CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Definition of Error

As a process of learning a language, error is a common thing which learners do, particularly by second language learners. It is natural that they make error in learning a language that is significantly different from their first language. Moreover, learning foreign language especially English, learners certainly learn about new information outside their prior knowledge in their first language. Error is a students’ imperfection in learning language either spoken or written as a part of conversation and composition so as to occur deviations (Dulay, 1982).

From the statement above, it can be concluded that errors can happen in spoken and written language. Furthermore, it happens due to the second language learners’ lack of English ability. So, learners are still involving the knowledge of the first language rule system. To analyze the learners' errors, we need to compare between two crucial terms that confuse the learners that are "error" and "mistake".

Error and mistake are different things. Some experts have defined between “error” and “mistake”. According to Corder (1967), error is a systematic deviation of the learners from which we can reorganize the learners’ knowledge of the language. While Brown (2007) states that errors is an obvious deviation by native speaker show the competence levels of the learners. Moreover, Corder (1967) states that mistake has an unsystematic characteristic that indicates second language learners and native speakers’ performance error. Another similar definition about mistake is given by Brown (2007) who explains that mistake refers to imperfection of native speaker and second language learner in producing
speech due to the failure of knowing the system correctly, it is related to the learners’ performance errors.

From the above explanation, the writer can conclude that an error is 'lack of competence' and a mistake is ‘performance phenomena'. It means that errors are something that we cannot fix; it is something that we should study further in order to get better understanding, while mistake can be fixed as the knowledge that is already learned especially for second language learners. Therefore, it can be a good part of learning process that is essential to improve the students' understanding in learning the second language.

2.2 Source of Error

According to Brown (2007), source of errors are classified into four categories, as follows: (1) Interlingual transfer (2) Intralingual transfer (3) context of learning (4) communication strategies. The further explanation about kinds of source of errors as follows:

1. Interlingual transfer. It happens at the beginning stages in learning second language due to the interference from the first language or mother tongue. For instance, when English learner says “John married with Jean” instead of “John and Jean are married”.

2. Intralingual transfer. An error that extends beyond interlingual error while learning second language. Overgeneralization done by learners is the major problem, the interference of their native language to the target language influence in target language structure and learners’ knowledge

3. Context of learning. Teachers’ misleading explanation and wrong structure or even a pattern that memorizes without understanding contextually. For example, two vocabulary items presented contiguously such as “point at” and
"point out”. Both of them are simply contiguous during the presentation or the teacher makes a wrong definition and generalizes the grammar of those words.

4. Communication strategies. It relates to learning style due to the technique that learners’ used in developing the knowledge so as to occur errors in the way of expressing ideas.

2.3 Classification of Error

According to Dulay (1982), errors are classified into four categories, as follows: (1) Linguistic category taxonomy, (2) Surface strategy taxonomy, (3) Comparative taxonomy, (4) Communicative effect taxonomy. In this study, the researcher focused on error that is surface strategy taxonomy as follows:

2.3.1 Error Type Based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy

According to Dulay (1982), there are omission, misinformation, addition, and misordering error types in this taxonomy. They are:

a. Omission

Omission errors are omitted an particular item that must appear in a good sentence.

For example: Marry play basket ball now (incorrect)

Marry plays basket ball now (correct)

b. Addition

Addition errors are the opposite of omissions. They are characterized by the existence of an item that must not appear in a good sentence.

There are three types of addition, as follows:

1. Double marking
Errors that is used more than one items in a sentence. For example in the sentence “He doesn’t knows my name.”

2. Regularization

Errors in rule of linguistic items either main verb or class of noun. Mostly learners make errors in regular and irregular forms and constructions. For example in the word “eat” becomes “eated” not “ate” and “sheep” becomes “sheeps” not “sheep”, in plural.

3. Simple Addition

Simple addition errors are “garb bag” subcategory of addition. It does not categorize as a doble – marking or a regularization error. It categorizes as all addition errors.

c. Misinformation

Misinformation errors are the wrong form of morpheme or structure using in a sentence. In misinformation, the learner’s error supplies something, although it is incorrect. There are three types of misinformation, as follows:

1. Regularization

The incorrect used of units which is done by learners in applying regular forms for irregular. For example the word “runned” for “ran” and the word “gooses” for “geese.”

2. Archi – forms

Errors in the used of one member of a class of form to reflect others. For example, a learner may temporarily select just one of the
English demonstratives adjectives *this, that, these, those*. “that dog,”
“that dogs”

3. Alternating forms

The use of archi-forms often gives way to the apparently fairly free alternation of various members of a class with each other. For example in the use of demonstrative adjective “those dog,” and ”this cats”

d. Misordering

Misordering errors are the wrong placement of a morpheme or a group of morphemes in sentences which is not suitable with the rule. For example: “He is all the time late” that should be “He is late all the time.”

2.4 Error Analysis

Error cannot be separated from learners who learn English. Therefore, we need to do the analysis in order to reduce the errors that occur among language learners. Error analysis can be defined as an error study by doing observation, analysis, and classification to show something of system operating within learners (Brown, 2000). Furthermore, Richard and Schmidt (2002) define error analysis is a study focusing on analyzing the error made by the second language learners. Error analysis may be a way that is done in order to know and identify the causes of learners’ error.

It can be concluded that error analysis is very helpful to determine the aspect of language that should be comprehended more by the students. So, the information from the result of error analysis can be useful for improving the learning process in spoken and written language for the future, either for students or teachers.
2.5 Definition of Writing

According to Harmer (2004), writing is a medium that is used to present ideas into the various form of essay, letter, report, novels, list, and others. Moreover, Harmer (2004) adds that there are four main elements in writing. They are:

1. Planning

Some writers have planned what they are going to write in their list of words before writing or getting words in mind without writing down the words. At the same time, the writer has to realize three aspects in writing. They are:
   a. Purpose
   In this case, writers must have view in the future for what the purpose of this article for. So, the future reader gets some reflection what the text about.
   b. Readers / audience
   Then, something that should be realized by writers is readers/audiences. As it will influence the writing product in which life span is significantly involved in this area related to language use, either formal or informal, so as to have the right target reader.
   c. Content structure
   Text arrangement is what the writer usually does in this third aspect in order to make their article is easy to understand and give the information in sequence.

2. Drafting

Drafting is the process which is done before editing process. In this process, the writer is still able to develop their writing ideas. This process
usually consists of several pieces of papers. If it is done, the writer will go to the next step that is editing.

3. Editing (reflecting and revising)

Drafting and editing are different. If drafting is related to the ideas development, the editing process is related to the process that the writers arrange their writing with omitting unnecessary information and keeping the necessary information about the topic. Furthermore, editing process can be obtained by the readers’ help in giving opinion to their writing so as to use the reader’s suggestion as a consideration.

4. Final draft / version

This is the last process which the writer realizes ideas in final draft and the first draft is totally different due to ideas alteration in editing process. Nevertheless, in this process their writing product is ready to send to the readers.

After knowing about writing either its description or process, we can apply those process into a text. There are several types of text that are commonly known by learners, that are descriptive text, recount text, expository text, narrative text, etc. In this study, the writer will discuss one of the type of text that is descriptive text.

2.6 Definition of Descriptive text

Pardiyono (2007) states that descriptive paragraph is a paragraph which describes an object specifically so as to have an obvious and real reflection for readers directly through their imagination. From above explanation, it is clearly stated that descriptive text is a text used to describe things, people, place, etc. So,
readers feel that they are in that situation. To make a good paragraph, learners need to understand about grammar which is significantly involved in this issue.

2.7 Definition of Grammar

According to Nunan (2005), grammar is combined units by following the rules in language so as to form sentences which is acceptable. Another definition of grammar comes from Richard, Platt, and Weber (2003, in Nunan, 2005) who define grammar as a combined units of words or phrases become structured sentences in language.

From those statements, it can be concluded that grammar deals with some rules in language such as word formation, sentence structure, etc. Every language has its own grammar. People are able to communicate using their language because they know the grammar system of their language that makes meaningful sentence in communication. As a branch of grammar, determiner has a crucial role in sentences.

2.8 Determiners

Determiners are words like the, a, my, this, some, and ect. Determiners come at the beginning of noun phrase, but they are not adjectives (Swan, 1996). There are several kinds of determiners such as articles, quantifiers, demonstratives, possessive pronouns and so on. All of them have their own functions in each sentence. In this study, the researcher focuses on two kinds of determiners that are articles and quantifiers that are explained in this study along with the use of it.

2.9 The Use of Determiner

2.9.1 Article

There are two kinds of article. They are:
1. **Indefinite Article**

    *A* and *an* have the same meaning. They are both articles. “*A* is used in front of words that begin with consonants. *An* is used in front of words that begin with *a*, *e*, *i*, and *o*, however, *an* is sometimes used in front of words that begin with *u*” (Azar, 1941: 2).

a. **The Use of Indefinite Articles**

According to Thomson and Marinet (1986) the use of indefinite articles, as follows:

1. *A* is used before a noun with a consonant sound.

   Examples: *A* cat
   *A* European
   *A* union
   *A* man

2. *An* is used before a noun with a vowel sound or one which starts with a silent “h”.

   Examples: *An* apple
   *An* hour
   *An* island
   *An* honest person

3. *A* and *An* are used in expression of speed, price, number, and ratio.

   Examples: She drove *a* car at forty kilometers an hour
   Eggs cost $1.20 a dozen
   She bought the material for $2 a meter
   She eats twice a day

4. We use *A* or *An* with countable nouns.

   Examples: *A* Balloon
   *An* apple
   *A* car
   *An* egg

5. Article *A* or *An* is used before the names of person that we do not know.
Example: He is going out for lunch with a Mr. Richard.

6. A and An is used with a noun complement. This includes names of professions:

Examples: She will be a dancer.

I am a teacher.

7. A is used in certain expression of quantity

Examples: a few a little

a dozen a couple

2. Definite Article

a. The use of Definite Articles

According to Thomson and Marinet (1986) the use of definite articles as follows:

1. The is used before an object or a person of which there is only one. This includes the name of seas, rivers, groups of islands, regions, mountain ranges, and certain countries,

Examples: The Atlantic

The Sahara

Look at the Fiji Island in the Pasific Ocean

2. The is also used before superlatives

Examples: The most The cutest

The greatest The biggest

3. The is also refers to a class of people or objects

Examples: The crab belongs to a group of animal called “crustaceans”

4. We use the when we speak about something a second time

Example: - His car struck a tree, you can still see the mark on the tree.
- His bicycle had a puncture. He pushed the bicycle to a shop to have the puncture repaired

5. Before a noun made definite by addition of a phrase or clause

Examples: - The boy that I met
- The girl in blue

6. *The* can be used before a member of a certain group of people

Examples: The small shopkeeper is finding life increasingly difficult

7. *The* is also used before names consisting of noun + of + noun

Example: The United States of America

2.9.2 Quantifier

Quantifiers are the words which quantify (provide quantity information about) the noun that follows them (Veit, 1986). There are eight kinds of quantifier that are discussed in this study. They are some, any, much, many, a lot of, plenty of, a few, and a little. Thomson and Marinet (1986) describe the use of quantifiers as follows:

1. Some
   a. *Some* is used with affirmative verbs

Example: They brought some money.

b. *Some* is used with plural, uncountable nouns

Example: There are some eggs in the fridge.

My mom spills some sugar out unintentionally.

c. *Some* is used in offers and requests

Example: Would you like some salt for the soup?

Could you cook some food for kids?

2. A few
a. *A few* is used before plural nouns

Example: A few eggs are broken after the bike crashed the tree.

b. *A few* can be used as pronouns, either alone or with *of*

Example: A few of students are absent.

3. A little

a. *A little* is used before uncountable nouns

Example: Take me a little sugar, please!

b. We can also use *A little* with:

1. Verbs

Example: It rained a little during the night

They grumbled a little about having to wait.

2. ‘unfavourable’ adjectives and adverbs

Example: A little anxious, a little unwillingly

A little annoyed, a little impatiently

4. A lot of

a. We use *a lot of* to suggest a large quantity.

Example: A lot of soft drinks contain sugar substitutes

b. We use *a lot of* with countable noun

Example: My mom buys a lot of apples

c. We use *a lot of* with uncountable noun

Example: My little sister spills a lot of rice out in the kitchen

5. Plenty of

a. We use *plenty of* with uncountable

Example: She has plenty of money to buy dresses
b. We use plenty of with countable noun
   Example: There are plenty of eggs in the market.

6. Any
   a. Any is used after negative forms of the verb to indicate the non-existence of something (quantity is unimportant)
      Example: I don’t want to receive any calls.
   b. Any is used with hardly, barely, scarcely, (which are almost negatives)
      Example: I have hardly any spare time.
   c. Any is used with without when without any ... = with no ....
      Example: The president left the room without any excuses (with no excuses).
   d. We can use no instead of ... any.
      Example: He has no interest in education (He doesn’t have any interest in Education).
   e. Any is used in questions to ask about the existence of something (quantity is unimportant)
      Example: Do you have any questions?

7. Much
   a. Much is used before uncountable nouns
      Example: We haven’t much coffee.
   b. Much is used to suggest a large quantity.
      Example: Do you need much space?
   c. Much is used with negative verbs
      Example: I haven’t got much time.
d. *Much* can be used with the participles *admired, amused, disliked, distressed, impressed, liked, shocked, struck, upset*, with or without *very*.

Example: He was (very) much admired.

She was (very) much impressed by their good manners.

8. Many

a. *Many* is used before countable (plural) noun

Example: I made many friends.

b. *Many* is used to suggest a large quantity.

Example: I have lived here for many years.

c. *Many* is used in questions and negative form of verbs

Example: Do you have many things still to do?

He hasn’t won many races

d. *Many* can be used in noun phrases that are the subject of an affirmative clause.

Example: Many people arrived early.

e. We can also use *many* in a noun phrase which is the object or complement of an affirmative clause, particularly in formal and written English.

Example: She felt many emotions. \(\rightarrow\) complement

People raised many doubts. \(\rightarrow\) object