II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Gerund

2.1.1. Definition of Gerund

Every language has its own rules and system that make them different with the other languages. English as the first foreign language in Indonesia has great difference structures with Indonesian language. We often find verbs in English that function as nouns. There is no change in making a noun from a verb in Bahasa Indonesia, but in English we must add the suffix –ing to the verb. On the other hand, the –ing form of a verb is not always a noun. Words derived from a verb stem with the suffix –ing may occur in a variety of meanings and functions. It depends on the contexts where they occur. The –ing form may be used as verbal nouns and verbal adjectives. Allen (1974:177) states that the part of the verb that ends in –ing has two very important functions: (1) It can have the force of an adjective as well as that of a verb, known as present participle, and (2) It can have the force of a noun as well as that of a verb, known as gerund. The function of present participle and gerund is not the same although it has the same verb-_ing form.

Thus, gerund is a verb- ing form functioning as a noun. This verb – ing form is a part of noun and a part of a verb. Pyle (2001:72) says that a gerund is a verb + ing that is used as a noun or a part of noun phrase. Azar (2003:368) also states that a gerund is the –ing form of a verb. It is used as a noun. A gerund is a verb from which ends in –ing, but which is used in a sentence like a noun (Richards, 2002:225). Meanwhile, gerund phrase is composed of the gerund and any words organized with it. Like nouns, commonly, gerund may function as
subjects, complements and objects so that it may be preceded by an article, a
possessive pronoun, or an adjective or followed by a noun-adjunct with ‘of’ (or
another preposition). As a noun, gerund may function as the subject, object,
nominal predicate of a sentence, and form part of a prepositional adjunct.

2.1.2. Functions of Gerund

a. Gerund as Subjects

Gerund is an action functioning as a noun. Since it can be
functioned as a noun, it can be used as the subject of the sentence. Subject
is any sort of entity: a person, a place, an object, an abstract concept, and a
pronoun that refers to some entity identified elsewhere or an action
functioning as a noun (Stilman, 1992:55). As a subject of a sentence, it
basically has characteristics such as verb + ing, in front of predicate,
subject of a sentence and having meaning as a noun. In addition, gerund as
subject always requires singular verb.

Examples:

1. Reading is my hobby.
2. Swimming is a healthy sport.
3. Skiing is my favourite winter sport.

Gerund followed by some words is called gerund phrase. It can act
as the subject of a predicate although it does not occur frequently because
the common use is in general statements with “be” as the main verb.

Examples:

4. Playing tennis is fun.
5. Respecting parent is wise.
6. Climbing to the top of a mountain is not easy.
Learners may make errors when they make a gerund as a subject of sentence since the predicate must be in singular form. Based on the preliminary research, the errors are they omitted the use of -ing, adding to or ed, and the common one is they use are instead of is as they take attention to the word after gerund (phrase).

Example:

7. *Disturbing friends in the class* is not good attitude.

*Disturbing friends in the class* is gerund phrase and functions as the subject of the sentence. Learners can make error if they focus on friends which is plural noun and it must be followed by plural predicate. The main point of the sentence is disturbing as the subject of the sentence.

Besides it is used in general statement, gerund phrase may also function as the subject of verb that expresses cause-effect relationship and emotion (Arjati, 2007:15).

a. Cause-effect relationship

8. *Having much money* makes him very happy

Gerund phrase which such a verb may have conditional meaning:

9. *Playing online games all night everyday (=If you play online game all night, it)* will affect to your health.
10. *Realizing him so weak* disappointed them.

b. Emotion

11. *Knowing his failure* disappointed them.
12. *Being ignored by his friends* enrages him.

*Disappointed them* and *enrages him* may be interpreted as causes them to become disappointed and cause him to become enrage. Those show that *disappointed them* and *enrages him* are the effect of the causes.
Gerund can be used instead of infinitive when the action is considered in general sense, but it is always safe to use infinitive. When we wish to refer to one particular action we must use the infinitive.

Examples:

13. It is not always easy to refuse invitations.
14. Refusing invitations is not always easy.

Here the action is considered in general sense, and either gerund or infinitive is possible (Thomson and Martinet, 1969: 155). Gerund, like infinitive, can be the subject of a sentence.

Examples:

15. It is easier to read French than to speak it.
16. Reading French is easier than speaking it.

These two sentences have no difference. It is as stated by Thomson and Martinet (1969:158) that there is no difference between those forms, but the gerund usually implies that the speaker or person addressed has had personal experience of the action, having performed it himself probably more than once, i.e. in the sixteenth example we get the impression that the speaker can, or has tried to, read and speak French while the speaker in the first example may only be expressing an opinion or theory.

b. **Gerund as (Direct) Object**

Gerunds are used in another way, too. It can be found after certain transitive verb.

Examples:

17. We like *singing*.
18. They finish *speaking*.
19. They go *swimming*.
Gerund phrases also play this role, examples:

20. We avoid travelling in the rush hour.
21. I don’t anticipate meeting any opposition.
22. He denied having been there.

There are certain verbs followed by other verbs, the second verbs can function as either gerund or infinitive which are considered as the object of the verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs followed by Gerund</th>
<th>Verbs followed by either Gerund or Infinitive</th>
<th>Verbs followed by either Gerund or Infinitive with Different Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>admit</td>
<td>enjoy</td>
<td>regret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appreciate</td>
<td>finish</td>
<td>report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avoid</td>
<td>mind</td>
<td>resent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can’t help</td>
<td>miss</td>
<td>resist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consider</td>
<td>postpone</td>
<td>resume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complete</td>
<td>practice</td>
<td>risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delay</td>
<td>quit</td>
<td>suggest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deny</td>
<td>recall</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dread</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Verbs followed by both Gerund and Infinitive**

a) Verbs in the first row are always followed by gerund (never followed by Infinitive).

Here *Can't help* means “not able to avoid a situation, or stop something from happening”.

Examples:
23. I appreciate being given suggestions by her.
24. Tony always avoids answering my questions.

b) Verbs in the second row are followed either gerund or infinitive with the same meaning.

Examples:

25. I begin working or I begin to work
26. Don’t attempt to do it by yourself or Don’t attempt doing it by yourself.

c) Verbs in the third row can also be followed by infinitive, but the meanings are different with the gerund form.

Examples:

27. My brother always remembers locking his car.
   It is different with My brother always remembers to lock his car.
28. My brother always forgets locking his car.
   It is different with My brother always forgets to lock his car.

c. Gerund as Subjective Complement

Since gerunds function as a noun, they can serve as subjective complement as well. Their position is usually after “be”.

Examples:

29. My cat’s favorite activity is sleeping.
30. Her hobby is singing
31. My favorite activity is reading
32. What she loves is painting.

The uses of gerund phrases that function as complement are equivalent to the subject.

Examples:

34. Her hobby is reading novel.
35. His chief delight is swimming in the river.
36. What she likes is watching the children play.
d. Gerund after Preposition

Gerunds must be used when verbs are put after preposition. Prepositions usually follow verbs, adjective, or noun. They are actually verb + preposition, adjective + preposition and noun and pronoun + preposition. Verbs that are placed after preposition must be in gerund form.

Examples:

37. He insists on seeing her.
38. He gave up smoking because of his doctor’s advice.
39. After a long trial and error, he finally succeeded in fixing his laptop.
40. I am looking forward to seeing you soon.
41. Judith is fond of singing while taking a shower.

a. Verbs + Prepositions + Gerunds

A number of phrasal verbs and objects of preposition that take the form of a gerund.

accuse of  
blow out  
call for  
deprive of  
clean out  
composed of  
congratulate on  
keen on  
superior to  
look at  
talk about  
look forward to  
confess to  
approve of

believe in  
content with  
depend on  
arrive at (in)  
disapprove of  
find out  
speak of  
succeed in  
go on  
talk to  
translate to  
think about  
think of  

consist of  
aim at  
call on  
carry out  
ask for  
bear out  
give up  
keep on  
leave off  
related to  
count on  
object to  
rely on
42. When Francisco wore dive fins to class, everyone knew that he was devoted to swimming.
43. He prefers being neutral to taking sides.

The word “to” after the following verbs is not the sign of infinitive. It functions as a preposition, therefore it requires a gerund after it.

b. Adjectives + Prepositions + Gerunds

A number of phrasal adjectives and objects of preposition that take the form of a gerund.

- accustomed to
- interested in
- fond of
- intent on
- capable of
- tired of
- afraid of
- successful in
- angry with
- good at
- jealous of
- independent of
- similar to
- sure of
- ashamed of
- full of
- different from
- indifferent to

44. I am used to studying in the midnight
45. He is good at telling lies
46. I am tired of studying all day long.

c. Nouns + Prepositions + Gerunds

A number of phrasal nouns and objects of preposition that take the form of a gerund.

- choice of
- intention of
- possibility of
- excuse for
- methods for/of
- reason for

Examples:

47. The teacher gave us choice of taking another exam.
48. He always has an excuse for being late
49. Have you found the best method for improving your English yet?
50. Your reason for getting bad grades is a big nonsense.
51. Excuse me for disturbing you.
Preposition generally can be directly followed by verb + ing form.

Examples:

52. **By selling** fruit in the market, she gets a lot of money
53. We should have stayed at home **instead of travelling** to this such place.

**e. Gerunds used after Possessive**

Gerund, like a noun, can be preceded by possessive adjective or noun in the possessive case such as my, his, her, and Budi’s. If the verb after preposition is directly followed by gerund and it refers to subject of a verb, the gerunds after possessive adjective refer to the person denoted by the possessive adjective or pronoun.

Examples:

54. We **dislike moving** to another apartment (we dislike it)
55. We **dislike her moving** to another apartment. (she must not move).

There are differences about the usage of gerund after possessive in formal and informal situation. In formal English, possessive adjectives (my, your, his, her, etc) are used to modify a gerund.

Examples:

56. Our teacher appreciates **our coming** on time.
57. He dislikes **my working** late.

The possessive noun by adding aphostrophe s (‘s) to the noun or pronoun is usually used in very formal English to modify a gerund.

Examples:

58. I do not remember my mother’s **complaining** about it.
59. She does not mind Alice’s **singing** loudly.
The possessive forms are infrequent used in informal English but object forms (me, you, them) are frequently used in informal English

Examples:

60. It is no use them complaining. (Thomson & Martinet, 1969:165)
61. He left the house without us knowing anything about it. (Thomson & Martinet, 1969)
62. The juries decided us winning the English debate competition.
63. I do not remember my mother complaining about it.
64. She does not mind Alice singing loudly.

But the possessive forms are used in both formal and informal usage if the gerund phrase acts as the subject of sentence.

65. Her calling in the midnight disturbed me.

Either the unchanged forms of nouns or the object forms of personal pronoun may be used as the subject of gerund since these forms establish a closer relationship with the verb or preposition after which they commonly appear. In a speech they have great stress and are followed by a longer pause. Gerund phrases ordinarily occur after a main verb especially such verbs as in the following:

like      dread      mean      save      insist on
dislike   fancy      propose    stop      it’s no good/use
mind      involve    recollect  suggest  object to
remember  understand resent    (dis)approve of there’s no point in
what’s the point of

Examples:
66. I dislike my mother interfering in the affair. (Thomson & Martinet, 1969:165)
67. He insisted on me reading the document.

f. Gerunds Used in the Negative Adjective “No”

The negative form of gerunds is made by placing adverb “not” in front of gerunds. There are certain types of the use of “no” following by gerund.

1. Negative gerund is used after There + a form of be.

   Examples:

   68. There is no giving the beggar some money.
   69. There is no assuming that they win the game.
   70. There is no complaining the wrong explanation of the teacher.

2. Negative gerund can be used in prohibition that is against certain activities.

   71. No cheating is allowed in this biology test.
   72. No fishing in this lake! The officer announces.
   73. No parking in this area!


g. Gerunds as Noun Compounds

Since gerund functions as a noun, it can be used in noun compound or it is also called as noun adjunct. Gerunds are inseparable from the noun, and it makes it different with present participle used as adjective and explains the nouns which may be separated from the nouns. The gerunds explain the function of the nouns; it can be put before or after the noun such as diving shoe, driving lesson, swimming pool, bird-watching, and train-spotting. Diving shoe means that the shoe is used for diving, It does not mean a shoe that is diving. Diving is not an adjective that
explain the shoe, but it is a noun that explain the function of the noun precede it.

a. Gerund before a noun

Examples:
Swimming pool, running text, boarding house, living room, dining room, fitting room, etc.

b. Gerund as noun compound after noun.

Examples:
Bird-watching, train-spotting, fruit-picking, coal-mining, car-collecting, surf-riding, etc.

2.1.3. Comparison between Gerund and Present Participle

The verb that ends with suffix –ing is not only used as gerund but is also used as present participle. Both gerund and the participle use verbs + ing. Allen (1974:177) states the part of the verb that ends with suffix –ing has two very important functions: (1) It can have the force of an adjective as well as that of a verb, known as present participle. (2) It can have the force of a noun as well as that of a verb, known as gerund. By this same verb – ing form, it sometimes makes learners get confused in differentiating them. Both gerund and the participle can be distinguished by their use in a sentence. Learners have only to remember the functions of verb + ing in gerund that is used as noun and can function as subject, direct object, and after preposition. While the verb + ing in the present participle functions as adjective used to modify a noun. Besides, they can
be distinguished by their relation to their subjects. The subject in gerund is always construed as a modifier of the gerund phrase.

The same verb + *ing* form in both gerund and the participle usually become the problem for learners to differentiate the verbs end in *–ing* form used as gerund and as the participle. This problem is actually can be solved by understanding the function of both of them which have been explained by the writer above.

Examples:

74. Her hobby is *singing* west songs  
75. She is *singing* a west song.

The function of the *–ing* form of both of the sentences is very different. The first sentence uses gerund because *singing* functions as the complement of the subject, while the second was present participle because *singing* in that sentence modifies the subject.

The following sentences are as the examples to understand the comparison between gerund and present participle:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gerund</th>
<th>Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What she likes is <em>watching</em> a movie</td>
<td>She is <em>watching</em> a movie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Her <em>running</em> shoes are very expensive</td>
<td>The <em>running</em> girl is beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He likes <em>driving</em> a car.</td>
<td>People <em>driving</em> in the rain have to drive carefully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The girl needs a microphone for <em>singing</em></td>
<td>The <em>singing</em> girl amazed the audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming pool (the pool for swimming)</td>
<td>The swimming girl (the girl who is swimming)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleeping-pill</td>
<td>The sleeping son</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a pill that helps people to sleep)</td>
<td>(a son who is sleeping)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These following verbs are sometimes confusing, for they never have the possessive as its subjects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>see</th>
<th>hear</th>
<th>have (not in present tense)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>notice</td>
<td>listen to</td>
<td>imagine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watch</td>
<td>feel</td>
<td>keep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look at</td>
<td>perceive</td>
<td>catch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>observe</td>
<td>smell</td>
<td>set/start/get</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hark at</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

76. She looks at the girl painting a mountain.
77. We feel the weather getting hot.
78. He watches us playing football.
79. We will set/start/get them working.

2.1.4. Comparison between Gerund and Infinitive

There are verbs that can be followed by either gerund and infinitive. Verbs followed by gerund and infinitive may have the similar and different meaning. Gerunds are formed with “ing” while infinitives are formed with “to”

These following verbs mentioned bellow are verbs that can be followed by a gerund and an infinitive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>abhor</th>
<th>advice</th>
<th>agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>allow</td>
<td>attempt</td>
<td>can/could bear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>can/could bear</td>
<td>cease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continue</td>
<td>forget</td>
<td>hate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intend</td>
<td>it needs/requires/wants</td>
<td>like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>love</td>
<td>mean</td>
<td>need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>permit</td>
<td>prefer</td>
<td>propose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recommend</td>
<td>regret</td>
<td>remember</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The verbs advice, allow, permit and recommend will take an infinitive if they are followed by a pronoun; otherwise they take gerund.

Examples:

80. He advised me to apply at once.
81. She recommends housewives to buy big tins.
82. They don’t allow us to park here.

But gerund is used if they are not followed by pronoun

Examples:

83. He advised applying at once.
84. She recommends buying big tins.

Here are the other examples of verbs that can be followed by a gerund or an infinitive.

Examples:

85. Nancy remembered getting married
(Nancy has a memory of getting married)

86. Fred remembered to bring sunblock to the beach.
(Fred remembered that he needed to bring sunblock)

87. She forgot paying the bill yesterday.
(Now she does not remember that she paid the bill yesterday)

88. She forgot to pay the bill yesterday.
(I did not pay it because I forgot)

89. He is determined to get a seat for the ballet even if it means standing in a queue all night.
(mean = involve (used only with an impersonal subject) takes the gerund)
90. I mean to get to the top of by sunrise.
(mean = intend takes the infinitive)

Some of the verbs above can be used as gerund or infinitive with no or little difference meaning. Surayin (2003:176) states that the verbs begin, start, continue, and cease can be followed by infinitive or gerund without any difference, but infinitive is usually used if the verbs following them are know, understand and matter.

Examples:

91. I began working/ I began to work
(There is no difference between “began working” and “began to work”)
92. He continued living/to live above the shop.

These following sentences are not followed by gerund but infinitive.

93. I am begining to understand why he acted as he did.
94. It ceased to matter whether or not he sold his work.
(If the main verb is progressive and main verbs are followed by understand, an infinitive is usually used)

Besides the verbs begin, start, continue and cease; there are some other verbs that may be followed by a gerund or an infinitive with little or no difference. They are cannot bear, cannot stand, like, hate, love, and prefer.

The gerund can be used instead of the infinitive when the action is being considered in a general sense, but it is always safe to use an infinitive. When we wish to refer to one particular action we must use the infinitive:

Examples:

95. He said ‘Do come with me.’ It was impossible to refuse.
(Here we are referring to one particular action, so the gerund is not possible).

But
Students need to pay attention to the rules in learning a language in order to communicate properly both in writing and speaking. In the process of learning the language, students can not avoid making errors because errors happen as a part of the learning process. This happens because the students use different forms to communicate ideas, feelings or messages. Corder (1981:1) states that most errors were ascribed to interference and consequently a major part of applied linguistic research was devoted to comparing the mother tongue and the target language in order to predict or explain the errors made by learners of any particular language background.

2.2 Error and Error Analysis

2.2.1 Error

Errors, according to behaviourists’ theory, are the result of non-learning, rather than wrong learning (Ellis, 1995:22). Ellis explains that errors reflect gaps in a learner’s knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is the correct one (Ellis, 1997:17). By comparing the learner’s native language with the target language, differences could be identified and used to predict areas of potential error (Ellis, 1995: 23).

Corder (1974:1) observes that learner’s errors are indicative both of the state of the learner’s knowledge, and of the ways in which a second language is learned. Strevens (1969) in Richards (1974:4) hypothesized
that errors should not be viewed as problems to be overcome, but rather as normal and inevitable 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 learners were seen to progress through this pattern, his errors could be taken as evidence not of failure but success and achievement in learning.

2.2.1.1 The Source of Error Occurrence

As the writer has said above that second language learners can not avoid making mistakes in the learning process. It is a normal condition for second language learners. Heidi, Dulay and Burt in Richard (1974:95) state that you can’t learn without goofing. Richard and Sampson (1974) indentify seven factors characterizing second-language learner system, namely: (1) language transfer, (2) intralingual interference, (3) sociolinguistic situation, (4) modality, (5) age, (6) succession of approximate system, and (7) universal hierarchy of difficulty (Richards 1974: 5-12).

2.2.2 Error Analysis

Error analysis is a study to investigate the errors in second language learning by collecting and describing samples made by the language learners. It is used as a procedure to analyze the errors in the language learning process to be known and corrected by using several ways of anlyzing. Ellis (1985:296) states that errors analysis is a procedure used by both researcher and teacher. It involves collecting samples of
learner’s language. Identifying the error in sample, describing these errors, classifying them according to their hypothesized causes, and evaluating their seriousness. Susan and Selinker (2008:517) say that error analysis is a procedure for analyzing second language data that begin with the errors learners make and then attempts to explain them.

Corder (1981:45) says that error analysis has two functions. The first is a theoretical one and the second is a practical one. The theoretical aspect of error analysis is part of the methodology of investigating the language learning process. The practical aspect of error analysis is its function in guiding the remedial action we must take to correct an unsatisfactory state of affairs for learner or teacher. It is with this second function of error analysis that I am concerned in this chapter. Corder also states why error analysis is useful. He mentions error significant in three different ways: (1). To the teacher; they show a student’s progress, (2). To the researcher; they show how a language is acquired and what strategies the learner uses, and (3). To the leaner himself; he can learn from these errors.

The good language use should be correct in grammar and spelling. The proper grammar and spelling give emphasis and ease to the reader. That is why the error analysis is needed to assure whether a writing is good or not. Writers should understand what is meant by an error when they are going to identify the error. There are several ways to analyze the error; Ellis (1997:15) explains four steps in analyzing learner’s errors, namely:
1. Identify errors

To identify the error, it is necessary to compare the error sentences (original sentence) with the normal or correct sentences in the target language which correspond with them. By comparing the original sentences and the normal or the correct sentences, we can find the errors although this is in fact easier said than done.

2. Describing errors

This is the step to describe and classify the errors into the kinds. This step can be done by several ways. According to Ellis (1997:18), there are two ways to classify errors, namely:

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 learners’ utterances differ from the reconstructed target-language utterances. It means the errors are classified into several types:

1. Omission

Omission is an error of leaving out an item that is required for an utterance to be considered grammatical. The example of this error type is: “My mistake was trust him”. Based on the function that it is gerund as subjective complement. This sentence leaves an item that is required grammatically. The correct sentence is “My mistake was trusting him”.

2. Misinformation
Misinformation is the error of using one grammatical form in place of another grammatical form, for example: *Avoid makes silly mistakes.* This sentence contains misinformation error in using suffix “s”. It should be verb + ing form.

3. Misordering

Misordering is the error of putting the words in an utterance in the wrong order, for example: *Goats is used baits to trap tigers.* *Goats* is a plural noun so that it must be followed by *are*.

4. Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization is the error of using over grammatical form in an utterance, for example: *I eated fried chicken yesterday.* The use of *eated* is not suitable, it should be *ate* because it is in regular verb.

3. Explaining errors

This last step is the step of error analysis where a researcher tries to explain not only how and why a sentence is called to be erroneous but also how and why learners make errors.

Corder (in Ellis 1995: 51-52 ) explains the procedure of error analysis: (1) A corpus of language is selected, (2) The errors in the corpus are identified, (3) The errors are classified, (4) The errors are explained, and (5) The errors are evaluated. Error evaluation is only used if the purpose of the error analysis is pedagogic.
Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982:138) mention four descriptive taxonomies to analyze errors, namely:

1. Linguistic Category Taxonomy.

   Linguistic category taxonomies classify errors according to either or both the language component (phonology, syntax and morphology, semantics and lexicon, and style) and other particular linguistic constituent.

2. Surface Strategy Taxonomy.

   Surface strategy taxonomy deals with how the surface structures are changed by the learner. Among the common errors are:

   a. Omission Errors

      Omission errors are the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance.

      Examples:

      97. *She is good teacher in this school.*
      98. *She is a good teacher in this school.*

   b. Addition Errors

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

      1) *Double markings* are the failure to remove or avoid some of the elements needed in a linguistic construction, but it does not need to be removed to other construction.

      Example:

      99. *She doesnot goes to school.*
2) **Regularizations** are the addition category in which some grammatical markers are added, as a regular form marker is added to some irregular forms.

Example:

100. dranked for drank, sheeps for sheep.

3) **Simple additions** are an error adding subcategories.

Example:

101. The students doesn’t listen the explanation.

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** are error using the regular features of formation or a place that is not regular.

Example:

102. The cat dranked the milk.

2) **Archi-forms** are made when one member of a class of forms is selected to represent others in the class.

Example:

103. I call him yesterday. His sing on a stage.

3) **Alternating forms** are the improper placement for a morpheme or group of morphemes in a word or utterance.

Example:

104. I known her singing yesterday.

d. Misordering Errors
Misordering errors are the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance.

Example:

105. I don’t know what is that.

3. Comparative Taxonomy

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


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.

(http://teachingenglishonline.net/study-on-error-analysis/)