

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

The sub study of this analysis discusses the nature of writing, and the pattern of writing. Besides them, explain what the inter language theory, second language acquisition, cultural competence, and grammar competence is. To contrastive analysis will be presented after them.

#### **2.1 Interlanguage**

Many educators and linguistics involved in the study of second-language acquisition (SLA). SLA beginnings in the late 1960s, when the first researchers learnt students thought empirical studies, to describe the characteristics of learner language, but their research is unsatisfied. They began attempts to explain why many people made errors or mistakes in language and always use interlanguage. An interlanguage is an emerging linguistic system that has been developed by a learner of a second language (or L2) who has not become fully proficient yet but is approximating the target language: preserving some features of their first language (or L1), or over generalizing target language rules in speaking or writing the target language and creating innovations. It is idiosyncratically based on the learners' experiences with the L2. It can fossilize, or cease developing, in any of its developmental stages. The interlanguage rules are claimed to be shaped by several factors, including: L1 transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning (e.g. simplification), strategies of L2 communication (or communication strategies like circumlocution), and overgeneralization of the target language patterns. The term used most frequently today to describe this transitional language, interlanguage, is created by Selinker in (1972). Interlanguage is the first significant theory which

tried to explain L2 (second-language) acquisition. It refers to the language a learner has constructed at a specific point in time, 'an interlanguage'. It also refers to the series of languages that have been constructed over a period of time, 'interlanguage'. That statement is supported by Ellis, even Ellis (1985 and 1989) proposed that interlanguage develops simultaneously in three phases: (a) Innovation (the acquisition of new forms), (b) Elaboration (the use of more complex language as the use of form in different contexts is discovered), (c) Revision (the adjustment of language that are made as a result of innovation and elaboration).

Another important feature of Selinker's interlanguage theory is that it distinguishes between L2 "Communication strategies" and learning "Communication strategies" "are ways in which the learners use her linguistic resource to communicate fluently or to handle communication difficulties. Learning involves "the mechanism that learners use to (1) notice features in the input, (2) compare these features with those that are currently part of their mental grammars or interlanguages, and (3) integrate the new features into their interlanguage." (Ellis, 1994, pp 30)

Based on the theory that there is a "psychological structure latent in the brain" which is activated when one attempts to learn a second language. Interlanguage theory is usually credited to Larry Selinker but others such as Ariel Weinreich have claimed to have formulated the basic concept before Selinker's 1972 paper. Selinker noted that in a given situation the utterances produced by the learner are different from those native speakers would produce had they attempted to convey the same meaning. This comparison reveals a separate linguistic system. This

system can be observed when studying the utterances of the learner who attempts to produce meaning in using the target language; it is not seen when that same learner does form-focused tasks, such as oral drills in a classroom. Interlanguage can be observed to be variable across different contexts; for example, it may be more accurate, complex and fluent in one discourse domain than in another (Tarone, 1979; Selinker & Douglas, 1985)

## **2.1 Things that must be learned in the language especially in English by D.H. Hymes**

### **1. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE**

Communicative competence is a term coined by D.H. Hymes (1972) to contrast Chomsky's theory of competence. Chomsky held that linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (Chomsky 1965).

For Chomsky, the focus of linguistic theory is to characterize the abstract abilities the speakers possess that enable them to produce grammatically correct *sentences* in a language. Hymes held that such a view was sterile and snapped at it as "innately- derived power from the garden of Eden". While in real communication, it is "eating the apple, thrusting the perfect speaker-hearer in the fallen world". Hymes' theory of communicative competence D.H. Hymes (1972) in Liu Ya's articles (2008: 81) is a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. In Hymes's view,

a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to

- a. Possibility--whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible  
It refers to the ability to produce grammatical sentences, which needs knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of the language. When systemic possibility is a matter of language, the corresponding term is of course grammaticality.
- b. Feasibility-- Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available. The predominant concern here has been psycholinguistic factors such as memory limitation, perceptual device, and effects of properties. There are also considerations of culture; one would take into account other features of the body and features of the material environment as well. The knowledge of *the* rules of speaking are also important. For example, knowing how to begin and end conversations, knowing what topics may be talked about in different types of speech events, knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in various situations.
- c. Appropriateness-- Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated One might think of appropriateness with regard to grammar as the context rules of sub-categorization and selection to which the base component is subject; there would still be intersection with the cultural. Judgment of appropriateness needs a tacit knowledge. An adequate approach to the relation between sentences and

situations must be mentalistic, entailing a tacit knowledge and competence.

- d. Performance--- Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what it is doing entails A more recent analysis of communicative competence is found in Canale and Swain (1980), in which four dimensions of communicative competence are identified: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Grammatical competence refers to what Chomsky calls linguistic competence and what Hymes intended by what is “formally possible”. It includes language code (grammatical rules, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, syntax, etc).

That statement of the theory above also is supported by Canale and Swain, in communicative concept they have to mastering of some theory others, it is follow:

## **2. Grammar Competence**

The word “grammar” has some meanings and there is no universally accepted definition. Different experts define the term grammar differently. There is no fixed definition of grammar. Harmer (2001: 12) defines grammar as the description of the ways in which words can change their forms and can be combined into sentences in that language. Leech (1982: 3) defined grammar as something in reference to the mechanism according to which language works when it is used to communicate with other people. Gerot & Wignell (1994: 2) state that grammar is a theory of a language, of how language is put together and how it works.

There are many of opinion about the word “grammar” it’s make us confused to understand meaning of that all. But, if we don’t understand about it, impossible we built or contract some words to be sentence or message. Because, in grammar have mechanism to make sentence or a message base on their time. The construct of Grammar cannot be seen concretely, because it is rather abstractly represented in the human mind, but we know it is there because it works. One way of describing this mechanism is by means of a set of rules which allow us to put words together in certain ways which do not allow others. The meaning of a message conveyed by language has to be converted into words put together according to grammatical rules and these words are then conveyed by sounds. From that statement above also is supported by Canale and Swain. This is concerned with the use of ‘knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology’ (Canale and Swain, 1980: 29). This type of knowledge and skill allows the language learner to make use of language resources to understand and create propositional meaning.

### **3. Sociolinguistic competence:**

This is concerned with rules of use, including the probability of ‘whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done’ (Hymes, 1972: 281), that is, whether something is ‘slayable’ in a given context, from the point of view of participant members of a particular community. It addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction ... Appropriateness of utterances refers to ... appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of meaning

concerns the extent to which particular communicative functions (e.g. commanding, complaining and inviting), attitudes (including politeness and formality) and ideas are judged to be proper in a given situation. (Canale, 1983: 7).

#### **4. Discourse competence**

This is concerned with organizational features of spoken and written texts (of any kind). There are two elements in this competence: cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), and coherence (Widdowson, 1978). Different types of texts, such as oral and written narratives, diaries, and scientific reports, tend to combine grammatical forms with selected meanings in particular ways.

Unity of a text is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence in meaning. Cohesion deals with how utterances are linked structurally and facilitates interpretation of a text. For example, the use of cohesion devices such as pronoun, synonyms...Coherence refers to the relationship among the different meanings in a text, where these meanings may be literal meanings, communicative functions and attitudes. (Canale,1983: 9)

#### **5. Strategic competence**

This is concerned with additional language learners' capacity to communicate by using verbal and non-verbal strategies (a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to a lack of language knowledge or momentary memory limitation (or other psycho-cognitive issues); and (b) to enhance communication (e.g. use of slow speech for rhetorical effect). (Canale, 1983: 11)

#### **6. Writing Competence**

There is no specific definition about writing stated by an author or a linguist. L. Strauss in J. Hartley, et al (1962: 66) stated that "writing might, that is to say, be

regarded as a form of artificial memory, whose development should be accompanied by a deeper knowledge of the past and, therefore, by a greater ability to organize the present and the future.”

To be good writer in English is not easy, we have to know some rules of writing academic before. Because write in English form is very different between Indonesia language or another language. This statement also supported by As sted by Osima and Hugoue (1999:3) writing is not easy. It's need more study and practice. Hogue's opinion ( 2003:255) say that; writing is arranging sentences into paragraph one after another; but involves organization of thought, sound usage of the English language and imagination.

In English have aspects different in structure or grammar and also there is another difference that equally important. This difference is located to the way writer's organized and express his/her ideas. Writing is one way to express human's felling, experience, ideas. Through writing people can show/express their feeling's, experience, ideas. Langan (1942:1) say that writing is the physical act of committing words or ideas to some medium.

Breton (1982:48) states that any pieces of writing is always somebody ( the English writer ) saying something to somebody else ( the reader ), here are some writing occasion and their participants. Form that statement, we can say that it is some what difficult to express idea through writing, because as we know that the English writer will eventually extract the ideas and their meaning not in face with the writer. It means that the writer not only considers about the content of written text but also the reader will read the text. He/she must think how to express the



message in written words. So that it is clearly understood by the reader ( student).

So writing is more complex than other skill: speaking, reading, and listening.

### 2.3 The Pattern of Writing

Davis, (1983: 1) in Mac Millon Publishing co., inc. 1983 say that good writing is understanding of the basic elements of a sentence and of way these basic element can be organized into a sentence.

#### 1. Basic sentence elements

A sentence is as a group of words containing of subject and a predicate that make complete sense or express a complete thought. This definition, however, meant almost nothing unless we know what a subject is and what a predicate is. The subject of sentence is the word with all its modifiers that names the person, place, thing or concept about which something is said. The predicate of a sentence is word with all its modifiers that tells what the subject does or what the subject is. The subject and the predicate then, are the basic elements of sentences. Each of these two elements can consist of word, as in example follows.

1. Dogs bark ( Dogs are subject of sentence and bark is predicate of sentence)
2. The two large ferocious in the back yard, which belong to my uncle, bark loudly at all strangers who come near them, ( the subject of this sentence is The two large ferocious in the back yard, which belong to my uncle, and the predicate is bark loudly at all strangers who come near them, but each of them contained of modifier, namely ferocious in the back yard, which belong

to my uncle for subject and loudly at all strangers who come near them for predicate).

A phrase can be defined as a group not word that function a unit that function as a unit but does not contain a subject and predicate. When we say that a phrase is a unit. We mean that it functions as noun or as a modifier. Phrase can be classified as preposition phrase and as verbal phrase. A prepositional phrase is one that is introduced by a preposition that is followed by a noun of a pronoun and its modifiers. Propositions are words that are hard to define but easy to recognize. Frequently used prepositions include.

In	Toward	At
On	Before	For
Above	To	Behind
During	Beneath	Through
Off	Around	Beside
Outside	Along	Under
Into	Across	Into

Adopted (Betty Schramper Azzar, English Grammar: 1989:A2)

Then, prepositions followed by a noun and its modifier are called preposition phrase

In the house	after the lunch break	To the many students
above the treetops	Through the dark alley	about my grades
For a purpose	On the road	Below the water
Around the distant mountain.	green meadow	under the magnolia tree

These preposition phrases function as either adjective or adverbs. When they function as adjectives, they tell something about places, persons are thing

Table 1

*The example of preposition phrases*

No	Sentences	Explanation
1	The motor cycle in the house is mine	The preposition phrases in the house tells something about the word furniture it,too, is a prepositional phrases used as an adjective.
2	The soldiers marched down the road	The prepositional phrases down the road tells where The soldiers marched.

(Betty Schramper Azzar, English Grammar: 1989:A2)

## 2. Compound subjects.

Davis, (1983:12) states that compound subjects are contained of various sentence elements-subjects, predicate verb, direct object, and predicate normative, predicate adjective

Table 2

*The example of Compound subjects.*

No	Sentences	Explanation
1	Barack obama was the first president of America from black skin.	A subject is the world in the sentence about which something is said.
2	Prof.DR. Din Samsudin signed the mandate letter of Muhammadiyah leader on 27 th July, 2000	The predicate verb in a sentence is that tells what the subject did or what the subject is.

In this sentence something is said about Barack Obama, specially, that he was the president of America. The subject of this sentence is therefore Barack Obama.

3. A predicate adjective a word that follows the predicate and describes or limits the subject of the sentence. A predicate adjective, like a predicate normative, never follows an action verb, but rather follows a verb that express being or state of being.

Example;

*The ducks in the pound are too numerous to count.*

Numerous comes after the predicate verb are out tells how many ducks were in the pound. The word *numerous is* therefore a predicate adjective because it limits the members of the ducks in the pounds.

Oshima and Hogue (1983:5) state, good writing in English requires both good grammar and organization. So, to know how to organize the ideas quickly and write about them clearly, and will be able to write in the sophisticated, the writer must know a basic principles writing;

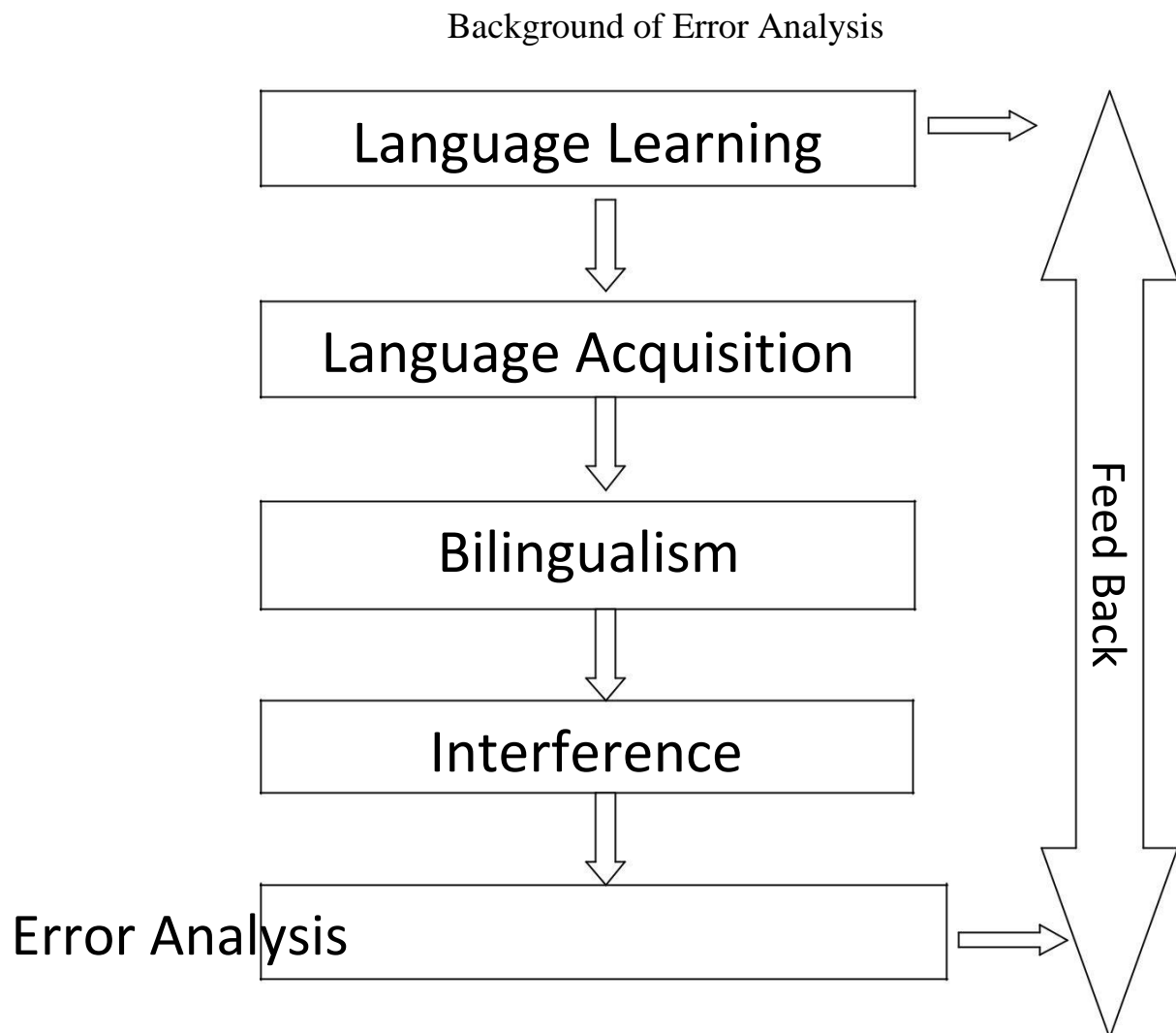
1. English rhetoric, which has two parts, it is organization and style. The good organization and style in English is different from another languages. In Oder to write well in English specially, the English writers have to learn the rule of English grammar and principals of English rhetoric.
2. English grammar; it contained of verb tenses, active and passive voice, independent and dependent clause, participial phrase

## 2.4 Second language Acquisition

There some reason why the people learn second language, some of them are to be able to read literature, to find a job, to business, to get information, to understanding the dialogue in film/movie, to communicate, to get state in a community, to be English writer and another.

Tarzan and Taiga (1990: 2) say that the people use two or more languages by turns, for difference purpose are connector two languages agents. These contacts pile the effect up, that the manifestation changes to the rule of first language application in using second language. So, the negative effect is occurred in language application, namely interference, and the error language is occurred

Table 3



In study of second language acquisition Yule ( 1996:191) says:

“Perhaps the primary difficulty for most people can be captured in term of a distinction between acquisition and learning. The term ‘**acquisition**’, when used the language, refer to the gradual development of ability in language by using in communicative stations. The term ‘Learning’, however applies to conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of the language’.

## **2.5 The Relationship between SLA and Error Analysis**

People need to learn second language when they have to face expanded way of communication that is beyond their local speech communities. When people learn second language it is called Second Language Acquisition.

According to Hakuta (Ellis 1985: 248), the main goal of Second Language Acquisition is the game of language acquisition research can be described as the research for an appropriate level of description for the learner’s system of rules. In other words, the main goal of Second Language Acquisition is to describe the process of learner acquisition, exactly the nature of the linguistic categories that constitutes the learner’s interlanguage at any point in development.

As the researcher has explained before that the error analysis is the main way of investigating Second Language Acquisition by collecting and describing samples of learners’ language. From that short explanation, there is implied the relationship between Second Language Acquisition and Error Analysis. Error Analysis is the way to investigate how the learners of second language acquire the language. For that, the Second Language Acquisition becomes the object of the research and Error Analysis is the way of the research.

## **2.6 Krashen's Input Hypothesis**

This hypothesis by Stephen Krashen is one of the most controversial theoretical perspectives in Second Language Acquisition. It is based on a set of five interrelated hypotheses that are listed below:

### **1.The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis**

As mentioned above, Krashen claims that there is a difference between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is 'a subconscious and intuitive process of constructing the system of a language, not unlike the process used by a child to 'pick up' a language'. Learning is a conscious process in which 'learners attend to form, figure out rules, and are generally aware of their own process' (Brown. H.Douglas 2002: 278)

### **2.The Monitor Hypothesis**

The monitor has nothing to do with acquisition but with learning. The learned system acts only as an editor or 'monitor', making minor changes and polishing what the acquired system has produced. According to Krashen, three conditions are necessary for monitor use: 1.sufficient time, 2. focus on form, 3. knowing the rules (cf. Lightbown, Spada 1995: 27).

### **3.The Natural Order Hypothesis**

This hypothesis states that we acquire the rules of a language in a certain order that is predictable (cf. Lightbown, Spada 1995: 27). However, this does not mean that every acquirer will acquire grammatical structures in exactly the same order. It states rather that, in general, certain structures tend to be acquired early and others to be acquired late. (cf. Krashen, Terrell 1983: 28)

#### **4. The Input Hypothesis**

This hypothesis states that it is important for the acquirer to understand language that is a bit beyond his or her current level of competence. This means, if a learner is on a level  $i$  the input he gets should be  $i + 1$ . This means that the language that learners are exposed to should be just far enough beyond their current competence that they can understand most of it but still is challenged to make progress (cf. Brown 2002: 278).

#### **5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis**

This hypothesis states that it is easier for a learner to acquire a language when he/she is not tense, angry, anxious, or bored. According to Dulay and Burt, performers with optimal attitudes have a lower affective filter. A low filter means that the performer is more open to the input language. (cf. Krashen, Terrell 1983: 38)

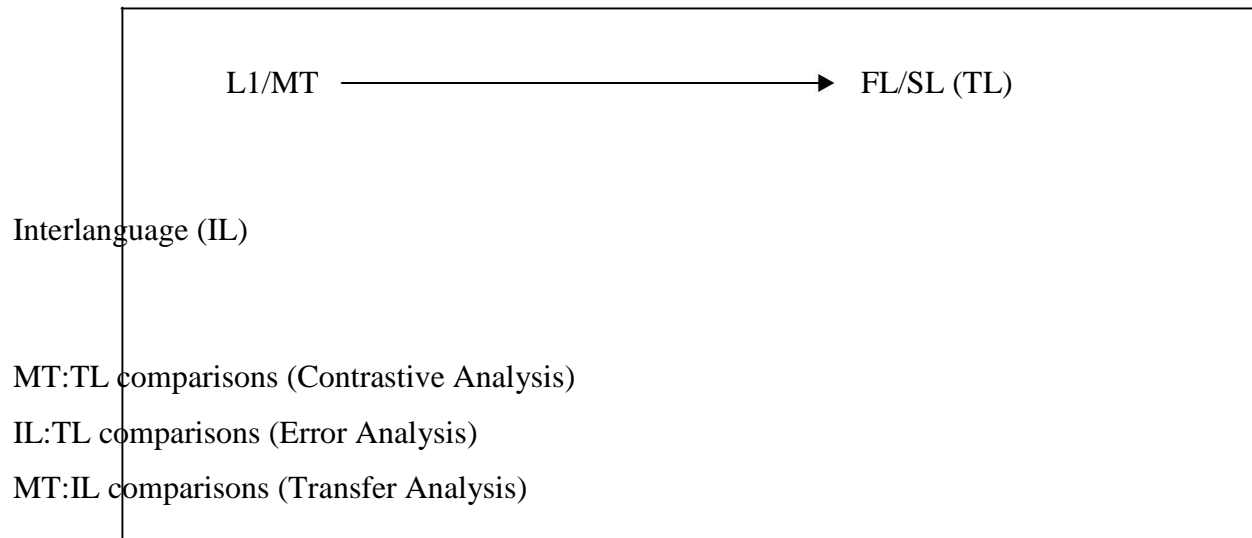
### **2.7 Errors and Mistakes**

The different system of language could make learners to make errors and mistakes. In order to analyze learners' errors in learning a foreign language, it is too crucial to make a distinction between mistake and errors.

#### **Errors**

As stated above, the different system of language could make us to make errors when using the target language. Here I will try to define what an error is. An error is noticeable grammar from the adult grammar of native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learners. (Brown H. Douglas, 1980: 165).





Points of comparison for successive FL learning paradigms  
(James, 1998: 3).

There are two ways to conceptualize 'interlanguage /IL'. First, it can refer to the abstraction of learner language, the aggregate of forms, processes and strategies that learners resort to in the course of tackling an additional language. This concept is similar to de Saussure's **langue**. Alternatively, 'IL' can be used to refer to any one of a number of concretizations (cf. de Saussure's **parole**) of the underlying system (James, 1998: 7) Errors are typically produced by people who do not yet fully command some institutionalized language system (Corder, 1974: 29). The errors themselves are competence errors. According to Corder, true errors are marker of the learners' competence (Richards, 1974).

Errors are caused by deficiency in competence and a shortcoming in the knowledge of language learners make errors when they have not learnt something correctly. From the linguists' opinion above, I would conclude that mistake refers to the failures to use the language system correctly caused by some factors such as carelessness, memory lapses, and physical condition. While error, refers to the failure to use the system correctly caused by the lack of the learners' competence.

### **Mistakes**

Mistake is different with error. A mistake refers to a performance error that is either random or a slip of the tongue, in that it is failure to utilize a known system correctly (Brown, 1980: 165). A mistake refers to performance errors that are a random guess or a slip, in that it is failure. Mistakes are caused by hesitation, slips of the tongue. The learner, who makes mistakes, will sometime use one form and sometime the others. This shows an inconsistency. For example:

- a. If learners produce “he must go” and “he must to go”.
- b. If the Indonesian learners pronounce the word error “intruction” not “instruction”

### **2.8 Sources of Errors or Interlanguage in language**

According to Richards (1974: 124), “the sources of errors in studying a language might be derived from the interference of the learners’ mother tongue and the general characteristics of the rule learning. The errors that are caused by the general characteristics of the rule learning are also called the intralanguage errors. And the errors caused by the interference of the learners’ mother tongue are called the interlanguage errors.”

Richards (1974: 124) distinguishes three sources of competence errors:

- 1) Interference errors occur as a result of the use of element from one language while speaking another. An example might be when a German learner of L2 English says, “I go not” because the equivalent sentence in German is “Ich gehe nicht”.

- 2) Intralingual errors reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply.
- 3) Developmental errors occur when the learner attempts to build up hypotheses about the target language on the basis of limited experience. Richards (1971) also classifies intralingual errors into four categories:

- (1) Overgeneralization

It occurs when the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of other structures in the target language. It generally involves the creation of one deviant structure in place of two target language structures (for example, 'He can sings' where English allows 'He can sing' and 'He sings').

- (2) Ignorance of the rule restrictions

It involves the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. An example is 'He made me to rest' through extension of the pattern found with the majority of verbs that take infinitival complements (for example, 'He asked /wanted/invited me to go').

- (3) Incomplete application of rules

It is typically related to analogy. It involves a failure to fully develop a structure. Thus learners of L2 English have been observed to use declarative word order in questions (for example, 'You like to sing?') in place of interrogative word order (for example, 'Do you like to sing?'). This type of intralingual error corresponds to what is often referred to as an error of transitional competence (Richards, 1971).

(4) False concepts hypothesized

The last category of intralanguage error, that is sometimes called semantic error, may be derived from faulty comprehension in the target language.

That statement above are also supported by Brown H. Douglas and also explaining of Ellis's statement, they can explain and classify source of some error or mistake or interlanguage in language which occur to English learner or English beginner .

There are many descriptions for different kinds of errors, it is inevitable to move further and ask for the sources of errors. It has been indicated in the first part of the study that errors were assumed as being the only result of interference of the first language habits to the learning of second language. However, with the field of error analysis, it has been understood that the nature of errors implicates the existence of other reasons for errors to occur. Then, the sources of errors can be categorized within two domains:

- a. interlingual transfer
- b. intralingual transfer.

***Interlingual Transfer***

Interlingual transfer is a significant source for language learners. *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (1992) defines interlingual errors as being the result of language transfer, which is caused by the learner's first language. However, this should not be confused with behaviouristic approach of language transfer. Error analysis does not regard them as the persistence of old habits, but rather as signs that the learner is internalizing and investigating the system of the new language.

Interlinguas errors may occur at different levels such as transfer of phonological, morphological, grammatical and lexic-semantics elements of the native language into the target language. These different levels can be explained with some possible errors of Turkish students.

At phonological level, the sounds that do not occur in Turkish cause the students to mispronounce some sounds. They attempt to pronounce ‘*th*’ of ‘thank you’ as ‘*t*’ of ‘tea’; or ‘*th*’ of ‘they’ as ‘*d*’ of ‘dean’. Or else, since Turkish does not let two consonants together at the beginning of a word, learners tend to place a vowel between them as in the example of \*‘sitation’, instead of ‘station’.

At morphological level, Turkish students tend to omit the plural suffix at the end of the word as Turkish does not put it in adjectival phrases indicating numbers as in the following examples:

\* Three book

\*Three student is coming. In Turkish it is “Üç öğrenci geliyor.”

It is also possible that students transfer some lexical items to the target language. For instance, the verb ‘sigara içmek’ can be expressed in one word in English: ‘smoke’. That is why students tend to say \* drink cigarettes, or \*smoke cigarettes.

### ***Intralingual Transfer and Developmental Errors***

Interferences from the students’ own language is not the only reason for committing errors. As Ellis (1997) states, some errors seem to be universal, reflecting learners’ attempts to make the task of learning and using the target language simpler. Use of past tense suffix ‘-ed’ for all verbs is an example of

simplification and over generalization. These errors are common in the speech of second language learners, irrespective of their mother tongue.

Intralingual errors result from faulty or partial learning of the target language rather than language transfer. They may be caused by the influence of one target language item upon another. For example, learners attempt to use two tense markers at the same time in one sentence since they have not mastered the language yet. When they say: \* “He is comes here”, it is because the singularity of the third person requires “is” in present continuous, and “-s” at the end of a verb in simple present tense. In short, intralingual errors occur as a result of learners’ attempt to build up concepts and hypotheses about the target language from their limited experience with it. Learners may commit errors due to this reason in many ways as in the following examples:

- \* He made me **to** smile.
- \* I want **learning** English.
- \* The meat smells **freshly**.
- \* Doctors always give us good **advices**.
- \* I don’t know why **did** he go.

There are three terms which overlap one another. These terms are ‘sources of error’ (Brown, 1980:173), ‘types of error’ (Richards, 1973:173), and ‘causes of error’ (Norrish, 1983:21-33) to have a clear understanding, the following explanation will be helpful.

Brown (1980:173-181) classifies sources of error into:

interlingual transfer, that is the negative influence of the mother tongue of learner,



In syntax \* I want that he comes here.

### **Ordering:**

In pronunciation \* fignificant for 'significant'; prulal for 'plural'

In morphology \* get upping for 'getting up'

In syntax \* He is a dear to me friend.

In lexicon \* key car for 'car key'

### **Omission**

Omission is the error of leaving out an item that is required for an utterance to be considered grammatical, for example:

*She talks polite.*

This sentence leaves out an item that is required to be considered grammatical for expressing adverb of manner; it is *-ly* must be added to the word *polite*.

### **Misinformation**

Misinformation is the error of using one grammatical form in place of another grammatical form, example:

*The child yelled with loud.*

This sentence contains misinformation in using the adverb of manner which marked by the using of *-ly* after the adjective. Therefore, the word *with* can not be used to express adverb of manner.

### **Misordering**

Misordering is the error of putting the words in an utterance in the wrong order. For example:



*He will come evening tomorrow.*

This sentence has the wrong order of adverb of time *evening tomorrow*. It must be changed becomes: He will come tomorrow evening.

### **Overgeneralization**

Overgeneralization is the error of using over grammatical form in an utterance.

For example:

*She types fastly.*

This sentence uses *-ly* to express adverb of manner but it is an over grammatical form because the word fast does not.

That statement above are also supported by Norrish, he can explain and also classify source of some error or mistake or interlanguage in language which occur to English leaner or English beginner

Norrish (1983:21-26) classifies causes of error into three types that is carelessness, first language interference, and translation. The three types of causes of error will be discussed briefly below.

#### **1. Carelessness**

Carelessness is often closely related to lack of motivation. Many teachers will admit that it is not always the student's fault if he loses interest, perhaps the materials and/or style of presentation do not suit him.

#### **2. First language**

Norrish states that learning a language (a mother tongue or a foreign language) is a matter of habit formation. When someone tries to learn new habits

the old ones will interfere the new ones. This causes of error is called first language interference”.

### ***3. Translation***

Translation is one of the causes of error. This happens because a student translates his first language sentence or idiomatic expression in to the target language word by word. This is probably the most common cause of error. Another expert who discusses the sources of error is Richards in Schumann and Stenson (1978 : 32) in his article “Error Analysis and Second language Strategies”. He classifies sources of errors into (1) interference that is an error resulting from the transfer of grammatical and/or stylistic elements from the source language to the target language; (2) overgeneralization, that is an error caused by extension of target language rules to areas where they do not apply; (3) performance error, that is unsystematic error that occurs as the result of such thing as memory lapses, fatigue, confusion, or strong emotion; (4) markers of transitional competence, that is an error that results from a natural and perhaps inevitable development sequence in the second language learning process (by analogy with first language acquisition); (5) strategy of communication and assimilation that is an error resulting from the attempt to communicate in the target language without having completely acquired the grammatical form necessary to do so; and (6) teacher-induced error, that is an error resulting from pedagogical procedures contained in the text or employed by the teach