2.1 Passive Voice

In learning a second language the student as the learner produces many forms which are not those which would be produced by a native speaker of the standard form of the target language. The generalization 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. Relation to this study, I puts some theories as her theoretical concepts which contain about the definition of error and error analysis, the differences of error and mistakes, and also the relationship between second language acquisition and error analysis.

Richards (1985:95) states that errors (in the speech or writing of second or foreign learner) the used of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc) in way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing of incomplete learning. It result from incomplete knowledge.

Richards (1974:174) states that error are classified into four kinds such as overgeneralization, ignorance of rules restriction, incomplete application rules and false concept hypothesized.

Ellis (1997:17) says, “Errors reflected gaps in a learner’s knowledge: they occur because the learner does not know what is correct.”
Strevens (1969) in Richards (1974:4) hypothesized that errors should not be viewed as problems to be overcome, but rather as normal and inevitable features indicating the strategies that learners use. He conjectured that if a regular pattern of errors could be observed in the performance of all learners in a given solution, and if a learner were seen to progress though this pattern, his errors could be taken as evidence not of failure but success and achievement in learning.

In the English language, the English passive voice is formed with an auxiliary verb (usually be or get) plus a participle (usually the past participle) of a transitive verb. For example, "Caesar was stabbed by Brutus" is passive voice. The subject denotes the individual (Caesar) affected by the action of the verb. The counterpart to this in active voice is, "Brutus stabbed Caesar," in which the subject denotes the doer, or agent, Brutus.

Thomson (1986:263) says that The passive voice of an active tense is formed by putting the verb to be into the same tense as the active verb and adding the past participle of the active verb. The subject of the active verb becomes the 'agent’ of the passive verb. The agent is very often not mentioned. When it is mentioned it is preceded by by and placed at the end of the clause: this tree was planted by my grandfather. While Ed swick (2005:49) says that Passive voice is a structure that allows you to make a statement without knowing who performed the action of sentence.

A sentence featuring the passive voice is sometimes called a passive sentence. And a verb phrase in passive voice is sometimes called a passive verb.
English differs from languages in which voice is indicated through a simple
inflection, since the English passive is periphrastic, composed of an auxiliary verb
plus the past participle of the transitive verb. For example: *The house was
destroyed.* Or the person who performed the action is placed in a passive position
in the sentence: *the house was destroyed by soldiers.*

Kinds of Passive Voice: (1) Present, past and perfect passive tenses, for
example: *the butter is kept here* (as present), *the window was broken* (as past
tense), *wolves have been seen in the streets* (as perfect tenses). (2) The passive of
continuous tenses required the present continuous forms of *to be,* for example: *the
bridge is being repaired.* (3) Auxiliary + infinitive combinations are made passive
by using a passive infinitive, for example: *these doors must/should be shut.* (4)
Other infinitive combinations, example: he wants photographs to be taken. (5)
Gerund combinations, example: he recommended that bullet-proof glass should be
used.

2.1.1. Uses of the Passive

Thomson (1986:266-267) says that there are eight of uses of the passive
voice. The passive is used:

1. When it is not necessary to mention the doer of the action as it is obvious
   who he is/was/will be: *the rubbish hasn’t been collected.*

2. When we don’t know, we don’t know exactly and have forgotten who did
   action: *the minister was murdered.*
3. When the subject of the active verb would be ‘people’.

*He is suspected of receiving stolen goods.* (People suspected him of…)

4. When the subject of the active sentence would be the indefinite pronoun.

5. When we are more interested in the action than the person who does it.

6. The passive may be used to avoid an awkward or ungrammatical sentence.

   This is usually done by avoiding a change of subject:

   *When he arrived home a detective arrested him.*

   Would be better expressed:

   *When he arrived home he was arrested (by a detective).*

7. The passive is sometimes preferred for psychological reasons. A speaker may use it to disclaim responsibility for disagreeable announcements.

8. For the *have* + object + past participle construction: *I had the car resprayed.*

### 2.1.2. Prepositions with Passive Verbs

As already noted, the agent, when mentioned, is preceded by *by*: *Dufy painted this picture* (as active), *this picture was painted by Dufy* (as passive).

When a verb + preposition + object combination is put into the passive the preposition will remain immediately after the verb: *you can play with these cubs quite safety* (as active), *these cubs can be played with quite safely* (as passive).
Similarly with verb + preposition/adverb combinations: the old newspaper were thrown away.

2.1.3. The Kinds of Passive Voice

2.1.3.1. Indirect Object as Subject in Passive

Either an indirect object or a direct object may be come the subject of a passive sentences. For example: (a) someone gave Mrs. Lee an award, (b) Mrs. Lee was given an award. (c) someone gave an award to Mrs. Lee. (d) an award was given to Mrs. Lee. (a), (b), (c), and (d) have the same meaning. Note in (d): when the direct object becomes the subject, to is usually used in front of the indirect object.

2.1.3.2 Passive Form from Modal and similar expression

- The passive form: modal + be + past participle. For example:

  *Tom will be invited to the picnic*

  *Children should be taught to respect their elders*

- The past-passive form: modal + have been + past participle. For example:

  *The teller should have been sent last week*

  *This house must have been built over 200 years ago.*
2.1.3.3 Stative Passive

The passive form may be used to describe an existing situation or state, example: the door was locked by me five minutes ago, now the door is locked. No action is taking place. The action happened before. There is no “by phrase”. The past participle functions as an adjective. When the passive form expresses an existing state rather than an action, it is called the “stative passive”.

For examples: (a) the door is old, (b) the door is green, (c) the door is locked. In (a) and (b): old and green are adjectives. They describe the door. In (c): locked is a past participle. It is used as an adjective. It describes the door.

2.1.3.4 Passive Form with Get

Get be followed by a past participle. The past participle functions as an adjective; it describes the subject. The passive with gets is common in spoken English but is often not appropriate in formal writing. Example: what time are going to eat? I am getting hungry.

For examples: (a) I’m getting hungry. Let’s eat soon, (b) you shouldn’t eat so much. You’ll gets fat, (c) I stopped working because I got sleepy.

2.1.3.5 Adjective Participle

The present participle conveys an active meaning. The noun it modifies does something. Example: (a) it is a confusing problem, (b) they are (problem)
confused students. In (a): the noun “problem” does something; it “confuses”. Thus, it is describe as a “confusing problem”. The past participle conveys a passive meaning. In (b): the student are confused by something. Thus, they are described as “confused student”.

2.2 Error Analysis

2.2.2 The Difference of Error and Mistake

There is a problem in analyzing errors. It is how can those things are determinate as errors or mistakes or how we can those things are not just an accidental typing mistake. Ellis (1997:7) says that errors and mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance that they occur because, in particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what a learner knows. It can be concluded that a leaner makes errors due to their, in particular instance, lack of consciousness through the language knowledge.

The next question is how errors and mistakes in written data, can be distinguished. To know the errors in written data may be through the consistency of learner’s performance.

2.2.2 Error and Error Analysis

The definition of error can be seen through the classification of errors. There is explanation of the classification of error. This classification is very
important to explain the error in error analysis. The classification of error based on the classification of errors proposed by Richards (1997:173) and Ellis (1997).


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. **Interlingual and Developmental Errors**

Richards (1974:174) says that intralingual and developmental errors emphasize the reflection of the learner’s competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of general characteristics of language acquisition. And the tails, 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 leaner attempting to build up hypotheses abut the English language form his limited experience of it in the classroom or textbook. For that the intralingual and developmental errors classify the errors becomes:
1. Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization 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 contras for the learner. The definition of overgeneralization is completed through Richards, overgeneralization happened when the leaner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language. Generally overgeneralization is the creation of one deviant structure in place of two regular structures. For example: *we are hope, it is occurs, he come from*. Over generalization generally involves the creation of one deviant structure in place of two regular structures.

2. Ignorance of rule restriction

Ignorance of rule restrictions is failure to observe the restriction is failure to observe the restriction. *I made him to do it*. Ignores restriction on the distribution of *make*. This is a type of generalization or transfer, since the leaner is making used of a previously acquired rule in a new situation.

3. Incomplete application rules

This category emphasizes the systematic difficulty in the used 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. Despite extensive teaching of both the question and statement forms, a grammatical question form may never become part of competence in the second language.

4. False concept hypotheses

In addition to the wide range of intralingual errors which have to do with faulty rule-learning at various levels, there is a class of developmental errors which derive from faulty comprehension of distinction in the target language. There are sometimes due to poor gradation of teaching items. For example: *Deceiving by his friends, he lost his hope.* This sentence contains an error of false concept hypothesized because the infinitive + ing (deceiving) should be used in active action while the above sentence is passive action, so the right sentence “*Deceived by his friends, he lost his hope.*

2. Corder (1997)

Corder (1997:130) also classifies the errors of learner’s language into three types, they are:

a. Transfer Errors

The theory of transfer states that a learner’s of second language transfer into the learner’s performance in the second language the habits of his mother tongue. On this theory the making of this error is evitable part of learning process. It also accounts for the similarity of many errors to the forms
of mother longue. We can call these transfer errors, for example: *the heart which broke*. It should be *the broken heart*.

b. Analogical Errors

A learner of second language makes errors because he has not yet discovered the precise set of categories to which the rule applies. Errors of this sort are errors of overgeneralization or analogical errors. For example: *when I am taking a bath the phone rang*. This sentence contain misinformation in using *be*. That is *be (am)* should be changed to *was* because the tense used past continuous. This error may produced by the learners with any mother tongue. Analogical errors are inherent in the learning process.

c. Teaching-Induced Errors

There is a type of errors which is much more difficult to establish to any particular case, namely, errors arising from the methods or material used in the teaching. It is not easy to identify such errors with a close study of materials and teaching techniques to which the learner has been exposed. This is probably why so little is known about the materials. Errors has function to be the evidences of how a second language learner acquires and those evidences are processes by analyzing through the errors can be called as “Errors Analysis”.
3. Ellis (1997)

Ellis says that error analysis is a procedure used by both researcher and teachers. It involves collecting sample 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 these steps of analyzing the errors, they are:

1. Identifying Errors

In this step, we have to compare the error sentences (I mentions as “original sentence”) with what seems to be the normal or ‘correct’ sentences in the target language which correspond with them (I mentions 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 Error

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.

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

1. Ommition

Ommition is the error of leaving out an item that is required for an utterance to be considered grammatical, for example: the toll gates was closed at seven o’clock next week. This sentence contain error. The sentence above is future, based on the time signal used (next week). This sentence leaves out an item that is required grammatical. So the right sentence is the toll gates will closed at seven o’clock next week.

2. Misinformation

Misinformation is the error of using one grammatical form in place of another grammatical form, for example: when I am taking a bath the phone rang. This sentences contain misinformation in using be. That is be am should be changed to was because the tense used pas continuous.

3. Misordering

Misordering is the error of putting the words in an utterance in the wrong order. For example: you must finish the report written today. It must be changed becomes you should finish the written report today.
4. Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization is the error of using over grammatical form in an utterance. For example: the day is being fine, we decided to go swimming. This sentence used the day is being fine, it should be the day being fine or the day is fine.

3. Explaining Error

This is the last step of errors analysis. A researcher tried to explain how and why a sentence called to be erroneous.


According to Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982:138), errors are the flawed side of leaner speech or writing. People cannot learn language without first systematically committing errors.

There are four descriptive taxonomies to analyzed 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 included 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:

- Omission Errors

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

- 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: se didn’t went back

  2). Regularization: eated fot ate, childs for children

  3). Simple additions: the fishes doesn’t live in the water
• Misinformation Errors

Misinformation errors are characterized by the used of the wrong from 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. He dance with my brother

3). Alternating forms: I seen her yesterday

• Misordering

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance. For example:

I don’t know what is that.

3. Comparative Taxonomy

Comparative taxonomy 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 perspective of their effect in the listener or reader. This taxonomy classifies into global errors and local errors.
Error analysis has been analyzed by some previous persons. One of them is Yunita (2003) in her thesis entitles an Analysis of Errors in English past tense by students of Politeknik Kesehatan. Her subject is students of Politeknik Kesehatan. She applies field research and quantitative study in her research design. And her findings are she counts the percentage of correct and incorrect answers of past tenses by students of 100 questions. Finds the most errors made by the students in simple past (48, 23%), past future (45, 45%), past perfect (48, 50%), and the last is past continuous tense (39, 91%).