CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents any reviews of related literature, including the nature of writing in language learning, error analysis, and English complex sentence.

A. The Nature of Writing in Language Learning

Human communication fulfills many different goals at the personal and social levels. We communicate information, ideas, beliefs, emotions, and attitudes to one another in our daily interaction, and we construct and maintain our positions within various social contexts by employing appropriate language forms and performing speech activities to ensure solidarity, harmony, and cooperation – or to express disagreement or displeasure, when called for. The acquisition of communication skills in one's first language is a life long process, but the basic skills are acquired quite early in life. When learning another language, we have to add to, change, and readjust our native language strategies to fit the new language and culture (Murcia, 2000: 3).

In language learning, linguistic skills are very basic things developed. Listening, speaking, reading and writing are common skills that language education practitioners often work with. Developing all those skills is very important since language function is a mean of communication, and communication means the application of those skills.

In building each skill, learners need to build some related aspects as well. Compared to other skills, writing involves more structural aspects to consider. In reading, for instance, pronunciation and intonation are the only aspects strongly counted, in which speaking also deals with the both aspects.

It was quoted from Wright(2006:4) that speaking and writing are productive skill by the mean people express ideas by producing language in oral form or written form. Speaking and writing may have some similar characteristics, such as consideration of grammar, organizing idea, and some other linguistic features (like pronunciation and intonation in speaking, or punctuation and capitalization in writing). Thus, it can be concluded that both speaking and writing consider grammar aspect.

The difference is that language in writing is more detail than that in speaking. Oral language typically tends to have non-complete sentences, less specific vocabulary, and loose grammar. In other hand, written language attends much to the mechanics of writing (spelling, capitalization, and punctuation) and grammar rules. It can be proved by seeing the use of language both in daily or school. The practice of the use of oral language, for instance in contextual learning, which nature is the reflection of real life, tends to be looser in grammar aspect than that of written language.

Milroy(1992) in Bex and Watts ed. (1999: 25) adds by implying that the distinction between written and spoken language is that the written is more formal in sense of sequences and its well-formed characteristic which is structurally

called grammatical, rather than the spoken which tends to be ungrammatical or ill formed.

Written language means that it is recordable. What needs emphasizing is that the "recordable" nature makes this written language can be analyzed in detail which then leads probability of analyzing for the need of editing and redrafting. Grammar aspect as one of element which can be analyzed takes a vital place in writing. It does not mean that writing is the only language form which put grammar as an essential part; some speaking does so, but some genre or types of text does need good compositions of grammar so that the text can be categorized into a good one. Report, exposition, persuasive and other scientific writing are some types that need deep checking of grammar. Thus, Nunan (1999: 280) says that the differences of function and/or communicative purposes on the use of language determine overall shape or structure of the discourse, and grammatical as well. Nunan (1999:271) also says that writing is one of language skills must be mastered by the student in language learning. In terms of skills, producing a coherent, fluent, extended piece of writing is probably the most difficult thing there is to do in language. It is something most native speakers never master.

Burns and Joyce (in Nunan, 1999: 278-279) add that unlike spoken language which tends to be unrehearsed and spontaneous, writing is editable and redrafted. Writing also put grammar as important point. That means that writer has space in which he/she can check and recheck his/her writing composition, including checking grammar, in order to minimalize the possibility of making error or mistakes. It is necessary to know that without doing those checking and

editing, writer may make unintentional errors (in grammar). The "unintentional errors" meant are any errors which actually the writer has understood or known how the correct construction should be. The writing process is very detail. The product of writing which has passed some basic writing steps (rechecking, redrafting or editing) should tend not to have the unintentional errors which means lacking grammar proficiency. A synthesis is then can be created which states that any grammar errors in writing may strongly indicate someone's proficiency in grammar. In simple words, if writer still makes any errors after applying some editing or redrafting steps in writing, it can be concluded he/she has lack proficiency of grammar

B. Error Analysis

1. Definition of Error

Learning English as a foreign language (EFL) becomes more difficult to understand because sometimes English is not interesting to be learned by English learners. This is because between first language and English as foreign language are different which process two different system (e.g., phonetic, phonological, syntactic, and semantic system). Due to above conditions, the English learners sometimes produce the errors in their speech and writing.

Dulay, (1982:138) show errors are the flawed side of learner speech or writing. They are those parts of conversation of composition that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance, in other words, the errors refers to any deviation from a selected norm of language performance.

Spillner, (1991: ix) state that in contrastive linguistics, errors produced in the process of foreign language acquisition are thought to be caused by more or less unconscious transfer (in the mind of the learner) of mother tongue structures to the system of the target language. Insofar as there are considerable contrasts between the two language systems, there is, according to this hypothesis, a high probability of negative transfer, resulting in errors within target language performance.

Seen from more general perspective, term "errors" is included under the term "mistakes". Bartram and Walton (1991: 1) state that mistakes can be categorized into "errors", "slips", lapses" and, of course, "mistakes". The discussion of error leads to its main characteristic which tends to any deviation that relates to structural aspect. It is based on Nunan (1999: 307) who defines "error" as a piece of speech or writing that is recognizably different in some way from native speaker usage, which can occur at the level of discourse, grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation.

Corder (1967) in Gass and Selinker (2000: 78) also explains the characteristic of error. While mistakes are akin to slips of the tongue and recognizable (by the mistakes maker), error is systematic in which it is likely to occur repeatedly and is not recognized by learner. However, the main purpose of this discussion is to explain how the errors can be useful in language teaching. Thus, thought in the discussion will not distinct the "errors" to other categories since they are still included into the same group, mistakes, and basically all put the same important contribution, although the points viewed are various.

Bartram and Walton (1991: 13) propose that mistake is the evidence of learning.Learning is progressing stages and learners do lot of things including making mistakes. In those stages, learners tend to make generalization by the correction toward their mistakes. Corder (1967) in Richard (1997: 25) adds that a learner's errors might provide evidence of the system of the learned language at a particular point in the course. Learners make progress, for instance, by being able to revise writing they have made.

The progress made by the learners can, then, be seen by looking at the language constructions they have made, specifically at the errors. If, then, the fact is connected to the role of grammar in writing, it comes to the conclusion that any errors in writing are very significant for the need of students' writing progress.

Nunan (1999: 58) also puts "making errors in language activities" as one of characteristics of good language learner. It is based on the fact that learners who make mistakes and then receive treatment (toward their mistakes) could possibly perform better understanding at the particular areas.

Bartram and Walton (1991: 1) state that mistakes are of crucial and central importance in teaching languages. However, there should be an action toward the mistakes; why students make them, and how teacher can deal with them. Bartram and Walton (1991: 19) again add that it is teacher's job to aid the process, including the making of errors.

Corder (1982:35) also state that along with the results of tests and examinations, the errors that learners make are a major element in the *feedback*

system of the process we call language teaching and learning. It is on the basis of the information the teacher gets from errors that he varies his teaching procedures and materials, the pace of the progress, and the amount of practice which he plans at any moment.

2. Source of Error

Having examined procedures of error analysis used to identify error in foreign language learner production data and the source of error, Brown (2000: 223-227) serves some of the source of error as follow:

a. Interlingual transfer

Before the system of the foreign language is similar, the native language is the only linguistic system in previous experience upon which the learner can draw. At the beginning stages of learning a foreign language are characteristic by a good deal of interlingual transfer (from the native language).

b. Intralingual transfer

Intralingual errors or intralingual interference is defined as the negative transfer of items within the target language or put another way the incorrect generalization of rules within the target language. Negative intralingual transfer (overgeneralization) has already been illustrated in such utterances as " Does John can sing?" other example " He good", etc.

Richards (1997: 6) also defines the intralingual into the errors that don't reflect the structure of the mother tongue, but generalizations based on partial

exposure to the target language. Richards (1997: 174-180)distinguishes the source of intralingual error into the following categories:

1.) Over- generalization

2.) Ignorance of rule restriction

3.) Incomplete application of rules

4.) False concepts hypothesized

c. Context of Learning

A third major source of error, though it overlaps both types of transfer, is the context of learning." Context" refers, for example, to the classroom with its teacher and its material in the case of school learning, or the social situation in the case of untutored second/ foreign language learning. In a classroom context, the teacher or the textbook can lead the learner to make faulty hypothesis about the language. Student often make error because of a misleading explanation from the teacher, faulty presentation of a structure or word in a textbook, or even because of pattern that was rotely memorized in a drill but not properly contextualized.

d. Communication Strategies

A fourth major source of learner error can be found in different communication strategies employed by the learner to get a message across to a hearer. A communication strategy is the conscious employment of verbal and nonverbal mechanism for the productive communication of information.

3. Types of Error

   a. Error Types Based on Linguistics Category

   Dulay, et al(1982: 146) state that either the linguistic category taxonomies classify errors according to or both the language component and the particular linguistic constituent the error affect. Language component include phonology (pronunciation),syntax and morphology (grammar), semantic and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style). The error types in morphology based on sample linguistic category are showed below:

Linguistic category and error type   Example of learner Error

- Morphology

1. Indefinite article incorrect

- A used for an before vowels   A ant

- An use for a   An little ant

2. Possessive case incorrect

- Omission of 'S'   The man feet

3. Third person singular verb incorrect

- Failure to attach –s   The bird help man

- Wrong attachment of –s   The apple fall downs

4. Simple past tense incorrect

    1.) Regular past tense   The bird save him

- Omission of –ed   He calleded

- Adding –ed to past already

   form

    2.) Irregular past tense   He putted the cookies there

- Regularization by adding

   –ed   He fall in the water

- Substitution of simple

   non – past   I been near to him

- Substitution of past

   participle

5. Past participle incorrect   He was call

- Omission of –ed

6. Comparative

   Adjective/ adverb incorrect   He got up more higher

- Use of more + er

b. Surface Strategy Taxonomy

Surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structure is altered. Learners may omit necessary items or add unnecessary ones; the

may misform items or misorder them. Dulay, et al. (1982: 150) show the error type base on surface strategy taxonomy as follow:

1.) Omission

Omission errors are characteristic by the absence of an item must appear in a well- formed utterance. Omission errors are found in greater abundance and across a greater variety of morphemes during the early stages of second or foreign language acquisition. Language learner omit grammatical morphemes much more frequently than content words. Within the set of grammatical morphemes, however, some are likely to be omitted for a much longer time than other. For example, the learners omit the-s bird for plural noun.

2.) Addition

Addition errors are the opposite of omissions. They are characteristic by the presence of an item that must not appear in a well- formed utterance. There are three types of addition errors have been observed in the speech of both L_1 and L_2 learners : double markings, regularizations, and simple additions. The clear explanation will be discussed as follow:

a.) Double Markings

Many addition error are more accurately described as the failure to delete certain items which are require to delete certain items which are require in some linguistics construction, but not on others. For example, in most English sentences some semantic

features such as tenses may be marked syntactically only once. The English rule for tense formation is: place the tense maker on the first verb. In a simple affirmative declarative sentence, the main verb is the only verb.

In a sentence where an auxiliary is required in addition to the main verb, the auxiliary takes the tenses. Learners who have acquired the tense form for both auxiliary and verb often place the marker on both, as in.

He doesn't knows my name.

Or

We didn't went there.

Because two items rather than one are marked for the some feature (tense in these examples), this type of addition error has been called double marking.

b.) Regularization

A rule typically applies to a class of linguistics items. Such as the class of main verb or the class of nouns. In most languages, some members of a class are exceptions to the rule. For examples, the eat does not become eated, but ate, the noun sheep is also sheep in the plural, not sheeps. Regularization errors happen when learners apply the rules used to produce the regular ones to those that are irregular.

c.) Simple addition

Simple addition is an addition error which not a double marking nor a regularization. No particular features characterize simple additions other than those that characterize all addition errors, the use of an item which should not appear in a well- formed utterance. The example of simple addition errors explain as follow:

Linguistic item added	Example
Third person singular – s	The fishes doesn't live in the water
Past tense (irregular)	The train is gonna broke it a this
Article a	A this
Preposition	In over here

3.) Misformation

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the wrong form the morpheme or structure. While in omission errors the item is not supplied at al, in misformation errors the learner supplies something , although it is incorrect. There are three types of misformation have been frequently reported in the literature:

a.) Regularization errors

This type of error occurs when a regular market is used in place of an irregular one, as in runned for ran or gooses for geese.

b.) Archi – forms

Archi- forms defined as the selection of one member of a class or forms to represent others in the class. For example, a learner may temporarily select just one of English demonstrative adjective this, these, and those, to do the work for several of them.

That dog

That dogs

Learners may also select one number of the class of personal pronouns function for several others in a class. For example:

Give that

Me hungry

c.) Alterning forms

As the learner's vocabulary and grammar grow, the use of archi- form often gives way to apparently fairly free alternation of various members of a each class with each other. That in the production of verbs when the participles form (- en, as in taken) is being acquired, it may be alterned with the past irregular ,as in:

I seen her yesterday

He would have saw them

4.) Misordering

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

For example in the utterance:

He is all the time late

Misordering errors occur systematically for both L_2 and L_1 learners in constructions that have already been acquired specifically simple (direct) and embedded (indirect) questions.

C. English Complex Sentence

As its name suggests, indeed the complex sentences is complex or complicated, at least to a certain extent for some (beginning) writers. One wise starting step to cope with the 'problem' might be to point out that a complex sentence consist of two clauses: one independent while the other is dependent. The independent or main clause can stand by it self, but the dependent or subordinate one cannot: it must depend upon the main clause. Frequently, dependent clauses are introduced by subordinating conjunction, for example, if, when and because (Bram, 1995:40).

Through complex sentences, we can put prominence on the idea in a clause. We can also show, among other thing, contrast, preference, reason, and consequence. Thus, the flow of thoughts will run much more smoothly, compared with a series of ideas expressed in simple sentences. Look at the following:

a. <u>Although Risa likes all kinds of fruit,</u> *she sometimes finds the smell of jackfruit a little terrible*.

b. *I would like to marry her* <u>since she and I understand each other and have some interests.</u>

c. *We were discussing Chapter Two* <u>when the bell rang to signal the end of yesterday's writing class.</u>

All the underlined clauses above are dependent clause; they depend on their independent or main clauses, which are italicized. As we can observe, the key words that make the underlined clauses dependent are the subordinating conjunction: although, since, when.

Stated on Bram (1995: 45) that it is also worthwhile noting that the dependent clauses may appear before or after their independent counterparts. This is often a matter of preferences. When placing dependent clauses at the beginning, we usually need commas (in writing) and pauses (in speaking) to mark their endings. Complex sentences tent to be relatively longer than simple sentences as well as compound ones. Thus, they- complex sentences- have more capacity to express related ideas more clearly and more interestingly.

Sentences containing noun clause, adjective clauses, or adverbial clause are also complex because they contain an independent clause and a dependent clause.

1. Noun Clause

A noun clause is a subordinate clause as a noun. It function as a noun in the sentence (Wishon, 1980: 174).

He noticed *her nervousness*. (noun)

He noticed *that she was nervous.* (noun clause)

The noun clause may be introduced by subordinate conjunction or relative pronouns.

a.   Position of the Noun Clause

Since the noun clause may be used in the same way in which a noun is used, it can occur anywhere in the sentence that a noun can occur.

Subject of the sentence:

His destination is a secret.

Where he is going is secret.

Indirect object:

The club will give *the winner a prize.*

The club will give *whoever wins a prize*.

Direct object:

I know *his name.*

I know *what his name is*.

Subjective complement:

This is *my opinion.*

This is *what I think.*

Objective complement:

She will name him *John*.

She will name him *whatever she wants to*.

Object of a preposition:

She worried about *his health*.

She worried about *how ill he was*.

Appositive:

One problem, *his incompetent*, will be hard to deal with.

One problem, *that he is incompetent*, will be hard to deal with.

Object of participle:

Remembering *her remark,* I was careful to be on time.

Remembering *what he said*, I was careful to be on time.

Object of a infinitive:

John asked her to read *the manuscript*.

John asked her to read *what he had written.*

Object of gerund:

Knowing *English* is very useful to him.

Knowing *that he is here* is a comfort to me.

b.   Subordinator in the noun clause

Subordinators which introduce noun clause can be either relative pronouns or subordinate conjunctions.

When a pronoun is used as a subordinator, it takes one of the noun positions in the clause it introduces, or it acts as a determiner before one of the nouns in the clause.

We know *who* wrote the letter. (subject)

We know *who (m)* you saw. (direct object)

We know *whose* work the best. (determiner)

We know *of whom* he was speaking.(object of preposition)

When a conjunction acts as a subordinator, it may have an adverbial function within the clause it introduces. That is to say, when a subordinate conjunction turns a sentence into a noun clause, the conjunction often replaces as adverbial.

His house is *on Main Street.*

I know *where is his house*.

c.   Omission of that

That, used as subordinator to introduce noun clause, is different from other subordinator in that it has no grammatical function in the clause it introduces. Unless the clause is used as a subject or a subjective complement *that* can usually omitted.

That *we are late is evident.* (subject)

My opinion is *that we must be there.* (subjective complement)

But *that* is optional in the following sentences.

I hope *(that) you arrived safely*.

They think*(that) she is very intelligent*.

In the fifteenth century, many people believed *(that) the word was flat.*

Some of verbs after which *that* is often omitted are: assume, believe, hope, imagine, know, say, suppose.

2. Adjective Clause

An adjective clause is a dependent clause used as an adjective; it modifies a noun or pronoun. These clause are introduced by two different kinds of words which always occur just after the noun that the clause modifies. Adjective clause are usually introduced by the relative pronouns *who, whom, whose, which, and that.* These pronouns function in noun position in the clauses they introduced (Wishon, 1980: 165).

a. Punctuating Adjective Clause

Notice that one of adjective clause given in the illustration is set of by commas, while the others are not. If a clause is necessary to the meaning of the sentence, it is said to be restrictive (essential) and requires no punctuation.

The man *who wrote about the explosion* was an eyewitness.

The italicized clause is necessary to identify the man, the subject of the sentence. Hence, it is restrictive and requires no commas.

In the following example, on the other hand, the italicized clause is not essential to the meaning of the sentences.

R.D. Verbeck, *who was an eyewitness*, wrote about the explosion.

In this sentence the identify of the subject of the sentence is known because his name is given. The adjective clause only supplies added information and is not essential to the meaning of the sentence. Hence, it is nonrestrictive (nonessential) and must be set off commas.

b. Omitting the Subordinating Word

Notice that the subordinator is often omitted from restrictive adjective clauses.

The blast you read about occurred in 1883.

This is the place we saw the accident.

In the first of the preceding two sentences *that* or which has been omitted after the word *blast*. In the second sentence *where* has been omitted after the *place*. If the subordinator is the subject of the clause, it cannot be omitted:

That is a place *that looks dangerous.* (subject)

 The man who *wrote about it* saw it. (subject)

The ocean covered the place *(where) the volcano had been.*

Give us the reason *(why) this disaster happened.*

The subordinator are never omitted from nonrestrictive adjective clause.

3. Adverbial Clauses

An adverbial clause is a dependent clause used as an adverb; it therefore can modify a verb, an adjective, a verbal, another adverb, or a sentence (Wishon, 1980: 155).

John went home *early.*

John went home *as soon as he could*.

The following are examples of adverbial clause arranged according to the meaning of subordinate conjunction.

a. Time: *when, whenever, while, since, after, before, until, as*

Abraham Lincoln maintained great interest in legal studies *when he was president.*

b. Place: *where, wherever*

I have always lived *where I was born.*

c. Manner: *as, as if*

I will do *as I have been instructed.*

d. Comparison: *as, than*

I don't swim *as well as he does.*

e. Reason, cause, purpose: *as, because, so that, in order that, for fear that, since*

As you have already studied that chapter, it will not be necessary to read it again.

f. Result: *so…that, such…that/… such that*

The book was *so* interesting *that I read it in one evening*.

g. Condition: *if, whether, unless, provided(that), on condition that, as/ so long as, supposing(that)*

He will sign the contract *if it is satisfactory.*

h. Contrast, concession: *although, though, even though, no matter if, while, even if, wherever, whenever, whatever, as much as, whereas*

Although I had a slight handicap, I was an ambitious student.

1) Punctuating Adverbial Clause

Clauses introducing sentences are followed by a comma.

Although you may not agree, I must make my report today.

If Lincoln had not been interested in legal studies, he might never have become president.

Clauses interrupting sentences are set off by two commas.

Once, *as I was strolling downtown,* I saw the president go by.

Please remember, *if you can,* to meet me tomorrow at nine.

Clauses following main clauses are governed by the following rules:

1) If the clause is necessary to the meaning of the sentence, no comma is used.

> He studied hard *because he wanted to become a doctor.*
>
> He cannot go *unless he finds enough money for the ticket.*

2) If the clause is unnecessary, included as additional   information, a comma is used. These subordinate conjunctions are usually preceded by commas: *although, even though, though, even if, no matter if, as* (causal)*, since*(causal), *whereas, while* (contrast).

> I was tired, *although I had a good night's sleep.*
>
> I am always tired, *even if I have a good night's sleep.*
>
> I am always tired, *no matter if I have a good night's sleep.*
>
> I am not tired, *as I had a good night's sleep.*
>
> I am not tired, *since I had a good night's sleep.*