

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of several literatures; Language Acquisition, Interlanguage, Language Interference, Errors, Categories of Errors, Contrastive Analysis, Error analysis, Stages in Error Analysis, and Review of Structures of Modification which will be explained below.

2.1 Language Acquisition

All children who are given a normal developmental environment acquire their native languages fluently and efficiently. They acquire them naturally without special instruction. Nativist theories hold that children are born with an innate propensity for language acquisition, and that this ability makes the task of learning a first language easier than it would otherwise be and its acquisition as a natural part of maturation. The child is seen as actively acquiring the language by working out the regularities in what is heard and then applying those regularities in what he/she says (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_acquisition).

Acquisition is a subconscious process that is identical to the process used in first language acquisition in all important ways (Krashen, 1985: 8). Language acquisition is very similar to the process children use in acquiring first and second languages. It requires meaningful interactions in the target language natural communication in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages, they are conveying and understanding (Krashen, 1981: 1).

Language acquisition is the process by which the language capability develops in a human. Our ability to use second languages comes mostly from what we have acquired, not from what we have learned. Because of that, acquisition now appears to play a far more central role than learning in second language performance.

2.2 Interlanguage

In the process of mastering a target language, second language learners develop a linguistic system that is self-contained and different from both the learner's first language and the target language (Nemser, 1971, in http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Interlanguage_fossilization). This linguistic system has been called interlanguage (Selinker, 1972, in http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Interlanguage_fossilization). According to him, Interlanguage refers to the systematic knowledge of a second language which is independent of both the learner's first language and the target language. Brown (1994: 203) referred to the separateness of a second language learner's system, a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and target languages.

From the statements above, it can be concluded that in interlanguage, the second language learners are forming their own self-contained linguistic systems. This is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the target language, but instead falls between the two. This system is based upon the best attempt of learners to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them.

2.3 Language Interference

It has been common in second language teaching to stress the role of interference that the interfering gives effects of the native language on the target (the second) language. It is also known as language transfer. Interference refers to the patterns of the learner's mother tongue get in the way of learning the patterns of the second language (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_transfer).

Language interference will result in correct language production called positive transfer when the prior knowledge benefits the learning task. It means that a previous item is correctly applied to present subject matter. Language Interference will not always result in correct language production but also it will result in incorrect language production called negative transfer. Negative transfer will occur when the previous performance disrupts the performance on a second task (Brown, 1994: 90). Ellis (1985: 22) stated that negative transfer occurs when speakers and writers transfer items and structures that are not the same in both languages. In second language acquisition, it works as follows: Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution on forms and meanings or their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture (Lado, 1957, in Freeman, 1997: 52-53).

In conclusion, language interference or language transfer is an important factor in language learning at all levels. The similarities between the first and second language facilitate rapid and easy learning, while the differences between the first and second language create learning difficulty which results in errors. It will be a basic concept, since many of the techniques used to teach second

language in a foreign language setting depend on translation from the mother tongue to the second language.

2.4 Errors

English may possibly have different system from our own language. Therefore, when English is administered to Indonesian learners, it may possible for them to have difficulties or problems during foreign language learning. The difficulties during language learning can cause errors.

Errors are branches of code meaning, they against the grammatical rule of the language and the result in unacceptable utterance (Corder, 1983:25, in Mardiyana, 2008: 6). Errors occur because the learners do not know the system of the target language learned. According to Ellis (1997: 17) error reflects gaps in learners' knowledge, they occur because the learners do not know what is correct. It means that error is part of learning process in which the target language learners do not know the grammatical rule of the target language.

Because of that, in this case, the errors made by the students should be accepted as natural process of target language learning. As supported by Hendrickson (1983:3) to support this statement by saying that foreign language teacher should accept that these natural process as a natural phenomenon integral to the process of second language or foreign language learning.

2.4.1 Mistakes and Errors

It is important to recognize the differences between mistakes and errors since there are many people who are still considering that mistakes and errors are the same things. There are some distinctions between mistakes and errors as stated

below.

Corder (1967, in Freeman, 1997: 59) in his paper made a distinction between a mistake and an error. A mistake is a random performance slip caused by fatigue, excitement, etc., and therefore can be readily self-corrected. Whereas, an error is a systematic deviation made by learners who have not yet mastered the rules of the target language and a learner can not self-correct an error because it is a product reflective of his or her current stage of target language development or underlying competence. Brown (1994: 205) stated that a mistake refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a “slip”. It is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. An error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner.

From the two distinctions above, it can be concluded that a learner makes a mistake because he/she does not apply the rule that he actually knows, in other words, a mistake is a non-systematic deviation from the norms of the language. It does not happen repeatedly. A learner makes an error because he/she has not yet mastered the rules of the target language and consistently gets it wrong. An error is a systematic deviation from the norms of the language. It means that it happens repeatedly. In this study, the writer tried to analyze the structures of modification's errors made by the 8th grade students of SMPN 4 Gresik.

2.4.2 Sources of Errors

Errors can not be resulted by themselves without any sources and causes. There are some sources of errors in learning second language acquisition.

In 1972, Selinker (in AbiSamra, 2003: 6) reported five sources of errors. They are language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of second language communication, and overgeneralization of target language linguistic material.

In 1974, Corder (in AbiSamra, 2003:7) identified three sources of errors. They are language transfer, overgeneralization or analogy, and methods or materials used in the teaching (teaching-induced error).

According to James (1998, in Sattayatham and Honsa, 2007:3), there are four causes of errors. They are interlingual errors, intralingual errors, communication strategy-based errors, and induced errors.

2.5 Types of Errors

There are various types of errors classification made by language learners. They are linguistic category, surface strategy taxonomy, and errors according to its causes.

According to Dulay (1982, in Rumiayati, 2005: 9), errors based on linguistic category are classified according to the language components. It includes phonology, syntax and morphology, semantic, and lexicon and discourse.

Surface strategy taxonomy emphasis on the way surface structures are altered. Errors can occur because of change in surface structures in specific and systematic ways (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 150). There are four ways in which learners modify target forms in specific and systematic ways. They are:

1. omission is ungrammatical while ellipsis and zero elements are followed by the

grammar.

E.g. : He * hungry.

2. addition is the result of all-too faithful use of certain rules.

- Regularization is overlooking exceptions and spreading rules to domains where they do not apply.

E.g. : I buyed a book yesterday.

- Irregularization is a productive process such as affixation is not applied, but instead the form is wrongly assumed to be an exception to the general rule.

E.g. : *dove for preterit form dived.

- Double marking is failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic constructions but not in others.

E.g. : He doesn't knows me

She can swims in the river

3. misformation is use two wrong form of a structure or morpheme.

E.g. : He hurt* himself.

Mary always go* to school with her sister.

4. misordering is to arrange the right forms in the wrong order.

E.g. : Tell me where did you go

He everytime comes late home

The words little.

Richards (1974, in Sattayatham and Honsa, 2007: 3) classifies errors according to their causes into two categories. They are:

1. Interlingual errors (mother tongue influence) are influenced by the native

languages which interfere with target language learning. Learners translate word by word idiomatic expressions, vocabulary and even the grammatical rules of the learners' first language into the second language.

2. Intralingual & Developmental Errors are caused by the target language (TL) itself. These errors occur during the learning process of the second language at a stage when they have not really acquired the knowledge. In addition, the errors are also caused by the difficulty or the problem of language itself.

According to Richards (1984, in Sattayatham and Honsa, 2007: 3), there are error types of intralingual & developmental errors. They are:

1. Overgeneralization is the use of previously available strategies in new situation, e.g. She can swims.
2. Ignorance of rule restrictions is to ignore the limitation of existing structures, e.g. I can to cook.
3. Incomplete application of rules is the omission of certain element such as auxiliary verb, modal, etc. or inversion is forgotten, e.g. I not play football.
4. False concepts hypothesized is the error that comes from the incorrect or incomplete understanding of rules, e.g. She always talk aloud.

In this study, the writer used surface strategy taxonomy; omission, addition and misordering, to classify structures of modification's errors made by the 8th grade students of SMPN 4 Gresik. It is because misordering can reflect to the structures of modification's errors.

2.6 Contrastive Analysis

Errors were largely the result of interference. In the belief that interference

could be predicted by identifying those areas of the target language that were different from the learners' native language and the comparisons of the two languages were carried out using contrastive analysis (Ellis, 1997: 52). Contrastive Analysis is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two-valued typologies (a contrastive analysis is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared (James, 1980: 3). In short, contrastive analysis is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identify their structural differences and similarities.

Contrastive analysis was used extensively in the field of second language acquisition as a method of explaining why some features of a target language were more difficult to acquire than others. The resulting list of differences was used to make decisions about the content of teaching analysis.

Recent studies have revealed that contrastive analysis is most predictive at the level of phonology and least predictive at the syntactic level (Richards, 1974: 172, in Ubol, 1981: 4). And also, contrastive analysis can only point toward a potential learning problem and it can not tell us the intensity of this difficulty or the size of the problem (Banathy and Madarasz, 1969, in Ubol, 1981: 5).

Because of the statements above, this study used error analysis to find out the structures of modification's errors and did not use the contrastive analysis.

2.7 Error Analysis

Error analysis was an alternative to contrastive analysis. Error analysis showed that contrastive analysis was unable to predict a great majority of errors,

although it is more valuable aspects have been incorporated into the study of language transfer. Banathy and Madarasz (1969, in Ubol, 1981: 5) stated that contrastive analysis; no matter how refined; can only point toward a potential learning problem, whereas error analysis can tell us the intensity of this difficulty or the size of the problem.

Error analysis is an activity to reveal errors founds in writing and speaking. It can deal effectively only with learner production (speaking and writing) and not with learner reception (listening and reading). Richard (1985, in Mardiyana, 2008: 11) stated that error analysis is the study of errors made by the second and foreign language learners. Errors analysis may be carried out in order to find out how well someone knows a language, find out how a person learns a language, and obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. Brown (1994: 206) defined error analysis as the process to observe, analyze, and classify the deviation of the rules of second language and then to reveal the systems operated by learner.

Based on the definitions above, it can be concluded that errors analysis is an activity to identify, classify and interpret or describe the errors made by someone in speaking or in writing and it is carried out to obtain information on common difficulties faced by someone in speaking or writing English sentences. In this study, errors analysis is an activity to identify, classify and interpret or describe the structures of modification's errors made by the students.

2.8 Stages in Error Analysis

There are several processes in leading error analysis that has been mentioned by some experts. According to McKeating (1981: 226, in Mardiyana, 2008: 12-13) divides the process in analyzing error into five stages below:

2.8.1 Recognition

It involves recognition of what an error is. In certain cases, what is regarded as an error depends on what standard of performance is considered to be accepted. Different subject area will create different standard of what is regarded as an error.

2.8.2 Interpretation

It is considered as central of the whole process in analyzing error, because the teacher's interpretation of errors committed by the students. When they produce a sentence for example, it may determine whether the term is recognizing as an error or not.

2.8.3 Reconstruction

This stage is important in order to know whether or not what the students mean in their sentences is actually appropriate with the context.

2.8.4 Classification

In this stage, errors that have been found can be classified into several parts or types based on the analysis of error talked about.

2.8.5 Explanation

In this last stage, it can be mentioned that explanation of what kinds of errors has been found, how is the frequency of the occurrences, or other things that are related to the finding of errors.

2.9 Review of English Structures of Modification

Lexical words that belong to the four parts of speech may be combined with one another to make larger structures. Furthermore, by a consideration of the structures themselves, there are four principal groups of syntactic structures divided on the basis of their structural meaning. According to Francis (1958: 292), they are structures of modification, structures of predication, structures of complementation, and structures of coordination. Of the four types of syntactic structures, the study is focused on structures of modification.

Structures of modification are structures consisting of two immediate constituents, a head and a modifier, which are indicated by patterns of word order and prosody. The two components of a structure of modification are a head and a modifier, whose meaning serves to broaden quality, select, change, describe, or in some other way affect the meaning of the head (Francis, 1958: 297). A modifier is a constituent that restricts the possible range of reference of some other constituent, the head (Brown, Keith and Jim, 1991, in Sanyoto, 2006: 7). The head is the nuclear component. Both the head and the modifier are immediate constituents of a structure of modification which may themselves be structures of more or less complexity.

Furthermore, according to Francis, there are various kinds of head and modifier to construct a structure of modification. The head of a structure of modification may be any of the four parts of speech (noun, verb, adjective, and adverb) and certain function words or any of the four structures. The modifier of a structure of modification may be any of the four parts of speech, a prepositional

phrase, function word or various other structures, included clause (Francis, 1958: 326-327). The main theory of this study is the theory of the modification by Nelson Francis. The writer limited the modifier on the phrase level.

2.9.1 Noun as Head

2.9.1.1 Noun as noun-modifiers

In this type, noun is the head that is modified by a noun. The modifier comes before the head. Both of the modifier and the head are nouns. There are two structures of nouns as the modifiers (Francis, 1958: 325). For examples: child's play, bamboo fence, and The Mount Bromo.

2.9.1.2 Verb as noun-modifiers

In this type, noun is the head that is modified by a verb. The modifiers may precede or follow the heads, the nouns. There are three forms of verbs. They are past participle inflection and the infinitive-marker to (Francis, 1958: 302). For examples: fried chicken, and money to buy.

2.9.1.3 Adjective as noun-modifiers

In this type, noun is the head that is modified by an adjective. When an adjective is the modifier of a noun, its position is almost always directly before the noun-between the noun determiner, if there is one, and the noun (Francis, 1958: 318). For examples: gloomy room, hungry children, etc.

2.9.1.3 Adverb as noun-modifiers

In this type, noun is the head that is modified by an adverb. The modifier comes after the head (Francis, 1958: 304). For examples: the discussion yesterday, the students there, etc.

2.9.1.4 Prepositional Phrase as noun-modifiers

In this type, noun is the head that is modified by a prepositional phrase. The modifier comes after the head (Francis, 1958: 310). For example: story about a princess.

2.9.1.5 Function Word as noun-modifiers

In this type, noun is the head that is modified by a function word. The modifiers, function words, precede the heads, the noun. Function words are words that have little or no lexical meaning of their own (Francis, 1958: 231). For example: the book.

2.9.2 Verb as Head

2.9.2.1 Noun as verb-modifiers

In this type, verb is the head that is modified by a noun. Certain nouns may function as modifiers of verbs. The nouns follow the verbs (Francis, 1958: 317). For examples: lived a year, costs 5000 rupiah, etc.

2.9.2.2 Verb as verb-modifiers

In this type, verb is the head that is modified by a verb. Verbs as modifiers are after the heads, the other verbs. The modifying verbs can be present participle formulation and the infinitive (to + base form) (Francis, 1958: 318). For examples: (The children) came running, (Dave) came to see, etc.

2.9.2.3 Adjective as verb-modifiers

In this type, verb is the head that is modified by an adjective. The modifiers follow the verb (Francis, 1958: 318). For examples: ran wild, came true, etc.

2.9.2.4 Adverb as verb-modifiers

In this type, verb is the head that is modified by an adverb. The modifiers follow the verb Adverbs function as modifiers of verbs. The possible positions of the modifier, and the heads are before the verbs and after the verbs (Francis, 1958: 314). For examples: successfully tried, work hard, etc.

2.9.2.5 Prepositional Phrase as verb-modifiers

In this type, verb is the head that is modified by a prepositional phrase. The modifiers follow the head (Francis, 1958: 319). For example: live without friends.

2.9.3 Adjective as Head

2.9.3.1 Noun as adjective-modifiers

In this type, adjective is the head that is modified by a noun. The modifiers precede the heads (Francis, 1958: 321). For examples: sky blue, sea green, etc.

2.9.3.2 Verb as adjective-modifiers

In this type, adjective is the head that is modified by a verb. A few verbs may function as adjective modifiers. The verbs are either in present participle inflection which precede the adjective as head or in the infinitive form which follows the adjective-head (Francis, 1958: 321). For examples: freezing cold, easy to know, etc.

2.9.3.3 Adjective as adjective-modifiers

In this type, adjective is the head that is modified by an adjective. The modifiers and the heads are adjectives. The modifiers are before the adjectives, the heads (Francis, 1958: 322). For examples: dark blue, light green, etc.

2.9.3.4 Adverb as adjective-modifiers

In this type, adjective is the head that is modified by an adverb. The most frequent modifiers of adjectives are adverbs. They come immediately before the adjectives (Francis, 1958: 322). For example: (a) really popular (sport).

2.9.3.5 Prepositional Phrase as adjective-modifiers

In this type, adjective is the head that is modified by a prepositional phrase. The modifiers follow the adjective-head (Francis, 1958: 322). For examples: green as grass, bad for our health, etc.

2.9.3.6 Function Word as adjective-modifiers

In this type, adjective is the head that is modified by a function word. They are qualifiers. They are the most common adjective modifiers. They can be very, rather, and quite. They are usually before the adjectives (Francis, 1958: 322). For examples: veary easy, rather expensive, etc.

2.9.4 Adverb as Head

2.9.4.1 Noun as adverb-modifiers

In this type, adverb is the head that is modified by a noun. The head is the adverbs. They are modified by nouns. The nouns precede the adverbs (Francis, 1958: 323). For example: two miles away.

2.9.4.2 Adverb as adverb-modifiers

In this type, adverb is the head that is modified by an adverb. Adverbs modify adverbs as head. The modifiers are before the heads (Francis, 1958: 323). For example: always diligently.

2.9.4.3 Prepositional Phrase as adverb-modifiers

In this type, adverb is the head that is modified by a prepositional phrase. The modifiers follow the adverb-head (Francis, 1958: 323). For example: outside in the cold.

2.9.4.4 Function Word as adverb-modifiers

In this type, adverb is the head that is modified by a function word. Adverbs as head are modified by function words. The function words are usually before the adverbs (Francis, 1958: 323). For example: very easily.

2.9.5 Functional words as Head

2.9.5.1 Noun as function word-modifiers

In this type, function word is the head that is modified by a noun. Nouns modify function words. They precede the heads. For example: a mile off base.

2.9.5.2 Adverb as function word-modifiers

In this type, function word is the head that is modified by an adverb. Adverbs modify function words. Adverbs are before the function words (Francis, 1958: 323). For example: soon after (dark).

2.9.5.3 Prepositional Phrase as function word-modifiers

In this type, function word is the head that is modified by a prepositional phrase. The function words-head precede the prepositional phrase, the modifier (Francis, 1958: 324). For example: enough for today.

2.9.5.4 Function Word as function word-modifiers

In this type, function word is the head that is modified by a function word. The modifiers precede the heads (Francis, 1958: 324). For example: very much.