CHAPTER II
FRAME OF THEORIES

In order to a have strong base in conducting the research, this chapter reviews the following points, i.e. concept of error, concept of error analysis, types of error, types of error based on surface strategy taxonomy, types of error based on communicative effect taxonomy, and concept of conjunction, concept of correlative conjunction, and steps in error analysis.

2.1 Concept of Error

Error is different from mistake. Error is a systematic deviation of learners' linguistic system at a given stage of learning. In contrast, mistake is not systematic and readily corrected by learners. Brown (1980: 165) states that error and mistake are technically two different phenomena. Mistake refers to a performance error that is a random guess or slip, in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. While error is not a noticeable deviation of adult grammar of native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learners.

In line with the statement above, Corder (1967) states mistake is a deviation due to performance factor such as memory limitation (for example, mistake in making in sequence of tenses and agreement in long sentences}, spelling, pronunciation, fatigue, emotional strain, etc. It is typically random and readily corrected by the learners when their attentions are drawn to them. Error, by contrast, is a systematic, consistent deviance of the learners' linguistic system at given stage of learning.

Furthermore, error can occur on both speech and writing which is a condition of being wrong in opinion or belief but it is a common thing to do since it is a part of language learning.

Dulay et al., (1982:138) state that error is a flawed side of learner speech or writing. It is a part of conversation or composition that deviates from some selected norms of a mature language performance. People cannot learn any language without making errors first.

Essentially, error can be classified into three categories. The three categories are pre-systematic error, post-systematic error, and systematic error. Corder (1973) defines pre-systematic error as an error that is committed by the learners when they are trying to come to grips with a new point, post-systematic error as an error that occurs when the learners forget points that have been previously understood, and systematic error as an error which occurs when the learners have formed inaccurate hypothesis about the target language.

It is normal if learners commit errors in learning English. Then, it is expected that English teachers can enhance the learners' knowledge in order to avoid committing errors. Richard (1980: 15) states mistakes are of no significance to the process of learning. Meanwhile errors are the result of being lack of knowledge about the rules of the language that the learners learn which represent the indication of a traditional competence. In accordance with the statement above, Bell (1981) states that errors are sure signs that the learners have not mastered the target language.

From the concepts above, it can be concluded that the deference between error and mistake is that error is an ungrammatical utterance which refers to language competence (refers to the implicit knowledge of the language) that is made when learners are lack of knowledge of the rules of a language that is used. While mistake is an imperfectness of utterance which refers to the actual use of a language in certain situation (refers to the language performance) that is readily corrected by the learners when their attentions are drawn to them.

In this research, error and mistake were not differentiated. To follow the definition proposed, any forms of deviation or immature language use of correlative conjunction made by the

students in their sentences were analyzed through surface strategy taxonomy and communicative effect taxonomy by Dulay et.al (1982). The errors made by the students were also put in percentage.

2.2 Concept of Error Analysis

Error analysis is a technique to analyze and classify errors that are committed by learners. Brown (1980) states that error analysis is the fact that the learners do commit errors and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the errors led to a surge of the learners' errors, called error analysis.

Furthermore, it is important to discover whether or not certain learning materials have been mastered by learners. If the learning materials have not been mastered yet, it is then necessary to give the learners a remedial teaching. Corder (1981: 89) states analyzing learners' errors functions to investigate the language learning process and to show whether or not it is necessary for the teacher to have a remedial teaching.

In line with statement above, Dulay (1982: 138) states by studying learners' errors, data from which interferences about the nature of the language learning process, which part of the target language learners have most difficulty producing correctly, and which error types detract most from a learner's ability to communicate effectively can be provided, so that it is really helpful for teachers and curriculum developers.

In addition, there are some of benefits of analyzing students' errors. Corder (1981) states that there are three benefits of analyzing students' errors: (1) errors tell the teachers how far their students have progressed to reach the goal, (2) errors provides evidences of how language is learned and what strategies that learners are employing, (3) errors can be used for students to learn.

Sridhar (1978: 221) states that it is believed that identifying the area of difficulty the students face could help determining the sequence of presentation of target items in text book and classroom, the difficult items followed by the easier, the relative degree of emphasis explanation and practice required in putting across various items in the target language, devising remedial lessons and exercises, selecting items for testing the students' proficiency.

Besides giving benefits, analyzing students' errors also has certain purposes. Dullay (1982: 138) states there are two major purposes of analyzing students' errors: (1) it provides data from which inferences about the nature of the language learning process can be made; and (2) it indicates to teachers and curriculum developers which part of the target language students have most difficulty producing correctly and which errors types detract most from a student's ability to communicate effectively.

From the concept of error analysis above, it can be concluded that error analysis is really important for the success of language learning because through the error analysis, the learners' weaknesses in the target language can be seen, thus the teacher can strengthen parts in which the learners are still weak.

2.3 Types of Error

Errors can be classified into certain categories. Dulay et. al. (1982:146) classifies errors into four categories on descriptive classification of errors which are as follows:

a. Linguistic Category

This category deals with errors on the language components, such as phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), discourse (style), and the particular linguistic constituents of each language components that the error affects.

b. Surface Strategy

This category highlights the ways surface structures are altered in systematic and specific ways. Learners' errors in this type are based on some logic as the result of the learners' uses of interim principles to produce a new language. It includes some types of error, such as omission, additions (double marking, regularization, and simple addition), misformation (regularization errors, archi forms, and alternating forms), and misordering.

c. Comparative Taxonomy

The classification of errors in a comparative taxonomy is based on comparison between the structure of L2 errors and certain other types of constructions. This is used as a major predictor of learners' errors and knowledge of developmental processes in L2 acquisition. Three major categories used in comparative analysis taxonomies include developmental errors or errors similar to those made by children learning the target language as their first language, interlingual errors or errors similar to errors in a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner native language, and ambiguous errors or errors that could be classified equally as well as developmental or interlingual.

d. Communicative Effect

This category deals with errors from the perspective of their effects on the listener or reader. It focuses on distinguishing between errors that seem to cause miscommunication and those that do not. The errors here are categorized into two: local and global errors. Local errors are the errors that do not hinder communication significantly while global errors are errors that hinder communication significantly.

2.4 Types of Error Based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy

Dulay (1982:146) states that surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are altered: learners may omit necessary items or add unnecessary ones; they may misform items or misorder them. Errors based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy are classified into four types of error. They are:

a) Omission

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance, for example: *"Marry is English teacher"*. In this case, students omitted *"an"*. The sentence should be *"Marry is an English teacher"*. Here are further examples:

1. I want do it.

2. She go to school every morning.

3. Was a riot last night.

4. They too big for the pony.

5. I bought in London.

6. Sara goes to school every morning. Always comes at school earlier than me.

Example *1* is wrong because of omission of infinitive marker *to*. It should be written as *I want to do it*. Example *2* is wrong because of final missing *-es*. It should be written as *she goes to school every morning*. Example *3* is wrong because of subject missing *there*. It should be written as *there was a riot last night*. Example *4* is wrong because of predicate missing *be*. It should be written as *they are too big for the pony*. Example *5* is wrong because of object pronoun missing. It should be written as *I bought it in London*. Example *6* is wrong because of subject pronoun missing. It should be written as *Sara goes to school every morning. She always comes to school earlier than me*.

b) Additions

Addition errors are the opposite of omissions. They are characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. It is classified into Double marking, Regularization, and Simple Addition.

1. Double Marking

Double marking errors are two items rather than one are marked for the same feature. for examples:

1. He doesn't knows my name.

2. We didn't went there.

3. I'm is a doctor.

4. Are you are ok?

In example *1*, final *–s* should be removed. The sentence should be written as *he doesn't know my name*. In example *2*, verb 1: *go* should be used instead of using *went*. The sentence should be written as *we didn't go there*. In example *3*, to be: *is* should be removed. Pronoun *I* is followed by to be: *am*. It has been already there. The sentence should be written as *I'm a doctor*. In example *4*, predicate: *are* after pronoun: *you* should be removed because in interrogative form the predicate: *are* stands before pronoun. The sentence should be written as *are you ok?*.

2. Regularization

Regularization errors occur when learners apply the rules used to produce the regular ones to those that are irregular. Here are some examples of regularization in plural forms and in the form of verb 2:

1. sheeps

2. datums

3. eated

4. buyed

5. thinked

Example *1* and *2* are the examples of regularization in plural form. In example *1*, the plural form of *sheep* should be written as *sheep* and in example *2*, the plural of *datum* should be written as *data*.

Example *3, 4*, and 5 are the examples of regularization in form of verb 2. In example *3*, the verb 2 of *eat* should be written as *ate*. Whereas in example *4*, the verb 2 of *buy* should be written as *bought*, and in example *5*, the verb 2 of *think* should be written as *thought* because they are irregular verbs.

3. Simple Addition

Simple addition errors are the "grab bag" subcategory of additions. If an addition error is not a double marking nor a regularization, it is called a simple addition, for examples:

1. a this

2. in over here

3. by through this way

4. turn to right

5. more faster

In example *1*, article *a* should be removed in order to create a well-form sentence, for example: *this day I'll meet him*. In example *2*, preposition *in* is not needed. It should be removed. Here is the example of a sentence after the preposition is removed: *the plane fell over here*. In example *3*, either *by* or *through* should be removed. The two words have similar meaning, for example: *by this way, we will get there soon* or *through this way, we will get there soon*. in example *4*, it should be corrected as *turn right*. The word *to* is not

needed here. In example *5*, it should be corrected as *faster* because word with one syllable in degree comparison must be followed by final *–er*.

c) Misformation

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure. While in Omission errors the item is not supplied at all, in Misformation errors the learner supplies something, although it is incorrect, for examples:

1. hisself

2. theirself

3. childs

4. chicks

5. understandness

6. thinkness

In example *1*, the reflexive pronoun *hisself* should be written as *himself*, for example: *he looked at himself in the mirror*. In example *2*, the reflexive pronoun *theirself* should be written *themselves*, for example: *they blamed themselves for the failure*. In example *3* and *4*, the plural form of *chick* and *child* should be written as *chicken* and *children*, for examples: *I keep some chicken at home, children are playing in the garden*. In example *5* and *6*, the noun form of *understand* and *think* should be written as *understanding* and *thought*, for instances: *We must study hard to enhance our understanding in English., Their thoughts are so brilliant*.

d) Misordering

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or a group of morphemes in an utterance, for examples:

1. He is all the time late.

2. I don't know what is that.

3. Its is mean that we have to go there.

4. I can help you?

5. I only ate a plate of rice.

6. What is time it?

The order of example *1* should be made as *he is late all the time* in order for its meaning to be well-formed statement that the subject always comes late. In example *2*, the order of its should be made as *I don't know what that is*. The order of example *3* above is used to make an interrogative form. In example *3*, the correct order is *its mean is that we have to go there*. In example *4*, to form interrogative one, the auxiliary: *can* should stand before subject, for example: *can I help you?, what can I do for you?*. In example *5*, to state that *the plate of rice* is the only thing eaten, the order of the sentence should be made as *I ate only a plate of rice*. In example *6*, the order of the interrogative form should be made as *what time is it*?

2.5 Types of Errors Based on Communicative Effect Taxonomy

Based on its effect to the listener or reader, errors can be classified into two: those which cause miscommunication and those which do not. Dulay (1982: 198) states that research has shown that certain types of errors make a critical difference as to whether or not the listener or the reader comprehends the speaker's intended message. Errors that affect overall organization of sentence hinder successful communication, while errors that affect a single element of the sentence usually do not hinder communication.

Errors which affect overall organization and significantly hinder communication are called *global errors.* Burt and Kiparsky (1982: 191) state the most systematic global errors include wrong order of major constituents, missing or wrong or misplaced sentence connectors, missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rules to exceptions.

Here are the examples of the most systematic global errors above:

1. Wrong order of major constituents, for example: *English language use many people*. In order not to cause miscommunication, the sentence should be written as *English is used by a lot of people*.

2. Missing or wrong or misplaced sentence connectors, for example: *(1) not take this bus we late for school., (2) he will be rich until he marry*. In order not to cause miscommunication, those ones should be written as: *(1) if we don't take this bus, we will be late for school., (2) he will be rich when he gets married*.

3. Missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic, for example: *the student's proposal looked into the principal*. In order not to cause miscommunication, the sentence should be written as*: the student's proposal was looked into by the principal*.

4. Regularization of pervasive syntactic rules to exceptions, for example: *we amused that movie very much*. In order not to cause miscommunication, the sentence should be written as : *we were amused by that movie very much*.

In contrast to global errors, local errors are errors that affect single elements (constituents) in a sentence which do not usually hinder communication significantly. These include errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries and the formation of quantifiers, for example:

1. *He is policeman.*

2. *We are fell sleepy.*

3. *There are many childs in the garden.*

4. *Please give many sugar.*

5. *I have not car.*

6. *I really sad.*

Those are examples of errors which do not hinder communication significantly. What the speaker or the writer wants to say can still be understood by the listener or the reader. Those examples should have been written as: *(1) He is a policeman., (2) We feel sleepy., (3) There are many children in the garden., (4) please give much sugar., (5) I don't have any car., (6) I am really sad.*

2.6 Concept of Conjunction

Conjunction is word that joins words, phrases, or sentence. Parulis (2000: 103) states conjunctions can be classified into several types. Those are:

a. Coordinating Conjunction

Coordinating conjunctions, also called *coordinators*, are conjunctions which relate two or more words, clauses, or sentences that have the same syntactic form (rules in case of constructing sentence). Coordinating conjunctions are *for, and, nor, but, or, yet,* and *so.* Here are the examples of coordinating conjunctions:

*1. Sarah always keeps the light on, **for** she is afraid of sleeping in the dark.*

*2. My sister lives in Chicago, **and** my brother lives in Boston.*

*3. Anna doesn't enjoy learning English, **nor** does she enjoy football.*

*4. John enjoys learning English, **but** he doesn't enjoy playing football.*

*5. Jack enjoys learning English, **yet** he doesn't enjoy playing football.*

*6. Next month I will go to my hometown, **or** I may just stay in Madrid.*

*7. I have a dream to go abroad, **so** I have to study English.*

b. Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions, usually called *paired conjunctions*, are conjunctions in pair that harmonize two items (word, sentence, phrase, or clause). Correlative conjunctions are

both .... and, not only .... but also, either .... or, neither .... nor. Here are the examples of paired conjunctions:

*1. **Both** Leon **and** Krauser are the members of new generation club.*

*2. **Not only** my sister **but also** my brother are in London.*

*3. **Either** my sister **or** my brother is in London.*

*4. **Neither** my sister **nor** my brother are in London.*

c. Subordinating Conjunction

Subordinating conjunctions, also called subordinators, are conjunctions that introduce a sentence. It is used in adverb clause which cannot stand alone without the existence of another sentence. The kind of subordinating conjunctions are as follows:

1. Related to time : after, before, when, while, as, as soon as, since, until, by the time, once, whenever, every time, etc.

2. Related to cause and effect : because, because of, due to, now that, since, etc.

3. Related to contrast : even though, although, though, in contrast, on the other hand, etc.

4. Related to condition : if, unless, only if, whether or not, even if, in case, in the event that, etc.

Here are the examples of subordinating conjunctions:

*1. I went to school **after** I had breakfast.*

*2. He went to bed **because** he was sleepy.*

*3. **Even though** it was raining, he went to school.*

*4. You will pass the examination **only if** you study hard.*

2.7 Concept of Correlative Conjunction

Correlative conjunctions are conjunctions that must be placed in pair. Azar (1989: 291) states paired conjunctions are also called correlative conjunctions. It means the same grammatical form should follow each word of the pair, for examples:

1. *Both + noun + and + noun.*

2. *Not only + verb + but also + verb.*

3. *Either + noun + or + noun.*

4. *Neither + adjective + nor + adjective.*

Furthermore, Murphy (1985: 176) states paired conjunctions are used in the following rules:

a) *Both/ neither/ either* are used for two things, for examples:

   1. *Both my father and I went to London.*

   2. *Neither Marry nor Anna came to the party.*

   3. *Either a car or a motorcycle must be bought.*

b) *Both / neither/ either* are used with a noun, for examples:

   1. *Both restaurants are very good.*

   2. *Neither restaurant is expensive.*

   3. *We can go to either restaurant. I don't mind.*

c) When *both/ neither/ either + of* are used, *the/ these/ my/ your/ his/her/ its/ Tom's* are

   needed, for examples:

   1. *Both of these restaurants are very good.*

   2. *Neither of the restaurants we went were expensive.*

   3. *I haven't been to either of those restaurants.*

d) It is not obligatory to use *of* after *both*, for examples:

1. Both my parents were from Lampung.

2. Both these books are mine.

3. Both his cars were stolen.

e) *Both of/ neither of/ either of* can be used with *us/ you/ them*, for examples:

1. Both of us are football players.

2. Neither of them are at home.

3. Either of you will go to market.

f) *Both of* must be used before *us/ you/ them*, for examples:

1. Both of us were very tired.

2. Both of you must leave now.

3. Both of them have been at school.

g) After *neither of* a singular or plural verb is possible, for examples:

1. Neither of the children wants (or want) to go bed.

2. Neither of the football teams plays (or play) well.

3. Neither of the boys runs (or run) fast.

h) *Both/ neither/ either* can be used alone, for examples:

1. I couldn't decide which of the two shirts to buy. I like both.

2. "Is your friend British or American?" Neither. She is Australian.

3. "Do you want tea or coffee?" Either. I don't mind.

i) *Both/ neither/ either* can also be used in these following examples:

1. I was both tired and hungry when I arrived home.

2. She said she would contact me but she neither wrote nor phoned me.

3. Either you apologize or I'll never speak to you again.

2.8 Steps in Error Analysis

Steps in error analysis are steps used in analyzing students' errors. Corder (1973) states there are three successive steps in error analysis. The steps are:

a. *Recognition of errors*

To recognize an error one should first of all knows what is meant by the term error. According to Corder, errors can be divided into three. They are:

a. Pre systematic errors are those committed by the learner while he or she is trying to come to grips with a new point.

b. Post systematic errors occur when one temporarily forgets as point that has been previously understood.

c. Systematic errors are those which occur when the learner has formed inaccurate hypothesis about the target language (i.e. the language that he is learning).

b. *Description of errors*

In this step one tries to show how the learner has failed to realize the intended message. The researcher needs an extremely good insight into the learner's mind. Here the object of error analysis is to explain errors linguistically and psychologically in order to help the learner to learn.

Errors that occur should be looked for repeatedly so that researcher can observe the rule that the learner may be using and try to describe it. In this way, only systematic errors are taken into consideration.

c. *Explanation of error*

Explanation is still largely speculative because of our limited knowledge of the psychological and neurological process involved in language learning. The same error could be looked at from various points of view. For example. a learner's mother

tongue has only one way of referring to future time while the target language has three ways of referring to the same. Here the learner has problems and commits errors. In this case it is difficult to decide whether the error was caused by mother tongue interference. or because of the confusion of the rules of the target language.