

## **II. FRAME OF THEORIES**

This chapter discusses some important concepts related to frame of theories. The main points discussed here covers: teaching-learning English as a foreign language, concept of grammar, concept of passive voice in English, concept of error, error in relation to the study, classification of error, function of error analysis and steps or process of error analysis.

### **2.1 Teaching- Learning English as a Foreign Language**

For many years, English has been the most important foreign language in Indonesia, Which is taught from elementary school to university level. However, in senior high school, English is taught as a compulsory subject in which the government has changed the curriculum into Curriculum Based Competence 2004 to be KTSP in 2008. According to the Ministry of National Education (2003: 36):

“The competence-basing language curriculum is a systematic draft and strategy which builds the communicative competence or the competence of contextual. It means that it builds all the basis of competences themselves. They are like linguistic competences, social competence and strategies to make the benefit context.”

From the statement, it is clear that Curriculum Based Competence 2004-2009 tries to develop and achieve the communicative competence or discourse competence and has perspective that is comprehensive to the discourse. The learners must be able to master the four language skills; they are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. To support the four skills, they should also master English components such as: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.

Passive voice is one of the important English grammars that have to be mastered by the learners actively or passively. The learners should have capability of English grammar that they are able to speak and write grammatically. In real life communication with native or non-native speaker, making errors does not become a big problem, but for the learners who learn English in academic affairs, making errors will be very serious problem. Most students of senior high school are still lack of grammar understanding, especially in passive voice.

In this case, it appears that they still make errors in mastering the English grammar. This is why the role of teacher is very important to reduce or minimize errors and improve teaching materials. The teacher should have good preparations, techniques, and also how the teachers teach and treat or serve their students in the classroom, so that there is communication between students and teachers in teaching learning process.

## 2.2 Concept of Grammar

Grammar has an important role in learning English because it is one of language component in mastering a foreign language (in this case is English). Penny (1984:4) said "grammar is the way the language manipulates and combines words (orbits of words) in order to form longer unit of meaning". We do agree that grammar is necessarily needed to help the process of learning English as a foreign language quickly. Besides that, grammar is a monitor tool; this means that if the learners have difficulties in arranging a new language, the knowledge of grammar can be used to help.

We use our English grammar whenever we speak or write English or understand someone else's speech or writing. A grammar consists of principles or rules that allow us to create possible sentences. Actually every language has grammar or structure that is assumed to be norms of conventionally social correctness. Lado (1968: 221) explains that structure is a system of unit and pattern of a language. It means that each language has its own structure that can be used to build sentences. By knowing and mastering grammar, the learners can express their idea by constructing the sentences using right patterns.

There are some examples of grammatical rules in English:

1. *Agreement* – Agreement in a sentence refers to all of the parts of the sentence corroborating with each other. For example,  
*"John have two pieces of toast and I has three."*

This sentence contains error, because in English usage she/he/it uses *has*.

Therefore the correct sentence for this example is,

“John has two pieces of toast and I have three.” The subjects and verbs need to be in agreement.

2. *Tense* – Tense refers to time. Whatever time it is it should remain consistent throughout whole piece of writing. If it was last week you are talking about, stay there. There are three tenses in writing, past tense, present tense and future tense. Here is an example of writing with mixed tenses:

“Carrie wondered how she is going to finish in time, but Joe will help her.”

This sentence contains all three tenses, past in “wondered”, present in “is” and future in “will”. Pick a tense and stick to it! The sentence could read “Carry wonders how she will finish in time, but Joe will help.”

3. *Spelling* – One of the most important things in writing is spelling.
4. *Run-On Sentences* –Usually, a run-on sentence can be made into two or more sentences with a little punctuation and style. An example of a run-on sentence might be:  

“We walked over to the commissary to get something to eat but it was closed so we didn’t know what to do so we kept walking until we saw a restaurant and decided to go in and get something to eat but Andrew didn’t want to eat there so we kept going for another mile.”

This sentence could have gone on for another mile too! This sentence can be broken into smaller, more coherent parts like the followings:

“We walked over to get something to eat but Andrew didn’t want to eat there, so we kept going for another mile.”

5. *Punctuation* – The most important thing to learn is where to put commas. Commas are used to separate parts of sentences that stand alone.
6. *Usage* – If going to use a word, should know how to use it. Some writers think big words look impressive but actually the reverse is true if the word is used incorrectly.
7. *Capitalization* – Words at the beginning of sentences are not the only ones worthy of capital letters. Always capitalize proper names such as people and places. Titles of all kinds deserve capital letters and so do acronyms.
8. *Point of View* – The point of view refers to whoever is telling the story or “speaking.” When write a letter you are writing in “first person” which includes I, me, my, we and our. Second person writing occurs when we talk about you and yours and third person includes him, her, them and theirs.
9. *Sentence Fragments* – A sentence fragment is an incomplete sentence that does not include both noun and verb. An example of a sentence fragment might be, “Really dumb.” The sentences should reflect a complete thought unless make a writing dialog.

In this research, the writer focused on students' errors of passive voice in separate sentences based on surface strategy taxonomy and communicative effect taxonomy.

### **2.3 Concept of Translation**

Brislin (1976: 1) says that translation is the general term referring to the transfer of thought and ideas from one language (source of language) to other language (target language) whether the language is written or spoken. F. Garrow (1972: 27) support the statement above, he says that translation is changing a communication (a word, a phrase, and sentence) to other term, to another form (verbal or symbolic), or to other level abstraction (simpler or more complex). Referring to the explanation above, it can be concluded that translation is giving the meaning of something (spoken or written) in another language.

Concerning the description above, the researcher infers a conclusion that translation is the giving of the closest meaning or natural equivalent of the words, phrase and sentence of one language into another language (target language) whether in spoken or written form. For the purpose of research, the researcher intends to conduct a research about students' error in writing active and passive voice sentences through translation.

Translation can be regarded as one of the technique applied to present the material in the classroom. The translation technique belongs to the Grammar Translation Method. Grammar Translation Method belongs to traditional way of teaching

English. This technique considers that the main procedure of teaching is by translation.

Although it belongs to traditional way of teaching English, in fact it is still widely used by most English teacher in Indonesia to teach vocabulary. In this technique the students are supposed to be able to read a reading passage written in the target language, translate the target language into the students' native language and memorize its vocabulary without using in communication.

Edward Anthony (1972:12) states that the advantage of this technique is that the teacher does not need to master the material being taught and it can be used in a big class. Furthermore Notion (1983) adds that translation can be done quickly. The teacher has satisfied students spending too much time on important words. Wallace (1988: 47) adds that the result of translation technique was usually that the target language was very little used in foreign language lesson; most of the time was taken up with the mother tongue.

In according with the statement above, it is the fact that this technique is technique is still mostly used by teacher in teaching English included in teaching English at Elementary School, Junior High School, and Senior High School. The reason is in a sense related to the condition of the school, teachers' ability, time allocated, and the number of students in every classroom.

Translation is the traditional way of teaching English, but in fact, it is still widely used by most English teacher in Indonesia to teach vocabulary. By the translation technique, the students are to be able to read a reading passage written in the

target language, translate the target language into the students native language and memorize its.

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There are advantages and disadvantages of translation technique.

- The advantages of Translation Technique are:
  - It is easy to teach and administer.
  - It is easy to test and to control
  - The number of class periods may be as few or as many as administratively feasible.
  - Translation technique does not waste time for the students in learning vocabulary.
  - Translation can be done quickly in learning vocabulary
- The disadvantages of Translation Technique are:
  - This technique makes the students become the passive agent in teaching learning process.



- It does not motivate the students.
- It makes the students become bored in learning English.
- Translation can only be used in limited number in situations. It can be a useful practice activity (especially if the text is chosen for the linguistic features it contains).
- The teacher is required to have a high level of competence in the students' language. In addition, translation can only be used successfully in monolingual teaching situations.

## **2.4 Concept of Passive Voice in English**

We know that the passive voice is one of the important English grammars that have to be mastered by the learners actively or passively. The learners need to have high capability of English grammar in order that they are able to speak and write with correct grammar. Although the active construction is used more frequently in English than the passive voice, but there are certain situations when the passive seems to be more effective or appropriate, for example; When it is not so important who or what did the action, but the focus is the object of the sentence.

According to Murphy (1987:84) "In passive sentences we use the correct form of be (is/are/was/were/has been etc.) plus the pass participle". We may consider that using some parts of the verb to be and a past participle makes the passive voice. That is the reason why the past participle is generally given to us in the 'participle

part' of the verb. And the function is indicated by Azar (1989; 120) "In the passive, the object of an active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb".

Beside that, Thomson and Martinet (1983: 254) state that the passive of an active sentence is formed by putting the verb "to be into the same tense as the active verb and adding the past participle of the active verb, for example:

*Active* : *She puts the book on the table (Present Tense).*

*Passive* : *The book is put on the table.*

*Active* : *They built the museum in 1988.*

*Passive* : *The museum was built in 1988 (Past Tense).*

In these examples, the direct objects in the active construction become the object in the passive. In a passive sentence the agent or doer of the action is very often not mentioned, as mentioned in the above example. When the agent is mentioned it is used "by", for example:

*Active* : *Ardi writes a novel.*

*Passive* : *The novel is written by Ardi.*

*Active* : *They wash their clothes in the river.*

*Passive* : *Their clothes are washed by them in the river.*

**Note** : If agent/ doer is the personal pronoun subject it should be changed into personal pronoun object as mentioned in the second sentence, i.e., *they* becomes *them*.

The important things that should be considered in forming the passive sentence are:

- a. Passive sentence can only be formed from active sentence, which contains transitive verb (the verbs that can be followed by object) such as: clean, wash, buy, sell, etc. Example in the sentence: He cleans the house in the morning.
- b. An active sentence, which contains intransitive verb, cannot be changed into passive. For example, go, get, walk, sleep, etc.
- c. We may like to see a table of active tenses and their passive equivalents.

In active sentences, the thing doing the action is the subject of the sentence and the thing receiving the action is the object. And passive voice is used when the focus is on the action. It is not important or not known; however, who or what is performing the action.

There are some examples of active / passive sentences overview in different tenses:

#### - Simple Present

Active : Tom cleans the house.

Passive : The house is cleaned by Tom.

#### - Present Continuous

Active : Sarah is writing the letter.

Passive : The letter is being written by Sarah.

#### - Simple Past

Active : Andi repaired the car.

Passive : The car was repaired by Andi.

- Past Perfect

Active : Many tourists have visited that island.

Passive : That Island has been visited by many tourists.

- Simple future

Active : Rina is going to make a beautiful dinner tonight.

Passive : A beautiful dinner is going to be made by Rina tonight.

## 2.5 Concept of Error

Theoritically, mistake and error are different terms. Error is caused by the lack of knowledge of the language rules, while mistake is the result of imperfection in producing speech due to fatigue, inattention and slip factors. Therefore, if one person produces sentences incorrectly, and she or he does not know how to correct them, then he or she made errors, not mistake. Dulay et al (1982:139) points out that error is ungrammatical utterance, which refers to the language competence, whereas mistake is imperfectness on utterance, which refers to the language performance. Competence refers to the speaker-hearers' knowledge of his language, and performance refers to the actual use of language in concrete situation.

According to Brown (1980:165) in order to analyse learners' errors in a proper prospective, it is crucial to make distinction between error that is either random or a slip in that. It is failure to utilize a known system correctly, and an error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learners. In other words, Tarigan (1988:75) states

that error is caused by competence. This is because the learners have not comprehended the linguistic system used in the sentences. Furthermore, Richard et al. (1985:95) mention that errors in speech or in writing of the second language or foreign language learner is the use of linguistic item in a way with fluency or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or in complete learning.

In this case, they emphasize error as the unplausible utterances made by the second or foreign language learner but according to the native speaker of a certain language, especially in the use of linguistic item, the utterances are not right. On the other hand, Dulay, et al, (1982:139) states that the distinction between performance error (mistake) and competence error (error) is extremely important, but it is often difficult to determine the nature of a deviation from a selected norm of language performance, no matter what characteristics or causes of the deviation might be.

Furthermore, Brown (1980:142) states that error is noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner, while mistake refers to a performance. In addition, he also identifies that error is a result from the lack of knowledge of the rules of the language.

Therefore, when a person produces sentences incorrectly and he does not know how to correct them, he/she then, makes errors.

Dulay in Brown (1987: 170) uses the term “errors” to refer to any deviations from a selected norm of language performance, and matter what the characteristics or causes of the definitions might be. They also explain that the

norm used to identify the errors may be anyone of the dialect of other varieties of language the native speaker uses.

The terms errors, as noted by Dullay above is used for the systematic deviations due to the learners still developing knowledge of the target language rule, system or for idiosyncrasies in the inter language of the learner which are direct manifestations of system with which a learner is operating at the time.

In this research, the writer hold on the idea proposed by Dulay et al, as the basis of determining the deviations produced by the subjects. Thus, any deviation is considered as an error.

## **2.6 Errors in Relation to the Study**

Concerning about errors, Corder ( 1981:89) points out that the function of error analysis is to investigate the language learning process and to judge whether it is necessary or not for teachers to have remedial teaching. The result of error analysis can give benefits not only for teacher but also for students. For teacher, it can be used as information about students' progress in reaching the goal of learning and as consideration whether the teachers need to have remedial teaching or not. Whereas for students, it can be used as references to learn in language learning process.

Meanwhile Harimurti in Nurhadi (1984:229) states that error analysis is a technical way to measure the increase of the students learning by collecting data and classifying the errors made by the students. Jack Richard in Nurhadi

(1990:231) states that error analysis is an act to collect data identify, describe, and evaluate the errors made by the students based on the pattern of the target language practically and theoretically. Ellis (1986:296) defines errors analysis as a work procedure used for research or language techers, by describing, classifying and evaluating errors. Brown (1980:166) supports the idea by stating that error analysis is the fact that the learners make errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learners, led to a surge of study of learners' errors. In addition, most writers on error analysis divide the process of error analysis into five stages. They are: recognition, interpretation, reconstruction, classification and explanation.

Relating to the statements above, it can be said that error analysis is a technique of analyzing, classifying, and describing the noticeable errors made by the students in learning process. The result of error analysis can give input for the teacher as information about students' progress and as consideration whether remedial test is needed or not.

## **2.7 Classification of Error**

There are four kinds of descriptive taxonomies that are the most useful and commonly used ( Dulay et al, 1982:146). The four taxonomies are:

### **1. Linguistic Category Taxonomy**

Many error taxonomies have been based on the linguistic item which is affected by an error. These linguistic category taxonomies classify errors

according to either or both the language component or the particular linguistic constituent the error affects.

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. For example, within syntax one may ask whether the error is in the main or subordinate clause; and within a clause, which constituent is affected, e.g. the noun phrase, the auxiliary, the verb phrase, the preposition, the adverb, the adjective, and so forth.

## 2. Surface strategy Taxonomy

A 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.

## 3. Comparative Taxonomy

The classification of errors in a comparative taxonomy is based on *comparisons between the structure of L<sub>2</sub> errors and certain other types of construction*. For example, if one were to use a comparative taxonomy to classify the errors of a Korean student learning English, one might compare the structure of the student's errors to that of errors reported for children acquiring English as a first language.



#### 4. Communicative Effect Taxonomy

The communicative effect classification deals with errors from the perspective of their effect on the listener or reader. It focuses on distinguishing between errors that seem to cause miscommunication and those that don't.

In this research, the students' errors will classify based on the surface strategy taxonomy and communicative effect taxonomy. The writer investigates the students' grammatical errors, especially passive voice in separate sentences and from the fourth taxonomy, surface strategy taxonomy is suitable to classify the errors in grammar. With all consideration, the writer analyze the students errors in using passive voice in separate sentences using surface strategy taxonomy, and the influence of the errors in term of communication, whether the errors cause miscommunication or not by using communicative effect taxonomy.

### 2.8 Surface Strategy Taxonomy

This taxonomy focuses on aspects of the errors themselves and it emphasizes on analyzing the ways surface structure changed. Dulay et al, (1982:150) defines surface strategy taxonomy as a classification of language errors based on how the surface strucure are altered as follows :

#### 1. 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 ommision, some types of morphemes are omitted more

than others. Content morphemes carry the bulk of the referential meaning of a sentence: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs.

for example : “*I not angry with you*” ( be ‘*was*’ that should exist is omitted in this sentence). It should be written as “*I was not angry with you*”.

## 2. Addition

Addition errors are the opposite of omission. They are characterized by the *presence of an item that must not appear in a well formed utterance*. Addition errors usually occur in the later stages of L<sub>2</sub> acquisition, when the learner has already acquired some target language rules.

for example : “*My friend is borrowed my pen*” (‘*is*’ not appropriate to occur in this sentence because this sentence does not need ‘to be’). The correct construction is “*my friend borrowed my pen*”.

## 3. Misformation

Misformation errors are characterized by *the use of the wrong form of morphem or the structure*. While in omission errors the item is not supplied at all, in misformation errors the learner supplies something, although it is incorrect.

for example: “*Everyone were happy last night*” (‘*was*’ is more appropriate than ‘*were*’). It should be revised as “*Everyone was happy today*”.

## 4. Misordering

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

for example: “*I not would go to the party*” (the placement of ‘*not*’ and ‘*would*’ are wrong). It should be constructed as “*I would not go to the party*”.

## 2.9 Communicative Effect Taxonomy

Communicative Effect Taxonomy is one of descriptive taxonomies used to analyze errors of verbal performance. It deals with errors from the perspective of their effect on the listener or a reader. Communicative effect taxonomy focuses on distinguishing between errors that seem to cause miscommunication and those that do not (Dulay et al, 1982:189). It classifies error into two category: global errors and local errors.

### Global errors

Global errors are errors that affect overall sentence organization that significantly hinder communication. Because of the wide syntactic scope of such errors, Burt and Kiparsky labeled this category “global”.

The most systematic global errors include:

1. Wrong order of major constituent, e.g.

‘*Anny swept clearly the floor*’ the correct sentence is ‘*Anny swept the floor clearly*’

2. Missing, wrong, or misplaces sentence connector, e.g.

a. ‘*he looks for another job because he loves his work*’ the correct sentence is ‘*he looks for another job even though he loves his work*’

b. ‘*I go to her party, she invites me*’ (sentence connector ‘because’ is missing)

the correct sentence is '*I go to her party because she invites me*'

- c. '*because I have to finish my work soon, my time is limited*' (sentence connector 'because' is misplaced) the correct sentence is '*I have to finish my work soon because my time is limited*'

### 3. Missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rules. E.g:

*'the schedule of the test is changed lecturer'* ('by' is missing in passive sentence) the correct one is '*the schedule of the test is changed by the lecturer*'.

## Local Errors

Local errors are errors that affect single elements (constituents) in a sentence.

Usually they do not disturb communication significantly. The errors include errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries and the formation of quantifiers.

#### 1. error in noun and verb inflection, e.g :

*'the boy play football yesterday'*. ( inflection '*ed*' of verb '*play*' is omitted) the sentence should be '*the boy played football yesterday*'.

#### 2. error in article, e.g :

*'Reny was given a orange by her friend'* (article '*an*' should be used instead of *a* because the word '*orange*' begins with vowel letter). It should be '*Reny was given an orange by her friend*'

### 3. Error in Auxiliary, e.g :

*‘my little brother were happy in the party last night’* (the auxiliary *‘was’* should be used instead *‘are’*). The correct sentence *‘ my little brother was happy in the party last night’*.

### 4. Error in formation quantifier, e.g :

*‘ Every girl and boy student have the same ability in learning.’* (*‘every’* indicates singular nouns, although there are two or more nouns), so the correct sentence *‘ every girl and boy student has the same ability in learning’*.

## 2.10 Function of Error Analysis

The error analysis has two function, they are :

### 1. As theoretical function

To describe the learner’s knowledge of the target language at any particular moment in this learning career in order to relate this knowledge to the teaching he has given.

### 2. As practical function

To guide the remedial action we must correct unsatisfactory state of affairs for learner or teacher. Corder (1981:45) states that ‘the theoretical aspect of error analysis is part of methodology of investigating the language learning process’ whereas ‘the practical aspect of error analysis is its function in guiding the remedial action we must take to correct unsatisfactory state of affairs for learner or teachers.

From the statement above, the writer infers that the theoretical function of error analysis can be used as the way to investigate the teaching learning process.

Whereas, the practical function of the error analysis can be used as guidance for the teacher to do remedial action. Because error analysis will show which materials that have been already mastered by the students which one is not.

## **2.11 Steps or Process of Error Analysis**

Most writers on error analysis divide the process of error analysis into five stages.

They are: recognition, interpretation, reconstruction, classification and explanation.

### **2.11.1 Recognition**

- 1. What is an error? Problems of acceptability.** In many cases what is regarded as an error depends on what standard of performance is considered to be acceptable. This will obviously vary according to circumstances, and will take into account factors such as the standard being aimed at; the stage in the course; the age, ability, motivation, etc. Of the students; the amount of time available; and a realistic assessment of the possibilities of improving performance in that time.
- 2. Other problems of recognition.** Apart from questions of acceptability, recognising errors is not particularly difficult, and most teachers have a highly developed sense of error detection. There are, however, cases like the one discussed at the beginning of this section, where the error is only

apparent to someone who knows what the students ‘really means’. It is in the detection of these ‘covert’ errors that the teacher of a particular group of students often has a considerable advantage over the research worker working from samples collected from students he does not know.

The teacher often recognises errors because he knows that his students are prone to that particular mistake, so even when the context makes an alternative, ‘correct’ interpretation possible, the teacher who knows his group may suspect the worst.

### 2.11.2 Interpretation

As we have seen, interpretation is central to the whole process; because our interpretation of what we think the student meant may determine whether we recognise an error at all, and will certainly determine our reconstruction.

Clues to interpretation may be available from a combination of any of the following: (i) the general context, (ii) a knowledge of similar errors made by similar students, (iii) a knowledge of the students’ MT and the possible results of phonological interference or of direct translation into English, (iv) direct questioning, perhaps in the MT, as to what the student meant.

Thus I can interpret the seemingly incomprehensible sentence:

- *My teacher used to were sot pens*

(i) I know the general context. The student is describing his teacher, in particular his appearance and clothing, and I know what kind of clothes teachers wear in this country.

- (ii) I know that this group of students has difficulties with ‘used to’, ‘usually’, and ‘always’.
- (iii) I know that the spelling of ‘were’ and ‘where’ is often confused, and guess that perhaps ‘wear’ can be added to the list. I also know that the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular, present tense ‘s’ is frequently omitted.
- (iv) A knowledge of the phonology of the MT, of its actual effects on some words and of its likely effects on others tells me that there may be problems with the following pairs of sounds. I also know that in English /t/ and /d/ are frequently elided after /n/ in such words as *wants* and *hands* and that as a result students may not actually be aware of them in these words.

The sentence can now be interpreted and reconstructed as:

*My teacher usually (or always) wears short pants.*

### 2.11.3 Reconstruction

Many of the problems of reconstruction have already been discussed but I would like to highlight two points:

- (i) It is sometimes necessary to differentiate between (a) what a native speaker would have produced in the same context and (b) what the learner was trying to produce, i.e. the English forms he was aiming at but getting wrong. An obvious and simple illustration of this is the example discussed above, which I reconstructed as: ‘. . . usually wears short pants’. In fact, most British native speakers would probably not say ‘short pants’ but ‘shorts’. We therefore need to consider whether what the learner was aiming at was actually appropriate in the context.



In other words we must not be so preoccupied with matters of spelling, pronunciation and syntax that we forget to consider the possibility of wider ‘communicative’ error. This is particularly important for a teacher making suggestions for the correction of errors.

- (ii) The most obvious reconstruction to the teacher, especially the native-English-speaking teacher, is not necessarily the version at which the student was aiming. We are often tempted to assume that the best reconstruction is the one which involves the least alteration.

#### **2.11.4 Classification**

There are a great many ways in which errors can be assigned to classes and one should use whatever system or combination of systems is the most useful and enlightening according to the purposes of the analysis.

Obviously, the linguistic classification of an error will depend largely on how the stretch of language in which it occurs has already been interpreted and reconstructed. Some people seem to omit the stage of linguistic classification altogether and classify errors immediately in terms of their assumed causes, e.g. errors of hypercorrection, cross-association false analogy and so on. Yet in any analysis an explanation of causes of error is the most highly speculative part of the whole process and for most practical purposes, e.g. remedial teaching or syllabus planning, we certainly need a linguistic classification.

Superficially, errors can be classified as those of:

omission : e.g. \* Cow is a useful animal.

addition : e.g. \* She came on last Monday.

substitution : e.g. \* He was angry on me.

mis-oredring : e.g. \* He asked her what time was it

Obviously such a classification is far from sufficient; to start with we need to know *what* was omitted, added, etc. and later we will want to assign these items to more general classes: prepositions, tense forms, questions, etc.

But even this preliminary stage of classification is far from being as straightforward as it may at first appear. We must be constantly on our guard against assigning an error to the first, 'most obvious' category that springs to mind and leaving it at that. Further consideration will often reveal an alternative classification and in such cases the error will have to be placed tentatively in both categories until further evidence is available.

#### **2.11.5 Explanation of Error**

Explanation of the causes of errors has not been included in the section on the process of analysis. This is because it is not strictly speaking part of the *analysis* at all. Apart from problems of interpretation, the analysis of errors is basically an objective procedure involving classifying, counting and tabulating; explanation on the other hand is much more speculative. As long as we bear this in mind, however, and are prepared to consider alternative explanations, there is much to be gained from a consideration of the possible causes of error.

### 2.11.5.1 Interlingual of error

This is also known as MT or external interference, and language transfer.

On the face of it this would appear to be the most obvious cause of error and it was the belief that almost all errors had their origin in MT interference that gave rise to Contrastive Analysis (CA).

To understand some of the current attitudes towards error explanation we need to have a brief look at the history of CA.

In the late 1940s and early 50s CA was seen as the major contribution which the rapidly developing linguistic sciences could make to language teaching. Linguists could provide good structural descriptions of languages and these descriptions could be compared and contrasted. Such analyses were seen as the key to the new 'scientific' approach to language teaching.

It seemed reasonable to suppose that wherever the structures of the MT and target language differed there would be problems in learning and difficulty in performance, and that the greater the differences were, the greater the difficulties would be. Thus CA sets out to *predict* where errors are likely to occur and to indicate likely problem areas on which teaching should be focused.

Unfortunately, fascinating though CA is, its predictive powers are limited, as experience has proved that:

- (i) errors occur even where CA predicts that because of similarities between the languages there should be no difficulty; in fact, it is the partial similarities that often cause great difficulties.
- (ii) errors often do not occur where there are big differences between the languages, e.g. many learners have no difficulty in remembering to use a totally different word order; perhaps big differences are easier to remember.

#### **2.11.5.2 Intralingual causes of error**

Studies show that speakers of a wide variety of languages produce similar errors which reflect not the structure of the MT but faulty generalisations about the rules of the target language. Various labels are used for different types of intralingual (or 'internal') causes of error but the distinctions between the categories are by no means clear-cut and in many cases it is quite possible that the error is caused by a combination of factors.

#### **2.11.5.3 Other possible causes**

1. **Carelessness.** Several writers on EA point out that we should distinguish between errors and lapses. Errors result from the learner following rules which he believes, or at any rate hopes, are correct but which are actually wrong or inadequate in some way. The learner may find it difficult or impossible to correct an error of this type as he is following the only rule he knows.

Lapses ("careless" mistakes) result from failure to follow a known rule, usually because of haste and forgetfulness. Once his attention is drawn to the mistake the learner usually remembers the rule and corrects it.

## 2. Other errors ‘encouraged’ by teaching

a. *Hyper-correction*. This sometimes results from over-emphasis on items that CA indicates may present difficulty or EA indicates do present difficulty. This gives learners a false impression of the importance of such items and they are so worried about not using them correctly that they over-use them. Over-emphasis on 3rd person-s is a common cause of hyper-correction. Its use may get so intensively drilled that we panic the learners into using it inappropriately as in :

\*I lives in a small village.

\* She cans sings very well.

\*They likes to eat bananas.

b. *Faulty rules given by the teacher*. Teachers sometimes give students rules which are far from adequate and when students follow them they make errors similar to those caused by the over-generalisation of their own rules. Particularly common is the rule: ‘If the action is in the past, the verb must be in the past tense.’ This is obviously well intended, but it results in a form of hyper-correction and errors like:

\*Last night he wanted to played football but his father said he got to finished his homework

And

\*I saw him opened the window