CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter the writer explains about the previous study, second language acquisition, definition of error, error and mistake, error analysis, evaluation of error, and definition of simple present tense.

A. The Previous Studies.

There are some previous studies that related to this topic. The first is a study conducted by Endang Sri Susanti entitled “A Study on Errors in Verbal Agreement Made by the Student of the State College of Islamic Studies Palangka Raya”. In this case she discussed about the possible causes of errors in verbal agreement, the correlation between the students motivation and their success in using verbal agreement, the relationship between the teachers method and the students ability and the factors cause of students difficulty in learning verbal agreement.¹

The second, Tipuk Setryarini entitled “Error Analysis in Simple Sentence”, here discussed about the errors in uses simple present and past tense and the kinds of errors in the use simple present and past tense.² The third, Siti Rondiyah entitled “Error Analysis in Writing Present Continuous and past Continuous Tenses

¹Endang Sri Susanti, A Study on Errors in Verbal Agreement Made by the Student of the State College of Islamic Studies Palangka Raya, Thesis of SarjanaPendidikan Islam, Palangka Raya: STAIN Palangka Raya,2006,h.4.t.d
Achieved by the Second Year Students of MTsN-2 Palangka Raya”, she discussed about the types and causes of errors.³

Based on previous studies above, the writer does the different study. Endang Sri Susanti focused on A Study on Error in Verbal Agreement, Tipuk Setryarini focused on Error Analysis in Simple Sentence, and the last Siti Rondiyah focused on Error Analysis in Writing Achieved. And the writer in this study focuses on Grammatical Error in Constructing Simple Present Sentence.

B. Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

Learning a foreign language means learning to earn some foreign language. There are several theories related to language acquisition, according to G. Cook & Seidlhofer, language is a genetic inheritance, a mathematical system, a social fact, expression of individual identity, an expression of cultural identity, an outcome of dialogic interaction, a social semiotic, the intuitions of native speakers, a collection of memorized chunks, the sum of attested data, a rule-based discrete combinatory system, or an electrical activation in a distributed network. We do not have to choose. Language can be all of these things at once.

According to Davis, if language is many things, then so is its acquisition. It is therefore a curious fact that the study of second language acquisition (SLA) has historically been dominated by a single broad approach that which goes by the name of “cognitive”. From this perspective, language may be a “social semiotic”, but above

³SitiRondiyah, Error Analysis in Writing Present Continuous and past Continuous Tenses Achieved by the Second Year Students of MTsN-2 Palangka Raya. Thesis of SarjanaPendidikan Islam, Palangka Raya: STAIN Palangka Raya, 2008.,h.3.t.d
all it is a cognitive product. Its development is therefore first and foremost a cognitive process. The dominance of this perspective has been widely acknowledge in SLA studies, as indicated by a sampling of influential statements: Theorists and researchers tend to view SLA very simply in the following way: On the basis of experience with a particular language, L (that is, linguistic input from L), a learner possessing some capacity for language acquisition develops certain cognitive capacities to use L. There are thus three central cognitive or behavioral problems in the study of SLA; the problems of (a) the cognitive structures and abilities that underlie L2 use, (b) the relevant linguistic input, and (c) the capacity for language acquisition.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language. The additional language is called a second language (L2), even though it may actually be the third, fourth, or tenth to be acquired. It is also commonly called a target language (TL), which refers to any language that is to aim or goal of learning. The scope of SLA includes informal L2 learning that takes place in naturalistic contexts, formal L2 learning that takes place in classroom, and L2 learning that involves a mixture of these setting and circumstances.4

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Second language acquisition (SLA) is by no means the only reason for researchers’ interest and for many, not for the primary reason or not a reason at all. As a widespread, highly complex, uniquely human, cognitive process, language learning of all kinds merits careful study for what it can reveal about the nature of the human mind and intelligence. Thus, a good deal of what might be termed “basic research” goes on in SLA without regard for its potential applications or social utility. In linguistics and psychology, for example, data on SLA are potentially useful for testing theories as different from one another as grammatical naturism.\(^5\) It is study of how second languages are learned. In other words, it is the study of acquisition of a non-primary language; that is, the acquisition of a language beyond the native language. It is the study of how learners create a new language system with only limited exposure to a second language. It is the study of what is learned of a second language and what is not learned; it is the study of why most second language learners do not achieve the same degree of knowledge and proficiency in a second language as they do in their native language; it is also the study of why only some learners appear to achieve native-like proficiency in more than one language. Additionally, second language acquisition is concerned with the nature of the hypotheses (whether conscious or unconscious) that learners come up with regarding the rules of the second language.\(^6\)

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However peculiar and limited they may be, learners’ sentences come from the learners’ own language systems; their L2 speech shows rules and patterns of its own. At each stage learners have their own language systems. The nature of these learner systems may be very different from that of the target language. Even if they are idiosyncratic and constantly changing, they are nonetheless systematic. The starting point for SLA research is the learners’ own language system. This can be called the “independent language assumption”, learners are not willfully distorting the native system, but are inventing a system of their own.7

C. Definition of Error

There are some definitions of error given by linguistics. Tarigan state that, error is part of deviation conversation or composition of standard rule of selected rule from language adult performance.8 Dulay, Burt and Krashen stated that errors are flawed side of learner speech and writing.9 While, Schuman and Stenson stated that errors are due to the rule deviance of target language in language learning.10 Based on the definition above, the writer concludes that errors are the deviations which occur in language learning, because the learners make deviation rule of target language. The deviations are in speech and writing.

9Hedi Dulay, Maria Burt, and Stephen Krashen, Language Two, 1982,p.138
D. Error and Mistake

The distinction performance analysis competence error is extremely important, but it is often difficult to determine the nature of deviation without careful analysis. Chomsky called that errors caused by the fatigue and in attention of the students as performance factor and called competence factor for errors resulting from lack of knowledge in the rule of the language. Corder said that in some of the second language literature, performance errors have been called “mistake” while the term “error” was reserved for the systematic deviation due to the learners still developing knowledge of the second language rule system. Mistake is sporadic, on time events, readily corrected by learner.11

In relation to the classifications of errors, Corder in Dulay classifies error in two terms. They are mistake and error. Mistake refers to performance and error refers to systematic competence inadequacies. The error of performance will characteristically be unsystematic and error competence systematic.12

Generally, the mistake is caused by the students’ weaknesses in remembering linguistic system of language being learnt. They usually can correct it if they are more aware of the target language system.

On the contrary, the students who do not known yet the target language system procedure errors. Moreover, of course, they do not master the rule of the target

11http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~guion/444notes/erroranal, html,(online, juny,23-2013)
12HediDulay, Language Two, New York: Oxford University Press,1982,p.139
language. Actually, these accrue consistently, systematic and take a long time until corrected by the teacher through remedial teaching or additional practice.

From the discussion above, it is clear that errors are the fault part of students work either in writing or speaking caused by their luck in language rules while mistakes are the fault parts of student result influenced by their physical condition.

E. Error Analysis

Errors in learning foreign language are something unavoidable. These are caused by the teaching language and errors cannot be separated each other. Never the less, the efforts to minimize the errors made must be carried out in order to achieve a perfect goal.

Errors made by students are something important to be known and to be learnt. Because by knowing errors made by students, it will be easier to determine the students’ difficulties in learning English. And the analysis of the students’ errors will give valuable information toward the English teaching process. Also the teacher will know more about the students’ weaknesses in mastering the target language rules. The errors made by the students can be analyzed by using errors analysis. Errors analysis itself is an activity to reveal errors found in writing and speaking. Richard states that errors analysis is the study of errors made by the second foreign language learners. It is supported by Brown that errors analysis is the process to observe,
analyze, and classify the deviation of the rules of the second language and then to reveal the systems operated by learner.\textsuperscript{13}

In addition, it is necessary to discuss error analysis for teaching English as a foreign language. English teachers should know error analysis because it becomes a useful key to understanding the process of foreign language acquisition. They should know how the target language is learnt or acquired and what the best strategy the learners employ in order to master the target language. By conducting a systematic study of error, they may improve their teaching method and attempt to find some answers or solutions to solve some problems faced by their students.

In learning English as a second of foreign language, it can be seen that most students often most some problem. And also, in learning a foreign language, the students often make some typical errors in English usage. The errors made by the students are caused by the interference of the complex system of the language being learn which call intralingua and development errors\textsuperscript{14}.

Related to the statement above, it is clear that error analysis may solve common weakness which the students need in learning a foreign language. Briefly, error analysis itself is a way in solving the students problem in learning a foreign language, including analyzing the types, sources and causes of errors. And also based on the errors made by the student, it can give information about how far the students have

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\textsuperscript{14} Richard Jack, \textit{A non Contractive Approach to Error Analysis Perspective on Second Language Acquisition}, London: Longman Group Itd, 1974, p.112
mastered the target language. Furthermore, error analysis is a point of reconstruction which in turn can avoid or even reduce the errors that probably made by the students. The writer concluded that error analysis is a methodology for investigating learners’ competence in acquiring a second language acquisition or a foreign language. It describes learners’ interlanguage and can be used to identify the possible mistakes or errors that are made by students.

F. Evaluation of Error

Evaluating serious errors is designed to reduce revised and devise remedial lessons in teaching learning. However, in this study, the writer used evaluating the errors as a step that involves drawing conclusion. 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. Politzer and Ramirez introduced their classification as follow:

The error is categorized as an aid in presenting the data rather than to create a basis for extensive speculation concerning the sources for the errors. For this reason, they were categorized along traditional lines into errors in morphology, syntax, and vocabulary, the three main categories were furthered subdivide according to different parts of speech or part of the sentence.\(^\text{15}\)

Surface strategy taxonomy divided errors into some categories; they are omission, addition, misformation, and misordering.

a) Omission.

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance. Although any morpheme or word in a sentence is a potential candidate for omission, some types of morphemes are omitted more than others. For example: The sentence “I never sad”, it should be “I am never sad”.

b) Addition.

Addition errors are opposite of omissions. They are characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. Three

\(^{15}\) Heidi Dulay, *Language Two*, p.147
types of addition errors have been observed in the speech of both L1 and L2 learners:

1) Double Marking.

Two items rather than one marked for the same feature. For example: “He is often drinks milk”, it should be, “He often drinks milk”.

2) Regularization.

A rule typically applies to a class of nouns. In most language, however, some members of a class are exceptions to the rule. For example, *eat* does not become *eated*, but *ate*; the noun *sheep* is also *sheep* in the plural not *sheeps*. For example: adverb of frequency in simple present tense; I always see *mouses* in the kitchen. It should be; I always see *mice* in the kitchen.

3) Simple Addition.

Simple addition errors are the “grab bag” subcategory of addition. If an addition error is not a double marking or regularization, it is called a simple addition. For example: “He often sings a song when I comes”, it should be, “He often sings a song when I come”.

c) Misformation.

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure. Three types of misformations have been frequently reported in the literature:
1) Regularization Errors.

Regularization errors that face under the misformation category are those in which a regular marker is used in place of an irregular one, as in *runed* for *run* or *gooses* for *geese*. For example;”He usually stands around my gooses”, it should be, “He usually stands around my geese”.

2) Archie-Form.

The selection of one number of the class of forms to represent others in the class is a common characteristic of all stages of second language acquisition. The form selected by learners is called an archi-form. Learner selects one member of the class of personal pronouns to function for several others in the class. For example; “My mother seldom gives I money”, it should be, “My mother seldom gives me money”.

3) Alternating Form.

As the learner’s vocabulary and grammar grow, the use of archi-forms often gives way to the apparently fairly free alternation of various member of a class with each other. Those we see from demonstratives: those dog/this cats. For example; “Andi never looks those dog”, it should be, “Andi never looks this dog”.

d) Misordering.

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance. For example; “Nita every
day learns English”, it should be, “Nita learns English every day”. And “Diana to goes shop often”, it should be, “Diana often goes to shop”.

1. 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 (intralingual errors) and interlingual errors.

a. Intralingual Error

Intralingual 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

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 runs”. This sentence should be: “He can run”.

There is an over form of a structure verb sing becomes sings.

2) Ignorance of rule restriction

Ignorance of rule restrictions occur when the students ignore restriction of certain structures as in sentences below:

   a. Her skin are full color.

   b. The colors is orange, white, and black.

   These errors are categorized as wrong form of be. The students ignored the restrictions on the use of auxiliary be for singular and plural subjects. They picked the auxiliaries without considering the correct use of them. The use of auxiliary be depends on the subject. When the subject of the sentence is singular, the students should use *is* instead of *are*. While when the subject is plural, the students should use *are* instead of *is*.

3) Incomplete application of rules

This cause of errors refers to the students’ failure to fully develop a structure, like in sentences below:

   a. The animals in the jungle.

   b. I like cat because it tame.

   c. My elephant smart and strong.
The errors are categorized as omission of *be*. The students, in this case, failed to apply a complete structure in the Simple Present Tense as they omitted an element that is *be*. These errors occur since their native language does not require *be* to make a sentence followed by an adjective, a noun, or an adverb. They make English sentences as the way they do in their native language.

4) False concept hypothesized

False concept hypothesized derives from the students’ faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. It may be due to poor gradation of teaching item which lead to students’ confusion to distinguish two or more structures.

The following sentences, which are sentences result from the students’ faulty comprehension to distinguish singular and plural form.

   a. It is big mammals.
   b. It ear are sharp.
   c. It is a wild animals.

The sentences above indicate that the students did not comprehend the structure in singular and plural form. Plural form is a process of adding morpheme (*s/es*) to plural words while singular form does not need morpheme (*s/es*) adding. In this case, the students seem confused in distinguish singular and plural form in English language especially in simple present tense.
b. Interlingual Error

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.

2. 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.

a. Global Error

A global error is a communicative error that cause a native speaker of English either to mis interpret a written message or to consider the message incomprehensible within the total context of the error. For example, in the utterance “ not take this bus, we late for school”, it should be, “ if not take this bus, we lte for school”.

b. Local Error

A local error, on the other hand, is a linguistic error that makes a sentence appear ungrammatical or undiomatic. But, never the less causes a native speaker of English little or no difficulty in understanding the intended
meaning of a sentence given its contextual framework\textsuperscript{16}. For example, when one student could not say ‘matchmaker’, she used the phrase ‘person to arrange date for boys and girls’. Thus, the different between global error and local error. Global error is error that cause a listener to misunderstand a message or to consider an utterance incomprehensible, while local error is error that do not significantly hinder communication or understanding of an utterance or message.

G. Simple Present Tense.

Simple present tense can be divided into two words, they are simple and present. Where the writer explains that simple is unmixed, not divided into some of parts, without subordinate clause and present is now. In the term, present tense shows clearly that in English; tense is not the same as time. The present tense is not usually used to describe present time. Instead, it describes activities and states which are generally and universally true. The present tense is the tense for description, definition, and statements of general truth.

At the time present tense extends from the past time, through, the present into the future and durative verbs which show states through time, are verbs like want, live and be. Sometimes the present tense is also called the present habitual. It is used for repeated and habitual action.

\textsuperscript{16} James. Hendricson, \textit{Error Analysis and Selective Correction in the Adult}, ESI Classroom: An Experiment, p.3
According the grammarians, there are many terms that used to definitions of present tense, they are: First, the simple present tense is expressed daily habit or usual activities. The simple present tense expressed general statements of fact. In summary, the simple present tense used for events or situations that exist always, usually or habitually in the past, present, and future. Second, the simple present tense is used to describe general actions, events and states when we have no reason to think of them as being in any way temporary or limited in time.

There are two form of simple present tense. It is verbal sentence and nominal sentence.

1) Verbal sentence.

Verbal sentence in form of simple present tense used to:

- Express an action as a habit or done at a time.
  
  Example: I read newspaper every morning.

- Express general truth. It does not use adverb of time.
  
  Example: The sunrises in the east.

  The sky is blue.

The writer would like to put the formulas with the some of the examples to make the statement become clear. The writer only wants to

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explain about the simple present tense in verbal sentence, there three kinds of its formula, as below:

a. Affirmative sentence.
   Subject (I, you, w, they) + VI
   Subject (he, she, it) + VI+s/es.

Example of using the sentence above as follow:

1. I go to the mosque every day.
2. She visits her uncle twice a week.

There are some things that must be notice in using of this form, for subject “he, she, it”, it verb is change, based on certainly as below:

   Generally, its verb only added by “-s”, example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Works</th>
<th>Bekerja</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visit</td>
<td>Visits</td>
<td>Mengunjungi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write</td>
<td>Writes</td>
<td>Menulis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read</td>
<td>Reads</td>
<td>Membaca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speak</td>
<td>Speaks</td>
<td>Berbicara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk</td>
<td>Talks</td>
<td>Bercakap-cakap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eat</td>
<td>Eats</td>
<td>Makan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink</td>
<td>Drinks</td>
<td>Minum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1
Change of verb 1 for third person.
The verb that end by “-s, -sh, -ch, -x, or -o” added by “-es”, example:

**Table 2.2**

Change of verb 1 for third person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pass</th>
<th>Passes</th>
<th>Melewati</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cross</td>
<td>Crosses</td>
<td>Mengelembati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Push</td>
<td>Pushes</td>
<td>Mendorong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wash</td>
<td>Washes</td>
<td>Mencuci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teach</td>
<td>Teaches</td>
<td>Mengajar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watch</td>
<td>Watches</td>
<td>Menonton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fix</td>
<td>Fixes</td>
<td>Membetulkan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go</td>
<td>Goes</td>
<td>Pergi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>Does</td>
<td>Mengerjakan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The verb that end by “-y” which begin with consonant, so “-y” changed by “-i”, then added by “-es”, example:

**Table 2.3**

Change of verb 1 for third person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Studies</th>
<th>Belajar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apply</td>
<td>Applies</td>
<td>Menggunakan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cry</td>
<td>Cries</td>
<td>Menangis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fly</td>
<td>Flies</td>
<td>Terbang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reply</td>
<td>Replies</td>
<td>Menjawab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carry</td>
<td>Carries</td>
<td>Membawa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The verb that end by “-y” which begin with vowel. Only added “-s”, example:

Table 2.4
Change of verb 1 for third person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Say</th>
<th>Says</th>
<th>Berbicra</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buy</td>
<td>Buys</td>
<td>Membeli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play</td>
<td>Plays</td>
<td>Bermain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If it begins with auxiliary verb, so its verb does not add by “-es”or “-s”, example:

1. I can speak English well.
2. You must work again now.

b. Negative sentence.

Subject(I, you, we, they) +Do+not+VI
Subject (he, she, it) +Does +not +VI

Example of using the sentence above as follows:
1. I do not go to the mosque every day.

2. She does not visit her uncle twice a week.

c. Interrogative sentence.

Subject (I,you,we,they)+Do+not+S+VI

Subject (He,she,it) +Does+S+VI

Example of using the sentence above as follows:

1. Do I go to mosque every day?

2. Does she visit her uncle twice a week?

2) Nominal sentence.

a. Affirmative sentence.

Subject (I, you, we, they, he, she, it)

Subject+ to be (am/is/are)+non verb

b. Negative sentence.

Subject (I, we, they, he, she, it)

Subject + to be (am/is/are) not+ non verb

Example of using the sentence above as follows:

1. I am not teacher.

2. She is not angry.

c. Interrogative sentence.

Subject (I, we, you, they, she, he, it)

To be (am/is/are) +subject+ non verb ?

Example of using the sentence above as follows:
1. Am I a teacher?

2. Is she angry?