CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of several literatures; language acquisition, categories of errors, contrastive analysis, error analysis, stages in error analysis, and review of structures of complementation which will be explained below.

2.1. Language acquisition

All the children who have a normal development environment acquire their native language fluently and efficiently, they acquire them naturally without special instruction.

According to Krashen (1988:1), acquisition 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. Language acquisition is the process by which the language capability develops in a human.

Acquisition is a subconscious process that is identical to process used in first language acquisition in all important ways (Krashen, 1985:8). Our ability to use second languages comes mostly what we have acquired, not from what we have learned. Acquisition now appears to play a far more central role than learning in second language performance.

2.2. Errors

As stated by Mc. Keating (1981:212) that learning a new language is such as a complex process involves errors, errors are systematically made; it is due to the learners still developing the knowledge of the target language rule system. It shows that learning target language. Students may face many problems or difficulties during learning process. English may possibly have different system from our own language (Indonesian language). So, it may possible for them to have difficulties or problems during foreign language learning.

According to Ellis (1997:17) errors 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. For the student to make errors is the natural process of target language learning.

There are has a different between mistakes and errors, it's important to recognize the different between mistakes and errors. Because there are still many people who are still considering that mistakes and errors are the same things. According to Brown (1994:205) stated that a mistake refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or "slip". It is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. An error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of native speaker, reflecting the inter language competence of the learner. Freeman (1997:59) a mistake is a random performance slip caused by fatigue, excitement, etc., and therefore can be readily self corrected. Whereas, an error is systematic deviation made by learners who have not yet mastered the rules of the target

language and learner cannot self-correct an error because it is a product reflective of his or her current stage of target language development or underlying competence.

It can concluded that a mistake is a non-systematic deviation from the norm of the language and its does not happen repeatedly. And error is systematic deviation from the norms of the language and it's happen repeatedly. In this study, the writer tried to analyze the students' errors in using structures of complementation.

Errors cannot be resulted by themselves without any source and causes. They are some sources of errors in learning second language acquisition. According to Selinker (1972, in Abisamra, 2003:6) he 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. And according to James (1998, in Sattayatham & Honsa, 2007) there are four causes of errors. They are interlingua errors, intralingua errors, communication strategy-based errors, and induced errors.

2.3   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 Rumiyati, 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.

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 omission, addition, misformation and misordering. In james (1998: 150) added an error type in the surface strategy taxonomy. It is blends.

In this study, the writer used Surface strategy taxonomy; omission, addition, and misordering, to classify errors made by the 8th grade students of Mts. Masyhudiyah Giri Gresik in using structures of complementation. It is because errors can occur because of change in surface structure in specific and systematic ways.

2.4   Contrastive Analysis.

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)

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.

Because of the statements above, this study used error analysis to find out the errors in using English structures of complementation and did not use the contrastive analysis.

2.5   Error Analysis

Error analysis is an activity to identify, classify and interpret or describe the errors made by someone or people in speaking or in writing and obtain information on common difficulties in language learning. Error analysis is procedure, which deals with collecting sample of learners' language, identifying the error according to their hypothesized causes and evaluating seriousness of error (Ellis, 1997: 7). Errors analysis may be carried out in order to find out how well someone knows a language and understand it, and obtain information on common difficulties in language learning. As supported by Mc. Keating (1981:213) error analysis is studied in order to find something about learning process and about the strategies employed by human being learning another language.

According to Brown (1994: 206) he defined error analysis as the process to observe, analyze and classify the deviations of the rules of second language and then to reveal the systems operated by learner. In this study, errors analysis is an activity to identify, classify and interpret or describe the errors made by the students in using English structures of complementation.

2.6   Stages in Error Analysis

There are several processes in leading error analysis that has been mentioned by some experts. According to Ellis (1997:15-19) reveals that there are some steps of analyzing error, they are:

1. Identifying Error

The first step in analyzing learner's errors is to identify them. In this case, we have to compare the sentences learners produce with what seem to be the correct sentences in the target language which correspondent with them.

2. Describing Errors

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

3. Explaining Errors

It can be mentioned that explanation of what kinds of errors has been found and we should explain why the errors occur.

4. Error Evaluation

In this last stage, is the purpose of the error analysis is to help learners learn an L2 there is a need to evaluate error.

2.7.   Review of English Structures of Complementation

Lexical words that belong to the four parts of speech may be combined with one another to make larger structures. In this case, 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 complementation.

Structure of complementation has two immediate constituents, a verbal element and a complement. The verbal element may be a simple verb, or it may be any structure that has a verb in key position. Complements appearing with linking verb are called subjective complements; complement appearing with transitive verb are called object (Francis, 1958:342,346). Nelson and Mc David (1985: 346) explained that since intransitive verbs and prepositional verb have no complement, they do not appear in structures of complementation. Each of the other two types has its own kinds of complement. Complements appearing with linking verb are called Subjective Complement; Complements appearing with Transitive Verb are called Objects.

In order to identify and describe different types of complements, we must first note that the verbs, which are at the core of the various types of verbal element, may be divided into three main groups: linking (or copulative) verb, intransitive verb and transitive verb (Nelson and Mc David, 1985: 343). The main theory of this study is the theory of the complementation by Francis (1958:342-355).

2.7.1 Verbal Element

The various types of verbal elements may be divided into three main groups:

2.7.1.1 Linking Verb

Linking verbs are thought of as a structural link between subject and complement. The most common and typical member of this group is *be* (as a full verb, not an auxiliary).

VE		C
Linking verb	C	Complement
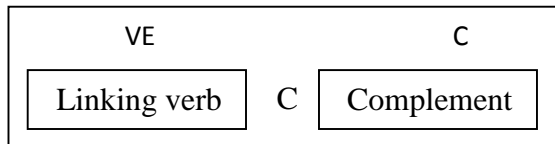
Example: (The men) *become* **hungry.**

(The weather) *turned* **cold**

The linking verb of this example is *become* and *turned*, the complement is **hungry** and **cold.** The linking verbs are usually before complement.
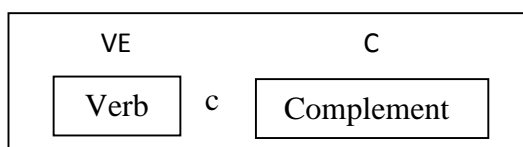
2.7.1.2 Intransitive Verb

Verbs which may appear in the active voice as complete predicates without any complement are intransitive verbs. Since intransitive verbs have no complement, they do not appear in structures of complement.

2.7.1.3 Transitive Verbs

Verbs which always have a complement when in the active voice, and which have passive forms, are transitive verbs.
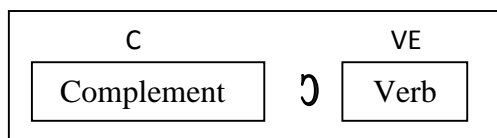
-Active form

VE		C
Verb	c	Complement

Example: (The man) *sold* his **car**

(The musician) *blew* **the trumpet**

(The watchman) *sound* **the alarm**

In example above *sold, blew* and *sound* is verb and **his car, the trumpet and the alarm** is complement. In the transitive verb complements follow the verb.

-Passive form

C		VE
Complement	ɔ	Verb

Example: **The car** *was sold* (by the man)

The trumpet *blew* (The musician)

The alarm *sound* (The watchman)

The transitive active forms *sold, blew* and *sound* may be replaced by *was sold, was blew* and *was sound* in passive forms, requiring that the complements **his car, the trumpet and the alarm** be shifted to subject.

2.7.2   Subjective Complement

Subjective complement may be single words, with or without related function words. The following examples show various kinds of simple subject complement.

2.7.2.1 Noun as Subjective Complement

| VE		SC
Linking Verb	C	Noun
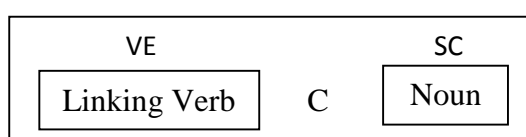
Example: (The woman) *is* **a nurse**

  (My hobby) *is* **swimming**

  In the first example above noun as subjective complement is **a nurse**. The second example above the linking verb are "*is*" and swimming (-ing3) function as subjective complement. Noun as subjective complement are usually before linking verb.
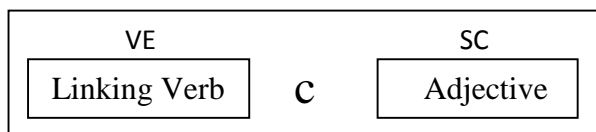
2.7.2.2 Function Noun as Subjective Complement

VE		S C
Linking Verb	C	Function noun
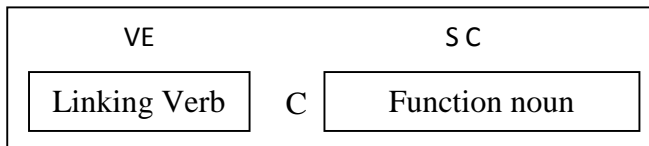
Example: (Ripeness) *is* **all**

  Function noun as subjective complements are before linking verb, the function noun is **all** and the linking verb is "*is*".

2.7.2.3 Adjective as Subjective Complement

| VE		SC
Linking Verb	C	Adjective

Example: (The corn) *is* **ripe**

  (My hobby) *is* **interesting**

  Adjective as subjective complements are follow the linking verb. In example above the Function noun as subjective complements is **ripe** and **interesting,** the linking verbs are *is*. In the second example that **interesting** (-ing2) function as subjective complement.
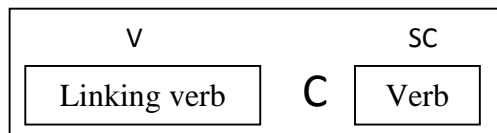
2.7.2.4 Adverb as Subjective Complement

VE		SC
Linking Verb	C	Adverb
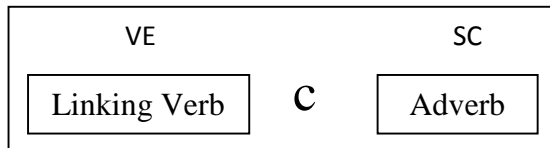
Example: (The time) *is* **now**

      Now in example above is adverb as subjective complement and the linking

verb is "*is*". And adverbs are usually following the linking verb.

2.7.2.5 Verb as Subjective Complement

      Verbs as subjective complements may follow linking verb. There are three

forms of verbs. They are the infinitive-marker to, present participle inflection and
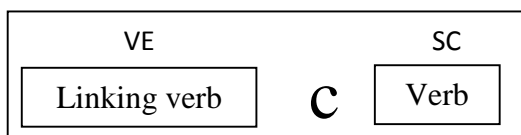
past participle inflection.

- The infinitive-marker to

V		SC
Linking verb	C	Verb

Example: (His wish) *is* **to die**

      To die is verb as subjective complement and the linking verb are "*is*".

- Present participle inflection (-ing)

VE		SC
Linking verb	C	Verb

Example: (His trade) *is* **writing**

      Writing is verb as subjective complement and the linking verb are "*is*".

- Past participle inflection (-ed)

VE		SC
Linking verb	C	Verb
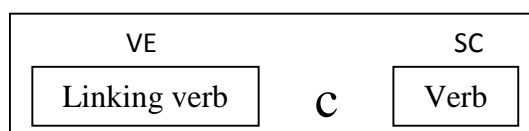
Example: (This meat) *is* **canned**

Canned is verb as subjective complement and the linking verb are "*is*".

2.7.2.6 Prepositional Phrase as Subjective Complement

| VE		SC
Linking verb	C	Prepositional phrase
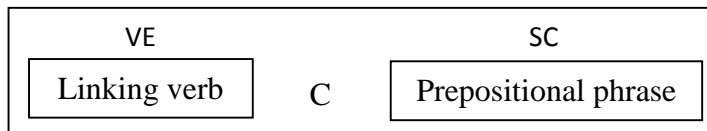
Example: (The train) *is* **on time**

Prepositional phrase as subjective complement in example above is **on time** and the linking verb are "*is*". Prepositional phrase as subjective complements is usually following linking verb.

2.7.3   Direct Object

When the complement of a transitive verb consists of a single object is called direct object. Some examples of single-word direct objects are the following:

2.7.3.1 Noun as Direct Object

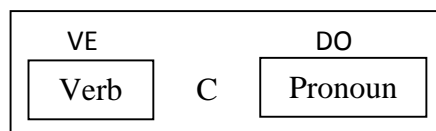| VE		DO
Verb	C	Noun
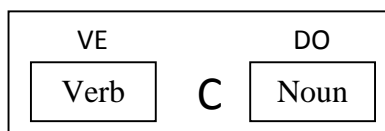
Example: (He) *found* **a friend**

(He) *loves* **math**

First example above, the noun as direct object is **a friend** and the verb is *found*. Second example, the noun as direct object is **math** and the verb is *loves*. Noun as direct object are usually following verb.

2.7.3.2 Pronoun as Direct Object

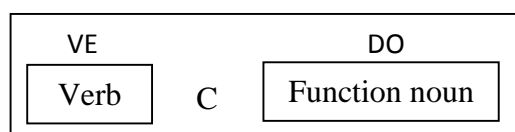| VE		DO
Verb	C	Pronoun

Example: (I) *saw* **him**

(He) *know* **her**

(He) *left* **her**

Pronoun as direct object are usually following verb. The pronoun as direct object in example above are **him** and **her**, the verb are saw, knows and left. Pronoun that be direct object are in the objective case (me, us, them, you him, her, it).

2.7.3.3 Function Noun as Direct Object

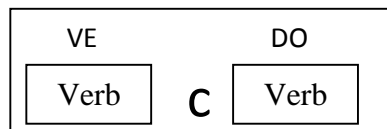| VE		DO
Verb	C	Function noun

Example: (We) *sent* **several**

(We) *gave* **each**

Several and **each** in example above is function noun as direct object and verbs are *sent* and *gave.* Function noun as direct object are usually following verb.

2.7.3.4 Verb as Direct Object

Verb as direct objects are following the verb. The complementing verb can be:
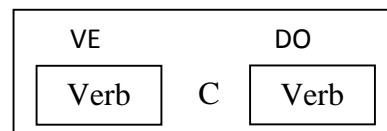
- The infinitive-marker to

```
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│   VE              DO            │
│ ┌───────┐      ┌───────┐        │
│ │ Verb  │  C   │ Verb  │        │
│ └───────┘      └───────┘        │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
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Example: (They) *want* **to go**

(They) *agreed* **to leave**

In example above verb as direct object is **to go and to leave** and verb is *wan* and *agreed*.
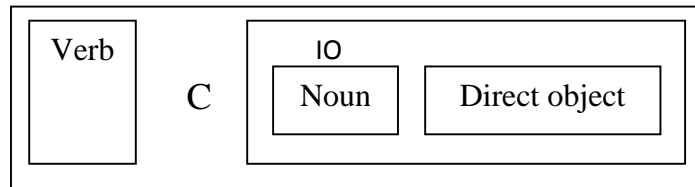
- Present participle inflection (-ing)

```
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│   VE              DO            │
│ ┌───────┐      ┌───────┐        │
│ │ Verb  │  C   │ Verb  │        │
│ └───────┘      └───────┘        │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
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Example: (she) *likes* **walking**

In example above verb as direct object is **walking** and verb is *likes.*

2.7.4   Indirect Object

When the complement of a structure of complementation whose verbal element is transitive consists of two objects, one of them is always a direct object. The other is either an indirect object or an objective complement. The following examples illustrate these various possibilities.

2.7.4.1 Noun as Indirect Object

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ ┌───────┐      ┌─────────────────────────┐   │
│ │ Verb  │      │          IO             │   │
│ │       │  C   │ ┌──────┐ ┌────────────┐ │   │
│ │       │      │ │ Noun │ │Direct object│ │   │
│ │       │      │ └──────┘ └────────────┘ │   │
│ └───────┘      └─────────────────────────┘   │
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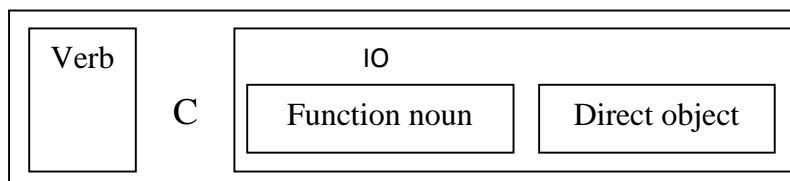
Example: (He) *told* **the policeman** his name

        (Anto) *give* **the student** the assignment

Noun as direct objects are come before direct object and following verb (between verb and direct object). In example above *told* is verb, **the policeman** and **the student** is noun as indirect object and his name and the assignment is direct object.
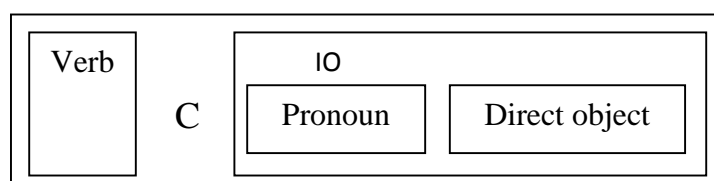
2.7.4.2 Function noun as Indirect Object

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ ┌───────┐      ┌───────────────────────────────┐ │
│ │ Verb  │      │              IO               │ │
│ │       │  C   │ ┌──────────────┐ ┌───────────┐ │ │
│ │       │      │ │ Function noun│ │Direct object│ │
│ │       │      │ └──────────────┘ └───────────┘ │ │
│ └───────┘      └───────────────────────────────┘ │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Example: (we) *gave* **each** a present

Function noun as indirect objects are come before direct object and following verb (between verb and direct object). In example above *gave* is verb, **each** is noun as indirect object and a present is direct object.

2.7.4.3 Pronoun as Indirect Object

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ ┌───────┐      ┌─────────────────────────┐   │
│ │ Verb  │      │          IO             │   │
│ │       │  C   │ ┌────────┐ ┌───────────┐│   │
│ │       │      │ │Pronoun │ │Direct object││  │
│ │       │      │ └────────┘ └───────────┘│   │
│ └───────┘      └─────────────────────────┘   │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

Example: (The agent) *sold* **them** a house

(Andy) *gives* **me** a book

(He) *sent* **me** his picture

Pronoun as direct object is come before direct object and following verb (between verb and direct object). In example above *sold, sent and gives* is verb, **them** and **me** is noun as indirect object and a house is direct object.

2.7.5   Objective Complement

Certain complements consisting of two objects does not meet the requirements for the indirect + direct object structure, its second object is an objective complement.

2.7.5.1 Noun as Objective Complement

| Verb	C		OC
		Direct object	Noun
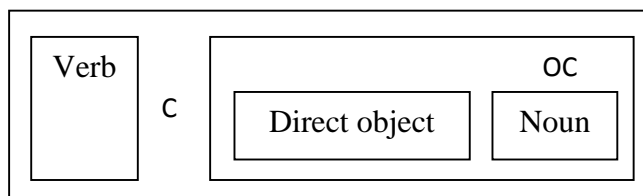
Example: (We) *made* him **a member**

(We) *elected* his brother **president**

(They) *named* their daughter **Natasha**

Noun as objective complement are following direct object. In example above *made, named* and *elected* are verbs, noun as objective complements are **a member, Natasha** and **president**, direct objects are him, their daughter and his brother.

2.7.5.2 Adjective as Objective Complement

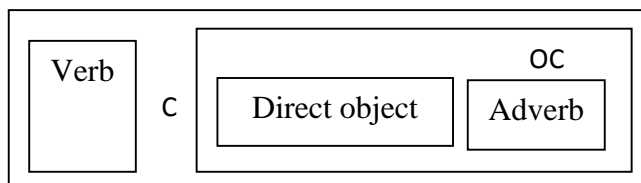| Verb		OC	
	C	Direct object	Adjective
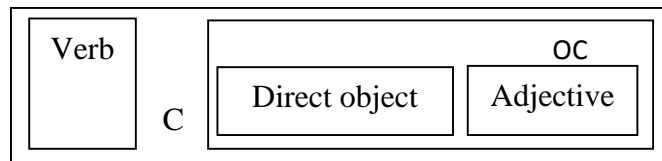
Example: (He) *painted* his house **green**

　　　　(That grief) *drove* him **mad**

　　Adjective as objective complement are following direct object. In example

above *painted and drove* are verbs, adjective as objective complements are **green**

and **mad**, direct objects are his house.

2.7.5.3 Adverb as Objective Complement

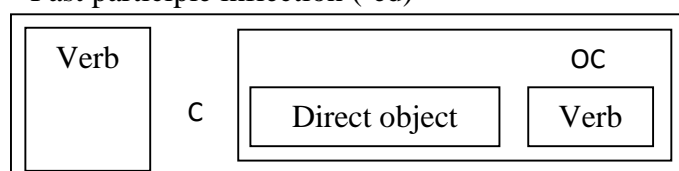| Verb		OC	
	C	Direct object	Adverb

Example: (We) *found* him **alone**

　　Adverb as objective complement are following direct object. In example

above *found* are verbs, adverb as objective complements are **alone**, direct objects

are him.

2.7.5.4 Verb as Objective Complement

　　Verb as objective complements are following the verb. The

complementing verb can be:

- Past participle inflection (-ed)

Verb		OC	
	C	Direct object	Verb

Example: (They) *considered* the job **finished**

Verb as objective complement are following direct object. In example above *considered* are verbs, verb as objective complements are **finished**, direct objects are direct object.

2.7.5.5 Prepositional Phrase as Objective Complement

| Verb	C	OC	
		Direct object	Prepositional phrase
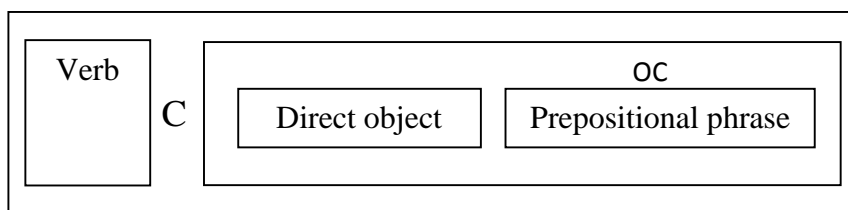
Example: (He) *left* her **in tears**

Prepositional phrase as objective complement are following direct object. In example above *left* are verbs, adverb as objective complements are **in tears**, direct objects are her.

2.7.6   Object with Passive Verbs

A verbal element in the passive voice can have complement, but it always consists of a single object.

V	C	C
Passive Verb		Object
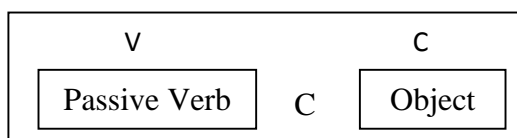
Example: (He) *was given* **a book**

(He) *was elected* **president**

The passive verb of the example above is *"was given* **"**and *"was elected"*, the objects are **a book** and **president.**