

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. The Importance of Grammar

1. Definition of Grammar

Since it has several meanings, the term grammar is very ambiguous. There is no generally accepted definition of grammar because many experts define the term differently. Grammar can refer to the study of sentences from an analytical and terminological standpoint. Scrivener (2004:54) says that when thinking of ‘grammar’ many people probably imagine a book full of explanations and rules that tell them which verbs have what endings, how to use adverbs, how to make a superlative, etc. As a result, when learning grammar, we will learn about the different parts of speech, their names and descriptions, as well as terms like phrase, clause, interrogative sentence, retained object, etc. We will also learn how to identify those categories in sentences or parse them (Robert, 1958:132).

Grammar is the systematized knowledge or the theory of sentence structure. Grammar may also be defined as the basic signals by which a language transmits meaning. It means that grammar is what we learn in our native language, thus, any native speaker of a certain language knows the grammar of his language (Robert, 1958:132). Therefore, if we know how to construct sentences in order to say that grammar consists of the patterns of utterance in using a language, grammar will usually control the use of language.

2. The Importance of Grammar

Grammar can be defined as the basic of a language. The first thing in making sentences is concerning grammar. In other words, grammar provides the rules for common use of both spoken and written language so we can more easily understand each other. If the sentences are not well-structured using grammar, there will be misunderstandings

in a conversation.

Grammar is an important aspect of a language where learners' and teachers' opinions vary. Some students love to find out or learn the proper usage of grammar while some want to do grammar exercises. The need for grammar is a key concept in learning a language. This means that grammar functions as an aid to learning instead of being an object of knowledge per se, and the importance of grammar cannot be ignored or neglected (Debata, 2013; Kachru, 2010). Broadly speaking, grammar is important because it is the language that makes it possible to talk about the language, yet for many language teachers and learners, the importance of grammar is associated with the accurate use of language for effective communication (Ahangari and Barghi, 2012). While some love grammar, others hate it and think that it is the most boring part of learning a new language. Whatever your stand is, you cannot escape from learning grammar; it is vital in every sentence you read or write, speak or hear. Grammar is simply the word for the rules that people follow when they use a language.

Knowing these definitions of grammar, we can draw the conclusion that people will be unable to communicate and understand each other without it. It is an important part of a language because a language is useless without it.

B. Analysis of Gerund

1. Definition of Gerund

Indonesian and English have some words which have the same meaning but are different in their functions. We often find verbs in English that function as nouns. In Indonesian there is a change in its forms in making a noun from a verb, for example: 'minum' is a verb that can be changed into a noun by adding suffix *-an* (minuman). In English we must also add the suffix into the word. On the other hand, the suffix of a verb is not always a noun.

Gerund has some of the properties of a verb, despite the fact that

it is used as a noun. It can take a compliment, such as a direct or indirect object, and it conveys action or being. Since every gerund is a verb with -ing tacked on the end, it's easy to spot. According to Houghton (1984:53) gerund is a verb that ends in – *ing* and function only as a noun.

Sometimes gerund seems like the participle and students think that the participle as the part of gerund because of the form. Notice that gerund has the same form as the present participle. However, it functions differently in the sentence. It is always a noun and can function in any noun position.

2. The Use of Gerund

Gerund is used in sentences in many ways as nouns and noun phrases. A noun is a word used as the name of anything—a person, an animal, an object, a place, a situation, a quality or an idea. Sometimes, the place of the noun can be replaced by the gerund (verb+ing). Nevertheless, some of the noun functions can be the function of gerund. Gerund can be used as subject, Direct object, Complement and Object of a preposition. Here are some functions of gerund:

a. Gerund as Subject

Gerund is used as the subject of the sentence and usually placed in the front of the sentence. In addition, gerund subject always requires singular verb as in the following example:

- *Making* paragraph is not hard
- *Preparing* for a test is a hard work.
- *Fishing* is my hobby.

The italic words above (*making*, *preparing*, and *fishing*) are the examples of gerund as the subject. They are placed in the front of the sentences.

b. Gerund as Direct Object

Gerunds are used in another way, gerund can function as a direct object of transitive verbs. Gerund takes the position after the verbs. For example:

- I stop *eating* fast-food
- She enjoys *playing* golf
- Toni stops *smoking*.
- We regret *wasting* time.

From the previous explanation above, we know that gerund as a direct object takes position after verbs. Then, the students should memorize the verbs commonly followed by gerund.

This is the list of verbs frequently followed by Gerund (Azar, 2003:369)

1	admit	He admitted <i>stealing</i> the money
2	advise	She advised <i>waiting</i> until tomorrow
3	anticipate	I anticipate <i>having</i> a good time
4	appreciate	I appreciated <i>hearing</i> from them
5	avoid	He avoided <i>answering</i> my question
6	complete	I finally completed <i>writing</i> my term paper
7	consider	I will consider <i>going</i> with you
8	delay	He delayed <i>leaving</i> for school
9	deny	He denied <i>committing</i> the crime
10	discuss	They discussed <i>opening</i> a new business
11	dislike	I dislike <i>driving</i> long distance
12	enjoy	We enjoy <i>visiting</i> them
13	finish	She finished <i>studying</i> about ten
14	forget	I'll never forget <i>visiting</i> napoleon's tomb
15	can't help	I can't help <i>worrying</i> about it
16	keep	I keep <i>hoping</i> he will come
17	mention	She mentioned <i>going</i> to movie
18	mind	Would you mind <i>helping</i> me with this?
19	miss	I miss <i>being</i> with my family
20	postpone	Let's postpone <i>leaving</i> tomorrow
21	practice	The athlete practiced <i>throwing</i> the ball
22	quit	He quit <i>trying</i> to solve the problem
23	recall	I don't recall <i>meeting</i> him before
24	recollect	I don't recollect <i>meeting</i> him before
25	recommend	She recommended <i>seeing</i> the show
26	regret	I regret <i>telling</i> him my secret
27	remember	I can remember <i>meeting</i> him when I was a child
28	resent	I resent her <i>interfering</i> in my business
29	resist	I couldn't resist <i>eating</i> the desert
30	risk	She risks <i>losing</i> all of her money
31	stop	She stopped <i>going</i> to classes when she got sick
32	suggest	She suggested <i>going</i> to a movie
33	tolerate	She won't tolerate <i>cheating</i> during an examination

34 understand I don't understand his leaving school

c. Gerund as Complements

Since gerunds are used as nouns, they can serve as subjective complements as well. In the following sentences, the gerund phrases that function as complements are equivalent to the subject:

- Toni's need is *knowing that someone cares*.
- Tommy's hobby is *collecting puzzles*.
- What we want is *making a sport club*.
- His favorite sport is *riding motorbike*.

d. Gerund as Object of Preposition

A preposition is usually followed by a noun, which is called the object of preposition. According to Straus, Kaufman & Stern (2014:18) preposition is word that indicates location (in, near, beside) or some other relationship (about, after, besides) between a noun or pronoun and other parts of the sentence. Any verb used as the object in prepositional phrases takes the form of a gerund. Most gerund phrases after prepositions function as subjects, especially those in adverbial prepositional phrases. For example:

- We talked *about going* to Bali for our vacation.
- Ali goes *on speaking* in the class.
- I'm interested *in learning* more about your work.
- They are fond *of climbing* mountains

e. Gerund Used after Possessive

Since the gerund is a noun, it can be preceded by a possessive adjective (my, your, etc) or a noun in the possessive case. This acts as its subject. The choice of possessive or non-possessive form depends on whether formal or informal usage is being observed.

- In formal English, possessive pronouns (e.g., our, his) are used to modify a gerund, as in the following sentences:
 - Mr. John complained about *our coming* to class late.

- We are excited about *his winning* a scholarship. (Azar, 1989)
- In very formal English, possessive nouns (e. g., Alice's, Bill's) are used to modify a gerund, as in the following sentences:
 - Mr. John complained about *Alice's coming* to the class late.
 - We are excited about *Bill's winning* a scholarship.
- In informal English, the object forms (e. g., us, him) are frequently used, as in the following sentences:
 - Mr. John complained about *us coming* to class late.
 - We are excited about *him winning* a scholarship. (Azar, 1989)
- The possessive forms are often not used in informal English, as in the following sentences:
 - Mr. John complained about *Alice coming* to class late.
 - We are excited about *Bill winning* a scholarship.

C. The Comparison between Gerund and Present Participle

The gerund and the participle are both with an *-ing* verbs. What's the best way to tell them apart? We can tell by looking at how they're used in the sentence. As a result, the gerund must be distinguished from the participle purely by its use. The function of a noun and the function of an adjective are all that is required to distinguish the two. The gerund is a verb form that is used as a noun, and the participle is a verb form that is used as an adjective. The participle modifies and qualifies its subject, meanwhile the gerund's subject is always construed as a modifier of the gerund phrase, and is usually in the possessive case.

The following sentences demonstrate the difference between gerund and present participle:

- The old man needs a walking stick. (Gerund)
(The old man needs a stick for walking)
- The walking man wants to meet you. (Present Participle)
(The man who is walking wants to meet you)
- The running girl is Maria. (Present Participle)

(The girl who is running is Maria)

The –ing form of the verbs in this list are frequently confused with those that take the gerund; the possessive is never used as a subject in the –ing form.

See	Hear	Have (not in present tense)
Notice	Listen to	Imagine
Watch	Feel	Keep
Look at	Perceive	Catch
Observe	Smell	Set/ Start/ Get

You can see the boy playing games.

I hear your friends shouting to you.

You can imagine the mountain getting eruption.

He noticed us speaking English last night

D. Error Analysis

1. Definition of Error

There are many errors in the teaching–learning process. According to Corder (1967) a learner’s errors are significant, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or producers or the learners are employing in discovery of the language.

From the definition above, the researcher concludes that error is the mistake that usually difficult or cannot be self-corrected. In this case, the teacher should do their job to help the students to correct their errors by doing analysis. So, errors by the students can be corrected and repaired to get the better value of their study.

2. Definition of Mistakes

A mistake refers to a performance error that is either random or a slip of the tongue, it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly (Brown, 1980:165). Huber (1983: 134) stated that temporary lapses of memory, confusion, slip of tongue and so on cause mistakes.

Accordingly, when committing mistakes, the speaker is normally capable of recognizing and correcting them.

All people make mistakes in both native and second language situations. A learner is considered to make mistakes when he or she has deviation. For example, a learner has known that the word “jury” can be used both in singular and in plural without changing its form. He will write, for instance, “The jury is divided in their opinions”, instead of “The jury are divided in their opinions.” The failure in identifying the correct form of a verb is because of the word “jury” which is not in the plural form. This occurs because he or she perhaps makes an assumption that the word “jury” has to be changed into “juries” which is not the way it should be.

3. Source of Error

By identifying the sources of error, the writer begins to know how the learner's cognitive and affective self relates to the linguistic system and also to formulate the process of learning his first foreign language. In this section, the scope of discussion is limited to errors on the use of gerund. There are two kinds of errors namely interlingual errors and intralingual errors.

When Indonesian students construct sentences with the gerund, they may make an interlingual mistake. Even though their native language lacks the same forms and rules as the target language, they make mistakes. According to Richards (1974:35) interlingual errors are errors which are caused by interference from the native language to the target language they learn. Moreover, Brown (1980:173) states that the beginning stages of learning a second language are characterized by a good deal of interlingual transfer from the native language.

Interlingual errors and intralingual errors can be divided into four terms, they are overgeneralization, ignorance of the rule restriction, incomplete application of rules, and false concepts hypothesized. According to Richards (Ramadhan 2014:9-10) intralingual or

developmental errors reflect the learner's competence at particular stage and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition.

a. Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization is negative intralingual error dealing with items that are contrasted in grammar of the languages. The learners create deviant forms in the target language in place of two regular structures. For examples:

- She will cries aloud.
- He can speaks English well.
- We are hope to see you.

Thus, they overgeneralize that the simple present tense 's' ending is required by the third person singular. Whereas, the form of English sentences is not fully the same as they expect. In addition, they may reduce their linguistic burden. Here are the correct answer:

- She will cry aloud.
- He can speak English well.
- We hope to see you.

b. Ignorance of Rule Restriction

Based on this type error, the learners fail to observe the restriction of existing structures. For instances:

- He asked to me about my family.
- She told to me her big problem yesterday.
- He showed to me his new cars.

In this case, they should remove 'to' in the sentence "He asked *to* me" because he applied the same preposition to different verbs. The following sentences are the correct forms of the sentences above:

- He asked me about my family.
- She told me her big problem yesterday.
- She showed me his new cars

c. Incomplete Application of Rules

This type occurs when a learner fails to apply the rules

completely due to the stimulus sentences. For example, the lecturer's question is *What is she doing?*, then the students' response is *She doing something*.

d. False Concepts Hypothesized

This type is sometimes called semantic error which may be derived from faulty comprehension of distinction in the target language. These particular errors are sometimes due to poor graduation of teaching items. In this type, the learners cannot differentiate between go and come, bring and take, too and very, etc.

4. Kinds of Error

(Dulay, et al,1982, pp) this gives us consideration that students' error is not the result of laziness or sloppy thinking but are based on some logics, as the result of the learners' use of interim principles to produce a new language. Those types of errors which belong to surface strategy taxonomy are: omission, addition, misformation, and misordering.

a. Omission

This type of error is characterized by the absence of an item, which must appear in a well-formed utterance. Certain linguistic forms may be omitted by the learner because of their complexity in production. Generally, there are two main kinds of omission; they are omission of content morphemes and omission of grammatical morphemes.

- Omission of Content Morphemes

This type of omission is related to the major constituent of a sentence such as: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. For example: *She give him nothing*. In this sentence, the learner omits a needed verb and the third singular marker -s. It should be *She gives him nothing*.

- Omission of Grammatical Morphemes

This type of omission does not carry the burden meaning. In

other words, it plays a minor role in conveying the meaning of a sentence. It includes noun and verb inflections (e.g. the -s in *birds*, the -s in *mother's*, the -ed in *looked*, the -ing in *laughing*, etc); preposition (in, on, at, under, etc); conjunction (and, or, but, because, if, although, etc); verb auxiliaries (is, will, can, etc); and article (a/an, the, those, these, etc). For example: *Marry is beautiful girl*. In this sentence, an indefinite article before a singular countable noun is omitted. It should be *Marry is a beautiful girl*.

b. Addition

This type of error is characterized by the presence of an item, which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. It means that learners not only omit elements, which they regard as redundant, but they also add redundant elements.

This error type is divided into subcategories namely: double markings, regularization, and simple addition.

- Double Markings This error is described as the failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic construction but in others. For example, *he doesn't knows your name*. This sentence shows the failure of deleting third singular person marker -s where the auxiliary does is required. This sentence should be *he doesn't know your name*.

- Regularization

There are both regular and irregular language in which students sometimes get confused to apply the correct in certain constructions. Sometimes, they apply the rule used to produce the regular ones to those that are irregular. This type of error is called errors of regularization. For example, *I putted my bag on the table*.

The word *putted* is the example of regularization in which the regular past tense -ed has been added to the items. It should

be *I put my bag on the table.*

- Simple Addition

This error is one of subcategories of addition that is neither a double marking nor regularization. For example: *We stay in over there.* The addition of proposition 'in' is not appropriately used before. It should be *we stay over there.*

c. Misformation

This type of error is characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure. This error has three subcategories, namely: regularization, archi-forms, and alternating forms.

- Regularization

A regular marker is used in place of an irregular one. For example, *She runned so fast.* The correct form of this sentence is *She ran so fast.*

- Archi-Forms

The selection of one member of a class of forms to represent others in class is often made by the learners. The form chosen by the learners is called archi-forms. For example, a learner may temporarily select just one of the English demonstrative adjectives this, that, these, and those. For example: *That dog, That dogs.*

- Alternating Form

Having his vocabulary and grammar grow and by using archi-forms, the learner can choose various members of class as an alternative to choose with each other. Thus, finding demonstratives is a need, as an example: *Those dog, This cats.*

d. Misordering

This type of error is characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme in an utterance. For example: *What daddy is doing?* This question is incorrect. It should be *what is daddy doing?*

E. Previous Related Research Findings

When a situation is conceived of as a series of dynamic, agentive events (iterative construal) or as a single perfective event, the gerund takes over as a coding device. Kaleta (2012) concluded that the general tendency as captured by the quantitative data remains: if a given situation is conceived of in terms of a transition from one state of affairs into another state of affairs or as a static perpetuation through time, it tends to be coded by the infinitive.

Correcting written errors is relatively simple because the teacher has time to consider how and what he should correct while correcting. The procedure is much more complicated during the oral correction. Hoxha (2015) said that behind every error correction is the desire that learners make fewer mistakes.

The study of error analysis will help to improve the process of learning a second language and provide more data for the development of second language acquisition theory. Moreover, according to Sompong (2014) it is essential to study the characteristics of the language errors, the pattern of the common errors, and the situation involved in the errors to help analyze errors systematically, as well as to understand and find the causes of such errors.

Teachers are not necessary to teach grammar if their students demand it, but rather that teachers can become more aware of the kinds of learning techniques that students are accustomed to and prefer, and how these ideas mesh with their own. According to Sopin (2015) concluded that It is important for teachers to be aware of their students' beliefs regarding the role of grammar instruction. In order to become aware of each other's beliefs about the roles of grammar instruction and error correction, it might be beneficial for students and teachers to begin dialogues such as those that took place during this study.

Based on the explanation above, the researcher can conclude that the same form of -ing form can make the learner confused about how and

where the gerund should be used correctly, but the weighting that the error is not such a big mistake, is also very motivating. Positive thinking may represent a kind of motivation in the foreign language learning process and by using a descriptive quantitative method, the researcher wants to analyze the English students' ability on the use of gerund in writing.

