be in the third person has two distinct forms, one “is” being used with a singular subject, and the other “are” with a plural; and if the plural “are” is combined with a singular
subject, the result usually unacceptable or ungrammatical. This, a sentence like “this is a pencil” is grammatical, whereas “this a pencil” is not. There is a set of rules which governs how units of meaning may be constructed in any language. Or we may say that a learner who knows grammar is one who has mastered and can apply these rules to express himself or herself in what would be considered acceptable language form.

There will be no doubt that a knowledge whether it is implicit or explicit of grammatical rules is essential for the mastery of a language. Someone will not be able to use words unless he or she knows how the words should be put together. But there has been some discussion in present years of the question, do learners of the language have to have grammar exercises? Isn’t it better for the learners to absorb the rules intuitively through communicative activities than to be taught through special exercises explicitly aimed at teaching grammar?

The fact that a learning process is aiming at a certain target behaviour does not necessarily mean that the process itself should be composed entirely of imitations of that behaviour. In other words, ability to communicate effectively is probably not attained most quickly or efficient practice in the classroom not at least, within the frame work of a formal course of study.

In natural learning such as the learning of a first language by a child the amount of time and motivation devoted to learning is so great that there is no necessity for conscious planning of the learning process, sooner or later the material is absorbed. However, in a formal course of study, there is every much less time available, and often less motivation, which means that learning time has to be organized for optimum efficiency. This means preparing a programme of
study, that is called a syllabus, so that bits of the total corpus of knowledge are presented one after the other for gradual, systematic acquisition, rather than all at once. And it also means preparing an organized and balanced plan of classroom teaching and learning procedures through which the learners will be enable to spend some of their time concentrating on mastering one or more of the components of the target language on their way to acquiring it as a whole. These components may be things like spelling or pronunciation or vocabulary or grammar.

Grammar, then, may furnish the basis for a set of classroom activities during which it become temporarily the main learning objective. But the key word here is temporarily. The learning of grammar should be seen in the long term as one of the means acquiring a through mastery of the language as a whole, not as an end in itself. This, although at an early stage we may ask our students to learn a certain structure through exercises that concentrate on virtually meaningless manipulation of language usage, we should quickly progress to activities that use it meaningfully. And even these activity will be changed eventually by general fluency practice, where the emphasis is on successful communication.

As it has been mentioned above that tense means time. English language has sixteen different tenses. These sixteen tenses are different to one another. The differences happened in the forms of the used verbs and the time of verbs action takes places. In other words we may say that an English verb will be very to its usages. The usages of those sixteen tenses and the form of the verb can be seen in these following sentences.
2.3 Present Tense

2.3.1 Simple Present Tense

In a particular time, the Simple Present Tense shows clearly that in English tense is not the same is time. The Simple Present Tense is not usually used to describes activities and states which are generally and universally true. The Simple Present Tense is the tense for the description, definition and statements of general truth. Rebecca H. E. (1972:71) says, The Simple Present Tense express perceptions, feelings, or states that occur or exist at the moment of speaking. The perception, feelings, or states may, of course extend somewhat beyond the moment of speaking, but the focal point is the immediate present.

When you refer to habitual actions, customs, and facts, use Simple Present verb forms.

HABITUAL ACTION: I work in the library.

CUSTOM: Most Americans eat turkey on Thanksgiving Day.

FACT: The earth revolves around the sun.

If you include a time reference, you can also use the Simple Present to indicate future time.

FUTURE ACTION: The concert starts in five minutes.

Except for be and have, verbs in the Simple Present follow base on Loretta Gray, this pattern:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronoun Type</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Person</strong></td>
<td>I verb</td>
<td>we verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second Person</strong></td>
<td>you verb</td>
<td>you verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Third Person</strong></td>
<td>he, she, it verb + s / es</td>
<td>they verb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:

- I always have fried rice for breakfast.
- He always goes to work by bus.
- He paints for a living.
- I work as a teacher.
- They go abroad every year.
- You like music.
- We fly to Bali every month.
- He speaks English.
- She flies to Singapore.

As you can see, the base form of the verb is used with the subject. Pronouns I, you, we, and they and with the nouns these pronouns can replace. For example, *the students* takes the same verb form as *they*. An ending, either –s or –es, is added to the verb when the subject pronouns is *he, she, it* or a noun these pronouns can replace. The –s ending is used most frequently. The –s ending is used after certain letters or letter combinations.
When a verb ends in a consonant and *y*, change the *y* to *i* and add *–es*.

Bury → buries

### 2.3.2 Present Continuous Tense

When you refer to a temporary situation or an activity in progress, use the present continuous.

**TEMPORARY SITUATION:** *I am working* in the library *this* term.

**ACTIVITY IN PROGRESS:** She *is studying* right now

If you include a time reference, you can also use the present continuous to indicate future time.

**FUTURE TIME:** My parent *are coming* tomorrow.

The present continuous consists of the auxiliary verb *be* and the *–ing* form of the main verb. The auxiliary verb is marked for tense.
When a one-syllable word or a word with a stressed final syllable ends in a single consonant sound, double the last letter before adding –ing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Person</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>I am verb + ing</td>
<td>we are verb + ing</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Second Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>you are verb + ing</td>
<td>you are verb + ing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Third Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it is verb + ing</td>
<td>you are verb + ing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:

- I am learning English right now.
- I am watching them at the front row.
- They are talking about something seriously.
- He is listening to some music on the radio.
- She is watching her favorite television program.
- You are studying in this classroom.
- The girls are dancing the “legong” dance on the stage now.
- Many tourist are enjoying the dance.
- Mrs. Smith, an American, is taking pictures of the dancers.
- Nani is studying French today.
- The workers are demanding for higher wages.
- Unemployment is increasing in the city now.

When a one-syllable word or a word with a stressed final syllable ends in a single consonant sound, double the last letter before adding –ing.
One-syllable word: run → running

Word ending in a stressed syllable: admit → admitting

BUT mow → mowing [This word ends in a vowel sound.]

When a word ends with a consonant and the letter \( e \), drop the \( e \) before adding \(-ing\): come → coming. The letter \( e \) is not dropped from words such as be, see, and free.

### 2.3.3 Present Perfect Tense

Use the Present Perfect when you want to refer to a situation that originated in the past, but continues into the present or to refer to a past experience that has current relevance. And the Present Perfect is used to refer to a situation set at some indefinite time within a period beginning in the past and leading up to the present.

**PAST SITUATION CONTINUING INTO THE PRESENT:** I have lived in Dallas for six years.

**PAST EXPERIENCE WITH CURRENT RELEVANCE:** We have traveled to Alaska three times.

For an experience to be relevant, it is usually related to a possible future experience. In the example “We have traveled to Alaska three times,” the speaker may be considering another trip. The present perfect is often used in job interviews when an employer asks a prospective employee about his or her experience: “Have you ever driven a large vehicle?” “Have you ever used a cash register?”
The present perfect consist of the auxiliary verbs *have* and the perfect/passive form of the main verb. The auxiliary verb is marked for tense. The perfect/passive verbs form is used to indicate either the perfect aspect or the passive voice. The perfect/passive form of regular verbs consist of the base form of the verb and the ending –*ed*.

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<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Person</strong></td>
<td>I have verb + ed</td>
<td>we have verb + ed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ ed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second Person</strong></td>
<td>you have verb + ed</td>
<td>you have verb + ed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ ed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Third Person</strong></td>
<td>he, she, it has verb + ed</td>
<td>they have verb + ed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:

- I have seen the film.
- I have phoned her.
- He has received the letter.
- His father passed away two years ago.
- They have come.
- He has spoken English.
- They have ever been there for several times.
- We received the massage two days ago.
- Have you ever taken an English course?
When a one-syllable word or a word with a stressed final syllable ends in a single consonant sound, double the last letter before adding –ed.

One –syllable word: pet → petted

Word ending in a stressed syllable: admit → admitted

BUT sew → sewed [This word ends in a vowel sound.]

The present/passive forms of irregular verbs can be found in the appendix.

The following are common irregular verb patterns:

• Pattern 1: The final d becomes t.
  
  build  built
  lend  lent
  spend  spent

• Pattern 2: A –d or –t suffix is added. The vowel changes.
  
  Feel /fil/    felt /fælt/
  Keep /kip/    kept /kɛpt/
  Sell /sɛl/    sold /səld/

• Pattern 3: An –n or –en suffix is edded.
  
  Eat     eaten
  Fall    fallen
  Know    known

Sometimes the vowel changes.

  Speak /spik/     spoken /spəkən/
  Wear /wɛər/     worn /wɔrn/

• Pattern 4: Just the vowel changes.
Hold /hold/    held /hɛld/
Meet /mit/    met /met/
Sit /sɪt/    sat /sæt/

• Pattern 5: The best form and perfect/passive form are the same.
    Put    put
    Hit    hit
    Cut    cut

a) The STATE PRESENT PERFECT is used with stative verbs senses to refer to a state that began in the past and extends to the present, and will perhaps continue in the future:

    They have been unhappy for a long time.
    We have lived in Amsterdam for five years.
    She has owned the house since her father died.
    I’ve always liked her.

b) The EVENT PRESENT PERFECT is used with dynamic verbs senses to refer to one or more events that have occurred at some time within a period leading up to the present. We distinguish two subtypes:

1. The event or events are reported as news; usually they have occurred shortly before the present time:

    The Republicans have won the election.
    I’ve just got a new job.
    There’s been a serious accident.
2. The event or events occurred at some more remote time in the past, but time implicit time period which frames the event or events leads up to the present:

She *has given* an interview only once in her life (but she may yet give another interview).

*Have you seen* the new production of *King Lear* at the National Theatre? (You still can do so.)

All our children *have had* measles (and they are not likely to have it again).

c) The HABITUAL PRESENT PERFECT is used with dynamic verb senses to refer to past events that repeatedly occur up to and including the present.

The magazine *has been* published every month (since 1975).

I’ve *been* reading only science fiction (till now).

Socrates *has influenced* many philosophers (till now).

Unlike the simple past, the present perfect does not normally cooccur with adverbials that indicate a specific point or period of time in the past.

Contrast:

I *saw* her a week ago. [simple past]

*I have seen* her a week ago. [present perfect]

NOTE:

[a] The use of the present perfect for recent events may imply that the result of the event still applies: *He’s broken his arm* (‘His arm is broken’);

*I’ve emptied the basket* (‘The basket is empty’);
The train has arrived on Platform 4 (‘The train is now on Platform 4’).

[b] The simple past is often used in place of the present perfect for recent events, especially in AmE: I just got a new job.

c] Some adverbials cooccur with the present perfect and not with the simple past.

They include the adverb since (I haven’t seen him since);

Prepositional phrases and clauses introduced by since (since Monday; since I met you);

The phrases till/up to now and so far.

2.3.4 Present Perfect Continuous Tense

When you want to refer to an action, or an event that originated in the past but is still on going or incomplete, use the present perfect continuous.

ON GOING STATE: I have been living on a ship for three months.

INCOMPLETE ACTION: We have been organizing this trip since May.

The present perfect continuous consist of two auxiliary verbs, have and be, and the -ing form of the main verb. The auxiliary verb have comes first, and it is marked for tense. Next comes the perfect / passive form of the verb be-been. The final element of the present perfect continuous is the –ing form of the main verb.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Person</td>
<td>I have been verb + ing</td>
<td>We have been verb + ing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Person</td>
<td>you have been verb + ing</td>
<td>you have been verb + ing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Third Person  he, she, it has been verb + ing  they have been verb + ing

Example:

• I have been waiting for you for almost one hour.
• It has been raining.
• We have been studying English in this class for an hour until now.
• He has been speaking English.
• The government has been trying hard to cope with the problems.
• We have been discussing the problem but haven’t come to any solution yet.
• They have been asking me about it, but I don’t know what to say.
• You have been advising him, but there is no change at all.
• Many customer have been complaining about that.

When we talk about something that happened in the past, but we don’t specify precisely when it happened (perhaps we don’t know, or it is not important to say when it happened), we use the present perfect:

• A French yachtsman has broken the record for sailing round the world single-handed.

• I have complained about the traffic before.

When we use the present perfect, it suggests some kind of connection between what happened in the past, and the present time. Often we are interested in the way that something that happened in the past affects the situation that exists now:

• I’ve washed my hands so that I can help you with the cooking.
• We can’t go ahead with the meeting, because very few people have shown any interest.

The connection with the present may also be that something happened recently, with a consequence for the present:

• I’ve found the letter you were looking for. Here it is.

• My ceiling has fallen in and the kitchen is flooded. Come quickly!

When we talk about how long an existing situation has lasted, even if we don’t give a precise length of time, we use the present perfect:

• They’ve grown such a lot since we last saw them.

• Prices have fallen sharply over the past six months.

• We’ve recently started to walk to work instead of taking the bus.

We often use the present perfect to say that an action or event has been repeated a number of times up to now:

• They’ve been to Chile three times.

• I’ve often wished I’d learned to read music.

When the present perfect aspects are combined in the same verb phrase (eg: has been working), the features of meaning associated with each aspect are also combined to refer to a TEMPORARY SITUATION LEADING UP TO THE PRESENT when the perfect auxiliary is present tense has or have.

The combination conveys the sense of a situation in progress with limited duration: I’ve been writing a letter to my nephew; it’s been snowing again. We may contrast these with the nonprogressive sense in I’ve writing a letter to my nephew; it’s snowed again.
If the perfect continuous sense is combined with accomplishment predications or process predications, then the verb phrase conveys the possibility of incompleteness:

*I’ve been cleaning* the windows. [The job may not be finished;]

Contrast: *I’ve cleaned the windows.*

The weather *has been getting* warmer. [It may get warmer still.]

The present perfect continuous may be used with dynamic verb senses to refer to a temporary habit up to the present. The events occur repeatedly up to the present and possibly into the future:

Martin *has been scoring* plenty of goals (this season).

*I’ve been working* on the night shift for several weeks.

The present perfect may combine with the past tense and with modals:

The fire *had been raging* for over a week. [1]

By Fridays, we *will have been living* here for ten years. [2]

In [1] the temporary event leads up to some point in the past. In [2] the temporary state is earlier than the time in the future indicated by *Friday*. The combination with the past tense or a modal need not presuppose an earlier time, and it can therefore be accompanied by an adverbial of time position:

*I had been talking* with him only last Monday.

*I must have been talking* with him last Monday.