CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

A. Definition of Grammar

There are many experts who define the term of grammar. Pei (1971:421) states that, "The study or the science of the usage of a language; the principle of correct usage; a treatise on this subject; speech or writing in accordance with established grammatical usage." while Eyers to Eyres (2000:4), says that "The rules which govern how elements of language are put together are known as grammar."

The goal of grammar is basically similar to an adequate description of the sentence level formal features of language. In a simple way, grammar is a description of how the elements of language are systematically combined.

B. The Importance of Learning Grammar

We know that every language has its own grammar, therefore someone who wants to learn a language has to understand its grammar. Grammar is considered as human being language knowledge and what their brains know that allow them to use a certain language. Finnochiaro (1974: 61) states,

"The grammar terms are used in helping the students to see the form meaning, position and function of any new item. It will depend

on a great extent on their knowledge of grammatical terms in their native language."

Every language has its own grammar, therefore someone who wants to learn a language has to understand grammar with knowledge of the nature of grammar. It is not hard for us to understand why grammar is useful and important. Without knowing the grammar of the language, it can not be said that we have understood the meanings of the utterances. Without learning grammar, it seems impossible to learn a language.

Dealing with the grammar, Billows (1961:155) proposes some important points of learning grammar, those are:

a. The teacher must have clear idea of the grammar of language, its structure and the usage

b. We should always be conscious of introducing of practicing some points of grammar

c. We must carry the stages of development of the language in his mind so that it becomes well-integrated growth in the mind

It is very clear that grammar is important. Without knowing the grammar of the language, we cannot be said to have learned the language. It seems impossible to learn a language for it is the grammar that tells how to use the language.

Grammar is one of a language components and grammar is an important component to support the mastery of the language skills in English, such as reading, speaking, writing, and listening. The writer can conclude that learning grammar is very important to support the student competence in learning English. It can help the learner to understand a language by knowing the form, position, function, and meaning of grammar language. The knowledge of the grammatical rules will help them master the language.

C. Modal Auxiliaries

Essentially, modality is the idea of taking about something which is not factual. All the verb forms which we have discussed up to this point, they are used to express statements or fact or what the speaker or writer considers to be fact. Modality discusses such nonfactual concepts as permissions, probability, necessity and obligation. There are all defective verbs in the sense that they do not have all the principal parts of English verbs. They also have meanings of their own which separates them from the functional auxiliaries. As we have already noted, the latter serves only as structural signals. The modal have a dual use. First, they have meaning of their own and second, they also are used like the functional auxiliaries. The modals are also used in shortened form (Hall, 1993: 145)

The best way to master the use of modal auxiliary correctly is practicing the different kinds of sentences in which they are used, always making absolutely sure of the meaning of what you are saying.

In the English language, a modal auxiliary verb is an auxiliary verb (or helping verb) that can modify the grammatical mood (or mode) of a verb. The key way to identify a modal auxiliary is by its defectiveness, the modal auxiliaries do not have participles or infinitives.

The modal auxiliaries are as follows: Will and would, Shall and should, May and might, Can and could, Must and have to, Ought to and had better, Dare and need (Archaic use), do.

1. **Will**

Generally, we use *will* to talk about the future but sometimes we use *will* to talk about now

E.g.: Do not phone Zaki now. He *will* be busy

(I know he *will* be busy now)

We often use *will* in these situations:

1) Agreeing to do something

E.g.: A: You know that book I lent you. Can you have it back if you have finished with it?

B: Of course. I *will* give it to you this afternoon. (not: I give).

2) Promising to do something

E.g.: Thanks you for lending me the money. I *will* pay back you on Friday (not: I pay)

3) Asking somebody to do something (*Will* you…?)

E.g.: 1. *Will* you please be quite? I am trying to concentrate

2. *Will* you shut the door, please?

Will is used to talk about the natural behavior of things

E.g. Stone *will* sink in the water

2. Would

Would is originally the past tense of will and it (or its contracted form'd) is still used in that sense: "In the 1960s, people thought we would all be driving hover cars by the year 2000."

Its more common use, however, is to convey the conditional mood, especially in counterfactual conditionals; that is, to express what would be the case if something were different: "If they wanted to do it, they would have done it by now." There is not always an explicit protasis ("if" clause) in this use: "Someone who likes red and hates yellow *would* probably prefer strawberries to bananas" means the same as, "If someone liked red and hated yellow, he or she *would* probably prefer strawberries to bananas."

Would can also be used with no modal or temporal meaning, to affect either politeness or formality of speech:

"I *would* like a glass of water, please."

"*Would* you be a dear and get me a glass of water?"

"It *would* seem so."

All of these uses can be described as displaying remoteness: either remoteness of time (the past), remoteness of possibility (a conditional), or remoteness of relationship to the addressee (politeness or formality).

3. Shall

Shall is used in many of the same senses as will, though not all dialects use *shall* productively, and those that use both shall and will generally draw a distinction (though different dialects tend to draw different distinctions). In standard, perhaps old-fashioned, British English, *shall* in the first person, singular or plural, indicates mere intention, but in other persons shows an order, command or prophecy: "Cinderella, you *shall* go to the ball!" It is, therefore, impossible to make *shall* questions in these persons. *Shall* we? Makes sense, *shall* you? Does not.

Shall derive from a main verb meaning to owe, and in dialects that use both *shall* and *will*, the former is often used in instances where an obligation, rather than an intention, is expressed.

4. Should

Should is to shall as would is to will, except that *should* is common even in dialects where shall is not.

In some dialects, it is common to form the subjunctive mood by using *should*: "It is important that the law *should* be passed" (where other dialects would say, "It is important that the law be passed") or "If it *should* happen, we are prepared for it" (or "*Should* it happen, we are prepared for it"; where early

Modern English would say, "If it happen, we are prepared for it," and many dialects of today would say, "If it happens, we are prepared for it").

Should commonly describes an ideal behavior or occurrence and imparts a normative meaning to the sentence; for example, "You *should* never lie" means roughly, "If you always behaved perfectly, you would never lie"; and "If this works, you *should* not feel a thing" means roughly, "I hope this will work. If it does, you will not feel a thing." In dialects that use *shall* commonly, however, this restriction does not apply; for example, a speaker of such a dialect might say, "If I failed that test, I think I *should* cry," meaning the same thing as, "If I failed that test, I think I would cry."

5. May

May is used to indicate permission ("*May* I have a word with you?") or possibility ("That *may* be."), though in some dialects, the former use is often supplanted by *can*, and the latter by *might* (which was originally its past tense), making this auxiliary rather uncommon in those dialects.

May is able to be used with either a present or a future sense: "I am not sure whether he is there now; he *may* not be, but even if he is not, he *may* go there later." Theoretically speaking, *might* is the corresponding past-tense form, but since some dialects use *might* quite commonly with a present or future sense, it is more common to use *may* or *might* with the perfect aspect to provide a past sense: "*He might have been gone when we got there, or he might have been hiding*."

May is also used to express irrelevance in spite of certain or likely truth: "He *may* be taller than I am, but he is certainly not stronger" *may* means roughly, "While it is true that he is taller than I am, that does not make a difference, as he is certainly not stronger." (However, it may also mean, "I am not sure whether he is taller than I am, but I am sure that he is not stronger.") In many dialects, *might* is used in this sense as well.

6. Might

In addition to what has already been mentioned, *might* also serves as the conditional mood of *may*: "If he were more polite, he *might* be better liked." Also, while there are some dialects where the use of *might* to replace *may* is very common, even in colloquial or informal speech, there are other dialects where *might* serves a more polite or formal form of may, just as *would* does for *will* and *could* does *for can*.

May and *might* do not have common negative contractions (equivalents to *shan't, won't, can't, couldn't* etc).

7. Can

Can is used to express ability (as in "I *can* speak English", meaning "I am able to speak English" or "I know how to speak English"), permission (as in "*Can* I use your phone?" meaning "Do you permit me to use your phone?"), willingness (as in "*Can* you pass me the cheese?" meaning "Please pass me the cheese"), or possibility ("There *can* be a very strong rivalry between siblings", meaning

"There is sometimes a very strong rivalry between siblings"). (Some of these senses may be perceived as incorrect in some dialects; in particular, formal American English often prefers to use *may* when the sense is permission and *could* when the sense is willingness.) The negative of *can* is the single word *cannot* or the contraction *can't*.

8. Could

Could has at least three distinct functions. First, it can often replace *can*, although generally it gives the phrase a conditional tone. For example, "I *can* help you with your work" suggests that the speaker is ready and willing to help, whereas "I *could* help you with your work" gives a more tentative sense of ability to help. In this sense, *could* is often used like a conditional: "I *could* help you if you helped yourself."

Second, *could* functions as a kind of past tense for *can*, though *could* does not function grammatically like any regular past simple verb.

Third, *could* carries the same meaning as *might* or *may* in the present. That is, *could* suggests that something is a possibility. For instance, John is not in the office today, he *could* be sick. In this phrase, *might* or *may* would carry the same meaning. Note that *can* in the negative carries the same idea as *couldn't* in this sense: "He *cannot* have left already; why *would* he want to get there so early?" Also, note that when regarding potential futures actions *could* is not equivalent to

might or *may*. "I *might* go to the mall later," does not have the same connotations as "I *could* go to the mall later," which suggests ability more than possibility.

9. Ought to and Had better

Ought to and *had better* are synonymous with one of the senses of *should*: it is used to express an ideal behavior or occurrence or suggested obligation. In dialects that use *shall* commonly, *should* has a wide array of meanings, so *ought* is very common (as it is more precise), as is *ought not* (or oughtn't). In other dialects, *ought* may or may not be common, but *ought* not is generally quite rare: the opposite of "You *ought to* tell him how you feel" is generally "You *should not* tell him how you feel," or "You *had better not* tell him how you feel." There is no negative contraction for *had better. Had better not* is used at all times. In speech, *the had* in *had better* is generally disregarded.

10. Dare and Need

Nowadays, *dare* and *need* are not commonly used as auxiliaries, but formerly, both were. *Dare* is especially rare in common parlance, with the notable exception of "How *dare* you!" "He *dare not* do it" is equivalent to today's "He *does not/will not/would not dare to* do it," while "It *need not* happen today" is equivalent to today's "It *does not need to* happen today" or "It *might not* happen today." However, in the sentence "I *need to* lose weight," *need* is not being used as an auxiliary since it can be conjugated to other forms: "I *needed to* lose weight," "I *have been needing to* lose weight," etc.

11. Do

As an auxiliary, *do* is essentially a "dummy"; that is, it does not generally affect the meaning. It is used to form questions and negations when no other auxiliary is present: "I *don't* want to do it." It is also sometimes used for emphasis: "I *do* understand your concern, but I *do not* think that will happen." Also, *do* sometimes acts as a pro-verb: "I enjoy it, I really *do* [enjoy it], but I am not good at it." (Other auxiliaries do this as well: "I can *do* it, I really can [*do* it], it just takes me longer"; but it bears particular note that in the case of *do*, it is often used as a pro-verb when it would be absent if the verb were present.) Because it does not affect the meaning of its verb, not all grammarians acknowledge *do* as a modal auxiliary. In a sense, it indicates a lack of modal auxiliary. (*Do* is also different in that it has a distinct third-person singular form, *does*, and in that its past tense, *did*, is used exactly as a past tense, not as a more general remote form).

12. Double Modal

In Standard English usage, it is rare to use more than one modal verb consecutively, with a few exceptions such as *might have to* or *may have used to*. A greater variety of *double modals* appear colloquially in some regional or archaic dialects. In the southern United States, for example, phrases such as *might, could* or *ought to, should* are sometimes used in conversation. The *double modal* may sometimes be redundant, as in "I *ought to should* do something about it", where *ought to* and *should* are synonymous and either one could be removed from the sentence. In other *double modals*, the two modal verbs convey different

meanings, such as "I *might could* do something about it tomorrow", where *might* indicates the possibility of doing something and *could* indicates the ability to do it.

These kind of *double modal phrases* are generally not regarded as correct grammar, although other *double modals* may be used instead. "I *might could* do something about it" is more often expressed as "I *might be able to* do something about it", which is considered more grammatical, although in fact it is still a *double modal*: *be able to* is used here as a modal verb synonymous with *could* or *can*. *Double modals* can also be avoided by replacing one of the modal verbs with an appropriate adverb, such as using probably *could* or *might* possibly in place of *might could*.

13. Must and Have to

Must and "*Have to*" are used to express that something is imperative or obligatory ("He *must* leave"). According to many scholars, the difference between "must" and "have to" is found in the source of the obligation.[citation needed] "Must" is said to be chosen when the obligation stems from an internal source (i.e. an obligation one imposes on oneself); "have to" when the source is external (i.e. your boss, rules, the law, an authority figure, etc). Compare "I have to finish this report today" (There is a deadline, which I did not set) with "I must finish this report today" (I am imposing my own deadline).

Here, the writer wants to describe exclusively about ten of modal auxiliary verbs. There are ten words in the English language, which give learner just about

ten times as much trouble as any other words. Those ten words are: *can, could, may, might, will, would, must, ought to, shall,* and *should*. They differ from the other auxiliaries in that they have no-s suffix for third person, no infinitive or participial form. They have only two formal tenses that are present and the past. (Marcella Frank, 1972: 92)

D. The Use of Modal Auxiliary Verbs

For the combination of modals with other verb forms, modal auxiliary verbs have two meanings. One use of all modal verbs is to talk about the possibility of a situation or event. Some of these verbs are used to say that situation is certain, other are probable or possible another is impossible.

1.   Probability

Verbs used: m*ay, may not, might, might not, will, will not, Will or Won't*

a.   *May, Might, Could*

May expresses a stronger probability than *might,* but the strength of *could* vary with the situation.

E.g.: 1.   I *might* come round this evening.

2.   I *could* come round this evening.

To express probability about something that is past, we use *the modals with have.*

E.g.:   John *might have* drinking lemonade, but it looked like ice to me

b. Will or will not (won't)

It suggests that you have information, which allows you to feel sure about the situation.

E.g.: Dony said he *would* call at this time. You know that Dony usually goes to study club on Friday

2. Obligation

Verbs used: *must, should, ought to*

We use *must* to describe an obligation where you have no choice. *Must* let you know what is allowed, what is forbidden against the law or rules.

E.g.: You *must* tale an umbrella when it rains

We use *should* and o*ught to* describe a sort of obligation where you have a choice

E.g. : 1. You *should not* drink if you intend to drive.

2. I think you *should or ought to* wear your glasses whenever you feel like doing any sums

In other words, *should* or *ought to* is to express moral obligation

3. Permission

Verbs used: m*ay, might, can, could*

When we are talking about permission (asking for it, or saying whether we or other people have it), grammarians used to say that we should use *may*;

in practice most people nowadays use *can* or *could*

E.g. : 1. *May* I borrow your phone?

2. *Could* you switch on the light for me?

4. Necessity

Verbs used: *must, need*

We use *must* or *need* to say something is or is not necessary or useful.

Need is similar with *must*.

E.g. : 1. You *must* obey the law

2. You *must not* smoke near the gasoline tank.

5. Ability

Verbs used: c*an, could*

We use c*an* to say what someone knows how to do or what is possible

E.g. : 1. Inung *can* speak several languages

2. *Can* she swim?

3. He *cannot* drink anymore

E. Error Analysis

1. Definition of Error

When we study language, we study the system of language. It has own its rules that are different from any other language. So the students make errors when they study a target language.

The definition of error analysis according to Ellis (in Tarigan, 1990:68) is:

"Analysis kesalahan adalah suatu prosedur kerja, yang biasa digunakan oleh para peneliti dan guru bahasa, yang meliputi pengumpulan sampel, penjelasan kesalahan tersebut, pengklarifikasian kesalahan itu berdasarkan penyebabnya, serta pengevaluasian atau penilaian taraf keseriusan kesalahan itu."

According to Raja T. Nasr adapted from Corder (1980:119) Error analysis is:

"Error analysis thus provides a check on guesses made by linguistic comparisons and is an important additional source of information for the selection of items to be included in the course of study."

2. **Error and Mistake**

In our daily life, we know error and mistake as synonym which have the same meaning. Sometime we are complicated to compare between error and mistake. Related to Tarigan (1995: 74-75) error and mistake are defined as follow:

a. Error is caused by the competence factor; it means that the students do not know the linguistic system which is used, It happens systematically and will be durable. Correcting can be done by teacher through remedial, practices, training, etc but it cannot be corrected soon.

b. Mistake is caused by performance factor. Restrictiveness in remembering something (forgetfulness) causes mistake in pronouncing a certain sound, word, spelling, or stress of word or sentence, etc. those

are unsystematically and a little while. In this case, they know the linguistic system basically and will correct it automatically.

The table bellow shows the differences and similarities between mistake and error.

The Differences and Similarities between Mistake and Error

CATEGORY	ERROR	MISTAKE
Source	Competence	Performance
Characteristic	It is systematic	Unsystematic
Duration	Permanent	Temporary
Linguistic system	The learner has not understood system.	The learner has understood system.
Result	Derivation	Derivation
Correction	Correction by teacher's help.	Correction by learner himself.

Despitefully, Harmer (2001: 99) suggests that mistakes are divided into three broad categories. "Slips" (that is mistakes which students can correct themselves once the mistake has been pointed out to them), "Errors"

(mistake which they cannot correct themselves – and which therefore need explanation), and "Attempts" (that is when a student tries to say something but does not yet know the correct way of saying it).

Based on explanations above, it is concluded that error is the deviations which are caused by competence factors of the students in understanding the system of constructing noun clauses.

3. **Procedure of Error Analysis**

According to Tarigan (1995: 67-68), there are many experts of language teaching who found that error analysis has steps or procedures which cover:

a. sample collection

The first step of error analysis procedure is collecting sample.

b. error identification

After collecting sample, the researcher identifies the errors in sample collection.

c. error explanation

The researcher explains the errors which are made by students.

d. error classification

The researcher classifies the errors based on causes.

e. evaluation

The researcher evaluates the level of errors.

Based on procedures above, it is concluded that error analysis is a working procedure which is used by researcher and language teacher; it covers sample collection, error identification, error explanation, error classification and evaluation. Below is a diagram of error analysis procedure.

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amely interlingual errors and intralingual errors. Richard (in Nababan and Utari: 135) says,

> "Interlingual error means error, which is caused by the difference rule between, the two languages, the target language and the mother tongue, while intralingual error, refers to error which is caused by its systems of rule of the target language."

According to Dullay and Crashen (1982: 150) explain, "a surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are altered, learners may omit necessary items or add annecessary ones; they may misform items or misorder them."

In this occasion, to know the structural errors, let's see the four kinds of error based on the strategy of ommision, addition, misinformation, and misordering.

1. Types of Error

Discussing about the types of errors, there are two types, namely interlingual errors and intralingual errors. Interlingual error means error, which is caused by the difference rule between, the two languages, the target language and the mother tongue, while intralingual error, refers to error which is caused by its systems of rule of the target language (Richard in Nababan and Utari:135)

We actually deal with the surface characteristic of the errors, when we talked about types of errors. The bases commonly used for descriptive classification for errors are: linguistic category, surface strategy, comparative analysis, and communicative effect.

According to Dullay and Crashen (1982:150) a surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are altered, learners may omit

necessary items or add annecessary ones; they may misform items or misorder them.

In this occasion, to know the structural errors let's see the four kinds of error based on the strategy of omission, addition, misinformation, and misordering.

a. Omission

This error occurs when the learners omit one of the element which can be a morpheme or word.

Example: - We *have* try it again (wrong)

- We *have to* try it again (right)

b. Addition

This error occurs when the students add one or more elements which should not exist in the sentence. These errors happen because perhaps the students are too carefully in using the rule of target language. In this regard, addition is divided into two categories, namely:

1) Double marking

This error occurs when the students fail to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic construction, but not in the others.

Example: - Your father *shoulds* go to the doctor at once (wrong)

- Your father *should* go to the doctor at once(right)

2) Regularization

This error occurs when the students use the tense marker (ed) in the irregular verb or when put the ending (s) in the noun that does not have the addition (s) form

Example: - You *mighted* ask before you borrow my car (wrong)

- You *might* ask before you borrow my car (right)

3) Substitution

This error occurs when a word's construction in sentence, phrase or clause incorrectly.

Example: - The doctor says that I *should* take a long rest (wrong)

- The doctor says that I *must* take a long rest (right)

4) Misinformation

This error occurs when the students do not know the correct form in making the sentences.

Example: -   Their lamp be broken. May be *might not* the light bulb just burned out. (wrong)

-   Their lamp *might not be* broken. May be the light bulb just burned out (right)

5) Mis ordering

This error is characterised by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morpheme in an utterance.

Example: -   They *may able to* come at once (wrong)

- They *may be able to* come et once (right)

4. Source of Error

The errors are caused by some factors. There are two kinds of causal factors of errors:

a. Interlingual errors

This error is caused by mother tongue's interference (L1) to target language (L2). There are also known as the contrastive analysis concept or L1 dependent errors. They deal with the negative interference between L1 and L2 including phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and structure.

E.g.: - *Will* go to the beach next week is Budi and his family (Yang akan pergi ke pantai minggu depan adalah Budi dan keluarganya). (Indonesian)

- Budi and his family *will* go to the beach next week. (English)

The error is in "*Will* go to the beach next week is Budi and his family". It should be "Budi and his family *will* go to the beach next week". It is caused by the interference of the first language to the target language.

b. Intralingual errors

Intralingual errors are errors that are caused by the students' difficulties in learning the target language itself. Here there is no

interference of mother tongue to target language. So, there are called L1 independent errors. According to Richards (1985: 162) Intralingual errors are the direct result of the learner attempts to create language based on his hypothesis about the language system. There are four categories of intralingual error, those are:

1)   Over generalization

Overgeneralization is a device used when the items do not carry any obvious contrast for the learner. The student makes deviation structure based on his experience about other structure in target language. They explain the norm of the target language not in right position

Here the students made incorrect patterns based on their experience about other pattern within the target language. It seems that they have not understood that every language has certain rules.

E.g.: - We *can runs*.

    It should be "We *can run*"

  - *Shall* we *goes* this evening?"

    It should be "*Shall* we go this evening?"

2)   Ignorance of rules restriction

Ignorance of rule restriction is error that occurs when rules are extended to contexts where in target language usage does not apply. It

has close relationship with over generalization. The students get the failure to apply the norm of the target language.

In this case the students' usually made a mistake by dropping or giving unnecessary addition. It has close relationship with over generalization stated above that the errors occur because the students fail in observing the context that does not expect the application, for example: You *shall* have an answers by tomorrow. Word *an answers* is wrong, it should be you *shall* have an answer by tomorrow.

3)   Incomplete application of rules

The students do not apply the complete norm of the target language. It involves a failure to learn more complex type of structure because the learner can achieve communication by using relatively simple rules. These are incorrect rules but acceptable.

Errors caused by the deviation of structures that describe level of rule development.

E.g.:   - He *is able to* take me home.

The error is in "*be able to*", it should be "He *can* take me home".

4)   False concept hypothesized

The students have the wrong concepts of language system. They often make errors because of misleading explanation from the

teacher, faulty presentation of structure or word on textbook, misleading definition, word or grammatical generalization.

These errors are caused by the incorrectness' insight on the differences in the target language itself.

E.g.: The government *should* <u>be do</u> more to help homeless people.

The error is in *to be* present that it is not necessary. It should be "the government *should* do more to help homeless people.*"* (Tarigan, Djago, 1990:85-88)