AN ERROR ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH VERB PHRASES IN EXPLANATION TEXT BY EFL STUDENTS

A Thesis
Submitted as a Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for S1-Degree

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ABSTRACT

Many challenges and violations were faced by students when producing English texts, one of which were verb phrase error. The students had limited knowledge of the rules of verb phrase structures due to a lack of explanation from teachers about this matter. This study aimed to help students avoid error and improved their understanding of actual sentence structures. Therefore, this research was conducted to analyze the types of English verb phrase error in explanation texts by EFL students, especially twelfth grade students of SMAN 01 Penawartama.

This study focused on verb phrases and utilized the Dulay surface category taxonomy. A case study was conducted with 32 students of SMAN 01 Penawartama. The qualitative method was employed, and the following error analysis procedures were carried out: data collection, identification, description, and explanation. Data were collected through written tests and interviews. The test aimed to identify error in English verb phrases in writing explanation paragraphs, while the interviews aimed to determine the factor that influenced students to make error. Investigator triangulation was utilized to determine the validity of the data.

The results of the research showed that the types of error in English verb phrases in explanation writing were indicated by the mean score of omission error (15.15%), addition error (16.66%), misformation error (65.15%), and misordering error (3.03%). The highest frequency of error was misformation error (65.15%), while the lowest was misordering error (3.03%). On the other hand, the results showed that the factor influenced students to make error, as indicated by the mean score of carelessness (57.57%), first language (27.27%), and translation (15.15%). The highest factor was carelessness error (57.57%), while the lowest was translation error (15.15%). Therefore, the twelfth grade students of SMAN 01 Penawartama still needed to improve verb phrases in writing explanation paragraphs.

Keywords: *Error Analysis, Explanation Text Writing, Verb Phrases*

DECLARATION

The student identity, the undersigned below:

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Certify that this thesis is my work. I am completely responsible for the contents of this thesis. Other researchers' opinions or research findings included in the thesis are quoted or cited following ethical standards.

Bandar Lampung, November 15', 2023
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ADMISSION

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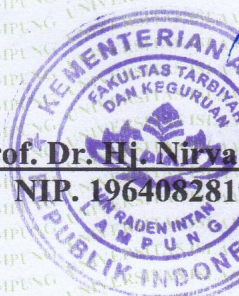
MOTTO

وَتِلْكَ ٱلْأَمْثَٰلُ نَضْرِبُهَا لِلنَّاسِ ۖ وَمَا يَعْقِلُهَآ إِلَّا ٱلْعَٰلِمُونَ ﴿٤٣﴾

"The parables We set forth for mankind, but none grasp their
meanings except those who possess knowledge".
(QS. Al-Ankabut: 43)[1]

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[1] "Tafsir Al-Quran and Hadist, https://tafsir.learn-quran.co/id/surat /Ayat-156," n.d.

DEDICATION

With great appreciation, I dedicate this thesis to myself, who always love and care. I would like to dedicate this thesis specifically to:

1. Allah, who always gives full mercies and blessings.
2. My beloved parents, Mr. Trijoko Waluyo and Ms. Ruliyah who always love and care about her. They both keep praying and motivating me for my life and my success.
3. My beloved older brother Ludi Iswanto, and my lovely sisters Lita Listia Ningrum and Deviana who keep motivating to finish her thesis immediately so that she can graduate right away.
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5. All lecturers in the English Department, Faculty of Tarbiyah and Teacher Training, Raden Intan Islamic State University
6. All my friends and family in the English Language Education Department class of 2019.
7. All parties who have helped me in completing this thesis, whom I cannot mention one by one.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Alistina was born on July 7, 2000, in Bogatama, Penawartama, Tulang Bawang. Alis the youngest of four children of Mr. Joko and Ms. Ruliyah. She has one brother and two sisters; the older brother named Ludi Iswanto, the first sister is Lita Setia Ningrum, and the second sister is Deviana. In her academic background, she began studying at the age of seven in elementary school at SDN 01 Bogatama and completed her studies in 2013. After graduating from elementary school, she decided to continue her education at SMPN 02 Penawartama and graduated in 2016. Following her graduation from middle school, she pursued higher education at SMAN 01 Penawartama and completed it in 2019. In the same year, she was accepted into one of the best colleges in Lampung, namely Raden Intan State Islamic University of Lampung.

Alistina attended Raden Intan State Islamic University Lampung, where she pursued her bachelor's degree majoring in English Education at the Faculty of Tarbiyah of Teacher Training, in the English Education Study Program through UM-PTKIN, and was accepted to the English Education Department.

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First, Praise is due to Allah, the most merciful and beneficent for her blessing and mercy are given during her study and in completing this graduating paper successfully. Then, peace and salutation always be with our prophet Muhammad SAW who has guided us from the darkness to the lightness. This thesis is entitled "An Error Analysis of English Verb Phrase in Explanation Text by EFL Students".

This thesis is presented to the English Study Program of UIN Raden Intan Lampung. The primary aim of writing this thesis is to fulfill a part the of student's task in partial fulfillment of the requirement to obtain an S-1 degree. However, this thesis would not have been completed without the aid, support, guidance, help, advice, and encouragement of countless people.

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Bandar Lampung, November 15t 2023
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

A. Title Confirmation

To understand the discussion of the research should be defined to validate the title and avoid differing perceptions of the key issues. The proposal title is **"An Error Analysis of English Verb Phrases in Explanation Text by EFL Students."** There must be a definition of each term in the title of the proposal as follows:

In language teaching and learning, error analysis is classified. It systematically generates unacceptable forms when a person learns a foreign language by applying any of the principles and procedures of linguistics. Error assumptions systematically reflect the level of competence achieved by learners. They are contrasted with "mistakes". This is the limit of performance that a learner can improve. A general distinction is made between errors that the speaker notices and highlights, errors that can be reported on demand, and errors that the speaker cannot correct due to a lack of language skills.[1] Crystal also asserts that error analysis is a technique that involves identifying, classifying, and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms that are committed by the learners in the process of learning a foreign language.

Verb Phrase, Biber stated that a verb phrase contains a lexical verb or primary verb as the head or main verb, either alone or accompanied by one or more auxiliaries.[2] A verb phrase is a group of words that includes a main verb any auxiliary verbs and other elements like adverbs and objects that work together to express a complete action or state in a sentence. For example, in the sentence "She is reading a book," the verb phrase is "is reading."

Explanation text According to Smalley and Ruetten "Explanation describes a sequence of the events or tells a story, in other words, explanation describes an experience. The logical

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[1] Crystal, D & Frances Ingemann, *Dictionary Of Linguistics And Phonetics, Ed. David Crystal, Language,* 6th Ed., Vol. 74 (Blackwell, 1998).

[2] D Bieber, "*Longman Grammar of Students of English*," *Parson Educational Ltd.*, 2009.

arrangement of ideas and sentences in the Explanation is chronological- according to time order". Moreover, Anderson states that "Explanation is text, which tells a story and in doing so, entertains or informs the reader or listener". It means that explanation is a piece of text that tells a story to inform, amuse, and entertain the reader or listener.

Error Analysis of Verb Phrases involves identifying and understanding errors or inaccuracies related to verb phrases in sentences. This can include errors in verb tense, subject-verb agreement, verb form, and the overall structure of verb phrases within a sentence. Analyzing these errors can gain insights into language proficiency and help learners improve their grammatical accuracy and fluency.

B. Background of the Problem

Every language has rules or conventions to produce a meaningful phrase to be put together in a sentence. Then, to produce a good text in English needs to have a good knowledge of English rules. Otherwise, the possibility of violating the English rules to produce English sentences will be widely open. The difference of conventions or rules between one language to another is very much assumed as one factor that may make foreign language learners encounter problems or even difficulties in writing any kind of text of the foreign language they are learning. The reason is that learners tend to apply the rules of their language to produce texts in the foreign language they are learning

Richards said many of the mistakes students make are caused by the strategies they use when learning a second language. Children learn their second language (English) after they have mastered their first (Indonesian).[3] Suyitno argues that "the first language strongly influences the acquisition of a second language." "Children will use the patterns of the first language

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[3] J.C. Richards, *Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*, 1st Editio(London:Routledge,1984),https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.4324/978131836003.

that they master deeply in the second language,"[4] Mackey believes the first language unconsciously influences children. It is the leading cause of second language errors. This influence manifests in language errors, namely language deviations/violations not by the rules of correct English, including errors in word choice, structure, and grammar. Every bilingual speaker will make mistakes because no one has ever made a mistake. As a result, bilinguals cannot avoid making errors.[5]

In international education, English is the language of instruction. This means that in learning activities, every teacher and student must use good and correct English rather than English as it is. Learning English requires mastering four fundamental English skills: writing, reading, speaking, and listening. These four abilities are critical for anyone wishing to learn or master English. Writing is an important skill that EFL students must master. Writing skills are needed by students in school as one aspect of language skills. After listening, speaking, and reading skills, their mastery is at the highest level. This is because, besides speaking skills, writing skills are productive and expressive.

Among the four language skills, writing skill becomes the focus of attention of this study and appears to be the most useful language skill. Writing a sentence is the ability to construct or compose one word to other words to form one that has a meaning. Heaton argues that writing skill is complicated and sometimes difficult to teach, requiring mastery of grammatical and rhetorical devices and conceptual and judgment elements.[6] People cannot write even a single letter of the alphabet without conscious effort of mind and hand, and to get beyond the single

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[4] Imam Suyitno, "Norma Pedagogis Dan Analisis Kebutuhan Belajar Dalam Pembelajaran Bahasa Indonesia Untuk Penutur Asing (Bipa)," *Diksi* 15, no. 1 (2015): 111–19, https://doi.org/10.21831/diksi.v15i1.6561.

[5] Mackey, Alison and Gass, *Second Language Research*, *Nucl. Phys.*, vol. 13 (London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey, 1959).

[6] J. B Heaton, *Writing English Language Text* (New Yoerk: Longman Group UK, 1989).P.135

letter, it must be known how to form words, how to put words together into sentences and how to punctuate the sentences.

A sentence is a group of words that expresses a statement, command, question, or exclamation. Swan states that a sentence consists of one or more clauses and usually has at least one subject and verb.[7] Writing begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark. Cook states that sentences can be classified according to the number and kind of clauses in the base into three types of sentences. These are simple sentences, compound sentences, and complex sentences. It is important for learners to have good skills in writing sentences with a good structure. If the students have good sentence construction skills, they can make and arrange the sentences into good paragraphs.[8] It is also relevant to what Widdowson states that language learning consists of an effort to get competent in constructing good sentences or how to use suitable sentences in context.[9]

Sentence construction is a lower-level skill and a foundational skill that students acquire at lower elementary-grade levels. Lower-level skills are crucial for writing skills to successfully engage in higher-order skills. More specifically, a lack of mastery in constructing syntactically complex sentences may hinder student's abilities to effectively translate thoughts and ideas into writing. Knowing how to plan, for example, has little value if cannot construct effective sentences. Poor sentence construction skills can be a serious inhibitor to successful writing. While a lack of sentence-construction skills impedes successful growth in writing for skilled writers, it is a significantly greater challenge for less-skilled writers to construct simple sentence structures, let alone syntactically complex structures. Words do

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[7] Swan Michael, *Practical English Usage* (Hongkong: Oxford University Press, 1995).

[8] S Cook, *The Scope of Grammar: The Study of Modern Grammar* (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1980).p.40-41

[9] H. G Widdowson, *Linguistics* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1992). p.74

not pattern directly into sentences. Some units between words and sentences are usually called phrases and clauses.

Phrases are equivalent to the word grouping of the previous paragraph and clauses to the larger units. So, words pattern into phrases, phrases into clauses, and clauses into sentences. Or, from an alternative perspective, a sentence is composed of one or more clauses, a clause is composed of one or more phrases, and a phrase is composed of one or more words. The smaller unit below the sentence is a clause, a group of words containing a subject and a predicate. A clause may be a sentence (an independent clause) or a construction within another sentence (a dependent or subordinate clause). Below the clause is a phrase with two or more words that do not contain the subject and verb to form a clause. The smallest unit is a word that grammatically interacts with other such units to form constructions on various levels. Phrases are important units of language that tend to be used often.

A phrase is a small group of words without both a subject and predicate, expectedly verb phrase, is considered the second level of classification as they tend to be larger than individual words but smaller than sentences. The words in a phrase act together to function as a single part of speech. For example, some phrases act as nouns, some as verbs, and some as adjectives or adverbs. Ba'dulu states that a phrase might consist of a head and one modifier or a head and more than one modifier. If the head is a noun, it is called a noun phrase; if the headword is a verb, it is called a verb phrase; if the head word is an adjective, it is called an adjective phrase, and if the headword is an adverb, it is called an adverb.[10]

All students of English throughout Indonesia are considered foreign language learners. For them, English is the foreign language they are learning, while Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian) is considered their mother tongue. Thus, they can use Indonesian rules to produce English texts. In other words, there is a wide

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[10] Ba'dulu Abdul Muis, "English Syntax," *Makassar : The UNM Publisher*, 2008. p.41

possibility for them to make violations in producing English text of any kind, which will result in various types of errors in verb phrases. Verb phrase is very important to be known because it is a part of sentences that can function as a predicate of a sentence. Therefore, the structure of verb phrases should be mastered. Concerning the background above, this study would like to focus on and carry out research under the title "An Error Analysis of English Verb Phrase in Explanation Text by EFL Students"

As learners of English, the students of the twelfth grade of SMAN 01 Penawartama are assumed to encounter difficulties and thus make errors in English verb phrases in producing English texts. Since the English rules are different from the Indonesian ones, they are assumed to use the Indonesian rules in English. When this phenomenon occurs, there is a possibility for them to make violations in English by, for instance, adding an unnecessary item in a construction that does not require it (addition error), or by omitting a necessary item from a construction that requires it (omission error), or by using a particular rule for a construction which requires a different rule (miss-formation error), etc.

Many types of errors in phrases have been found by several previous researchers in various regions so similar research needs to be held again because talking about language errors will never be finished if there is no awareness from all parties to use good and correct English. This research is different from previous studies. It discusses language errors and focuses on verb phrases, the object, and the location of this verb phrase error analysis research, namely on writing explanation text made by class Twelfth grade of SMAN 01 Penawartama. Twelfth grade of SMAN 01 Penawartama is a public senior high school in Tulang Bawang. Based on the results of observations, until now no one has ever conducted research on verb phrase errors in the school.

Based on my track record in teaching and learning English in the twelfth grade of SMAN 01 Penawartama, it was found that students can write texts, but they make errors in writing. Their errors in writing formed using tenses, incomplete paragraph

organization, and limited ideas explored. Thus, it leads them to get low marks in writing class due to their lack of understanding in making good writing. Some problems that happen in students' English writing are caused by differences in English and Indonesian structure and also, they do not understand how to make good writing. Errors were made by the students because of errors in grammatical and tense aspects made by them as word form, verb tense, adding a word, omission meaning not clear, and, run-on sentences, one of them being the verb phrase. The students have limited knowledge about verb phrase rules because of teachers' lack of explanation about it. Also, the teacher did not tell the differences between English verb phrases and Indonesian. The teacher only explains verbs generally. The last is that students have limited chance to expose their ideas in English writing or speaking, they only practice based on their textbook. In other words, the students have not mastered the knowledge or they do not understand the rules of the language, while the error is caused by factors such as tiredness, doubt, nervousness, laziness, or unfocused in the classroom. Based on the description above, the topic was selected because she found that many students made errors in the usage of verb phrases when they described something well in their writing. Most of them do not know about the rules of usage of verb phrases in writing explanation texts. Based on the explanation above, research on the above phenomena is urgently needed. This study focuses on the taxonomy of errors in writing. Errors taxonomy is a taxonomy based on implementation errors.

The purpose of this research is to identify the types of errors that occur in writing, to describe the types of errors in verb phrases, the most and the fewest in students' writing, and to explain the reasons for verb phrase errors occurring in explanation text by class Twelfth grade students of SMAN 01 Penawartama. The aspect of errors was chosen in this study to find out the location of student difficulties so that aspects that need to be emphasized in the learning process can be determined later. The students of class XII will be chosen as the subject of

this research because the students in class XII could already be said to have mastered a lot of vocabulary. In addition, in communicating more often use the mother tongue (Indonesian), for example during non-formal activities such as breaks, so the pouring of ideas into the form of essays is likely influenced by the mother tongue (Indonesian).

C. Focus and Sub-Focus of the Research

The scope of this study refers to the parameters under which the research was analyzed. So, the scope of the study is also known as the delimitation of the study. Relating to the background above, this study is limited to the area of student errors of the English verb phrase in explanation text made by the Twelfth grade of SMAN 01 Penawartama. Which were the search of errors and the analysis about types of errors in verb phrases in explanation text.

D. Problem formulation

Based on the background presented above, it was given the test to the students and interviewed to do an error analysis on the student's writing of explanation text in the twelfth grade of SMAN 01 Penawartama. The problem formulation is:

1. What are the types of verb phrase errors committed by the twelfth grade students in the explanation text?
2. What are the contributory factors of errors that led the students to commit errors in arranged verb phrases?

E. Objective of the Research

In line with the statement above, the objectives study are:

1. To investigate and analyze the types of verb phrase errors committed by the twelfth grade students in the explanation text.
2. To investigate the contributory factors of errors that led the students to commit errors in arranged verb phrases.

F. Significance of The Research

This study can be useful in three aspects, namely theoretically, practically, and pedagogically. This is stated as follows:

Theoretically, the results of this study can be used as a reference for those who will conduct further research related to verb phrase error analysis and students' writing abilities. In addition, all research theories are expected to enrich the reader's knowledge and insights into the field of linguistics, especially verb phrases.

Practically, this research is expected to be able to correct student errors and assist students in forming words or sentences in producing writing in their classroom learning.

Pedagogically, teachers know how far the learning objectives have been achieved in the learning process. In addition, students are expected to have the knowledge to handle verb phrases to be able to construct their texts.

G. Relevant Research

This research shows several previous studies related to errors in writing to find out the research gap. To get some references and enrich some insights about verb phrases, several previous studies that are relevant to the research that will be carried out by researchers are found as follows:

The first previous research was conducted by Comfort B. Saviour, Ph.D, titled "A Critical Analysis of Verb Phrases in the English Language". Department of Communication Studies University of Illinois at Chicago Northern Illinois, United States. Verb phrases in the English language play an important role in communication. The English language develops with the changing times using verb phrases. There are different critical analyses of verb phrases in the English language. Verb phrases generally fall into two types: finite, where the head of the phrase is a finite verb; and nonfinite, where the head is a nonfinite verb, such as an infinitive, participle, or gerund. The verb phrase is understood in terms of a traditional distinction between modality, tense, aspect, and voice categories. The study concluded that verb

phrases in English are distinguished by the kinds of marking they can take and what they can co-occur with. Verb phrases in English are easily identified as they have an auxiliary verb followed by an action or main verb. However, a verb phrase is a syntactic unit consisting of an auxiliary (helping) verb preceding the main verb. It often contains a head verb, complements, objects, and modifiers as its dependents. One of the recommendations made was that students should improve their English language skills in order to be able to use verb phrases effectively in their sentences.[11]

The second one was conducted by Anggraeni, students Ability to Construct Verb Phrase in Writing English Sentences (A Descriptive Study on The Third Semester Students of English Department in Muhammadiyah University of Makassar)". A thesis of English Education Department Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Makassar Muhammadiyah University. The findings of the research were the students" ability to construct finite verb phrase and non-finite verb phrase in writing English sentences. The results of the students" writing test showed different scores between finite verb phrases and non-finite verb phrases, the means score of finite verb phrases was 72 and the mean score of non-finite verb phrase was 66. It could be stated that students" were better in constructing finite verb phrase than non finite verb phrase but both of them were fair good.[12]

The third previous study conduct by Sasmiasih, Error analysis on the students writing of descriptive text. Students' errors were classified into three categories. Those were head errors, premodifier errors, and postmodifier errors. Head errors are errors related to wrong placement of head of noun phrases and wrong form of noun. While for premodifier errors, the writer divided them into 3 types of errors. Those were; determiner errors, enumerator errors and adjective errors. And the other

[11] Comfort B.Savior, "A Critical Analysis Verb Phrase in English Language," *Deparment of Communication Studies University of Illinois at Chicago Northen Illinois, United States*, 2021.

[12] Rini Anggraeni, *"Students Ability to Contruct Verb Phrase in Writing English Sentence,"* 2019.

kinds of error are errors related to postmodifier that divided into prepositional phrase errors and relative clause errors. The numbers of those errors in percentage were as follows: head errors 17,07%, premodifier errors 43,59%, and postmodifier errors 39,34%. It is concluded that the dominant errors liess on the use of premodifier on noun phrases in their descriptive writing. In relation to this, it is suggested that the eighth year students of MTs. Assa'id Blado should be given intensive exercises on premodifier on noun phrases in their writing. It is quite necessary for the eighth year students and the teacher of MTs. Assa'id Blado to be informed about the results of this study, so that they can improve their teaching learning process.[13]

The fourth previous study conduct by Ferdiansyah This research was conducted by using descriptive qualitative research method. The sample of the research was VIII A class in SMPN 2 Bandar Mataram Lampung Tengah that consists of 23 students. The sample was conducted by purposive sampling technique. In collecting the data, the researcher uses the documentation was students' task about descriptive text. The result of this research showed that there were 39 items. The proportions (frequency and percentage) of the students of the students' error using noun phrase in descriptive text writing are the head with 16 items or 41,02%, pre-modifiers with 21 items or 53,85%, post-modifiers 2 items or 5,13%. It shows that the highest error made by students is pre-modifiers, and that the lowest is post-modifiers.[14]

The last study was conducted by Adi Jaya Putra, the title is Difficulty Analysis Regarding the Use of Verbs in Language Writing English (A Case Study of Third Grade Students at Puspita Bangsa Vocational School, Ciputat) In this thesis, the author uses descriptive techniques in describing the sample data has been obtained. The total population in the study amounted to 183 students. The author chooses accounting class as the research

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[13] *Eka Sasmiasih, "An Error Analysis on Students Writing of Description Text,"* Jakarta, 2014.

[14] Ferdiansyah, *"An Error Analysis Of Using Noun Phrase In Writing Descriptive Text At The First Semester Of The Eight Grade Students,"* Lampung, 2020.

sample. The writer analyzed 40 samples of research and found that almost all of the students' writing had problems in their writing. The author gets 54 errors regarding usage verbs from 15 student writings. Of the 54 errors, the writer classifies his students into three categories, namely: Omission error, Wrong combination/mis-form, and Redundancy error, of the three categories, omission errors are the most common errors that often appear in student writing regarding the use of verbs.

From the previous learning above, students made many errors in the sub-field of linguistics, namely syntax. So, this study was conducted that described verb phrase errors in students' writing. The similarities between the research above and mine are about analyzing errors in students' writing skills. However, what differentiates the above study from mine is the location, sample, and research objectives. However, this research is different from previous studies. The research data was collected from student writing skills by twelfth grade of SMAN 01 Penawartama. Furthermore, the theory used to classify data is the linguistics taxonomy surface strategy taxonomy proposed by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen.[15]

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[15] S. Pit Corder, "Error Analysis and Remedial Teaching," *IATEFL Conference (Budapest)*, 1974, 1–15. (IATEFL Conference: Budapest) 1974. P. 1-15

H. Research Method

1. Research Design

This study uses a qualitative method. It aims to describe the types of errors in the English explanation texts made by the students of the twelfth grade of SMAN 01 Penawartama. The research design is as follows:

Explanation text as Data Sentences	Data Processing Identification of erroneous Verb Phrase	Erroneous Verb Phrase as Raw Data

Types of Error - Omission - Addition - Mis-formation - Mis-ordering	Data Analysis - Identification - Classification - Description - Correction - Classification
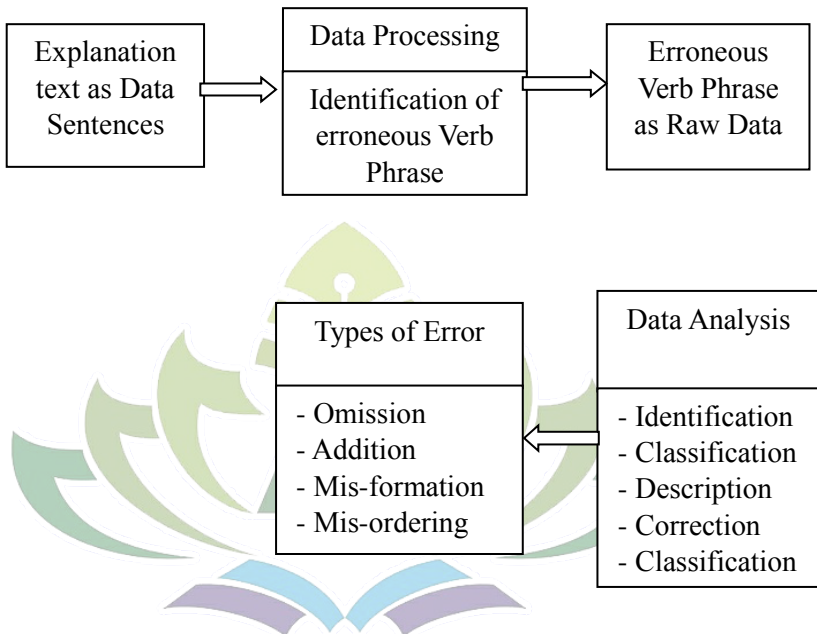
The data sources were explanation texts made by the students. The data found in such processing aim to identify the erroneous verb phrases used in the students' explanation texts. These erroneous verb phrases were considered raw data to be analyzed to find the types of errors. The research uses content analysis, which is a research method used to analyze the content of various forms of communication, such as texts, images, audio, or video. It involves systematically categorizing and interpreting the content to identify patterns, themes, or relationships. Content analysis can be qualitative, quantitative, or a combination of both, depending on the research objectives and methodology. It is widely used in

fields such as communication studies, media studies, Sociology, psychology, marketing, and other fields that use content analysis to understand the messages conveyed in different media and their effects on individuals or society. The post-test identifies and understands the types of errors made by the students and the reasons why they made errors in verb phrases in explanation text writing. Administers the test to the twelfth grade of SMAN 01 Penawartama using test sheets as the research instrument to collect data from the students. Additionally, it was interviews 32 students through focus group interviews, divided into 5 groups. The purpose of the test is to identify the types of errors made by the students in verb phrases in explanation text writing, while the interviews aim to determine the factors contributing to these errors.

Cresswell states that qualitative research is focused on understanding and delving into the central phenomenon.[16] Based on the definition above, this study focuses on the phenomenon of errors in the verb phrase field. The study describes the students' errors in writing Explanation texts. According to Nassaji, qualitative research provides a more in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. This research is concerned with answering "what" rather than "why" or "how" something has happened. As described, qualitative research involves collecting and analyzing verbal data written by the student and presenting it in statistical analyses to provide information to the readers.[17]

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[16] J. W Cresswell, *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative.* (Prentice Hall Upper Saddle River, NJ., 2002).

[17] H Nassaji, "Qualitative and Descriptive Research: Data Type versus Data Analysis. Language Teaching Research," 2015.p.129-132

2. **Data Source**

   In this study, the respondents are Twelfth grade students from SMAN 01 Penawartama. This class comprises four classes: XII-MIA1, XII-MIA2, XII-IIS1, and XII-IIS2. There are 31 students in XII-MIA1, 30 in XII-MIA2, 30 in XII-IIS1, and 32 in XII-IIS2, totaling 123 pupils. It was gathers data from XII-IIS2, which consists of 32 students. Students must write an Explanation text, and they are free to choose the theme. The data source is the subject from which the analysis data are derived. The primary data consists of all the verb phrases in the students' explanation texts, which extracts from the writing skills of twelfth grade SMAN 01 Penawartama.

   .

3. **Research Instrument**

   To gather the data, the test and a sheet of paper was used as research instruments. The test aims to identify the types of errors students make, which are categorized into four: omission, addition, formation, and ordering. It was used to pinpoint the source of errors made by students, while the interview aimed to understand why students made errors in verb phrases in explanation text writing. When created the test, facilitated by distributing sheet papers and consent forms. These forms are designed to obtain students' permission to analyze their written documents and conduct interviews, during which students provide their mobile phone numbers. The interviews were used as an additional instrument in this study.

   The interviews with students in a focus group setting, with six groups, each comprising 5 to 7 students. Five questions were asked to identify the reasons behind the errors made in verb phrases in explanation text writing. These questions were derived from Norrish's theory.

The teachers administer a writing test for an explanation text, distribute the test papers to every student, and collect them once students have finished writing. The papers are then submitted to the teacher, who identifies and circles the incorrect words. Finally, the information is collected and analyzed. The interview was conducted after analyzing the errors in the student's written explanation texts.

4. **Procedure of Collecting the Data**

In collecting these documents, first, asked permission from the English teachers to retrieve data on student writing. After obtaining permission, determine the class to be sampled using purposive sampling, a non-random method that selects samples based on specific criteria. This approach aims to ensure that the selected samples can effectively address the research questions. According to Sugiyono, purposive sampling involves selecting samples based on specific considerations.[18] Similarly, Sujarweni defines purposive sampling as a method for selecting samples based on considerations or criteria.[19] In this school, there are four classes in the 12th grade, and class XII IIS 2 was selected.

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison assert that interviews can reveal the interviewee's feelings and obtain information from the interviewee's perspective. The interview was conducted structured after analyzing errors in the student's writing. The interview results provided valuable supporting data for evidence and validity in this study, elicited responses from the research sample, and complemented the main data, which consisted of explanation text written by students. Interviews were utilized to investigate and clarify student errors and identify the underlying contributing to these errors. In determining these factors, this study draws upon

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[18] Sugiyono, *Metode Penelitian Kuantitatif, Kualitatif, Dan R&D* (Bandung: Alfabeta, 2016).p.85

[19] V. Sujarweni Wiratna, *Metodologi Penelitian Bisnis Dan Ekonomi*, 1st ed. (Yogyakarta, 2015).p.86

Norrish's theory of sources of error. [20] The following are the questions posed to the research subjects (further details can be found in the attached appendix to this research).

5. **Technique of Collecting Data**

    The type of data in the research is qualitative data. The reason aimed to describe the types of errors made by the students in constructing verb phrases, rather than counting the number of errors they made. In collecting the data follow these steps:

    According to Arikunto, a test can be described as a series of questions or other instruments. To collect the data, conducted several stages:[21]

    1. Asked the teachers for permission to conduct research at the school.
    2. Give a worksheet (test) to write an explanation text to students.
    3. Next, the teacher asked the students to do the test according to the worksheet instructions.
    4. After the students finished their writing, the students gathered their writing in front of the class
    5. The number of students who will be testing is 32 persons, which means that collected 32 explanation texts. All the texts will be labeled as Text 01 – Text 32. They are considered as the data sources, while all erroneous verb phrases found in those texts are taken as the raw data.
    6. And then, after having all the students write, which consisted of 32 explanation texts, the next is identified the errors in their writing.

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[20] Hasyim Sunardi, "Error Analyzing in Teaching of English," *Kata*, 2002.p.47

[21] Arikunto, "Prosedur Penelitian Suatu Pendekatan Praktis," *PT. Rineka Cipta Jakarta*, 2006.

7. To analyzed and classified the most common errors made by students in writing explanation based on Dulay's theory of classification error.

6. Technique of Analyzing Data

The Explanation texts produced by the students were analyzed through two types of analysis: error analysis and percentage analysis, as briefly described below:

a. Error analysis:

The purpose of the error analysis was to gather data about the types of errors in the English verb phrases used in the explanation texts created by the students. Corder developed an error analysis procedure consisting of several stages, outlined as follows:

1) Identification:

As the initial step, all erroneous verb phrases found in the explanation texts created by the students were identified, although not all of them were listed as raw data. If two or more erroneous constructions were found in the same text or different texts but comprised the same words and displayed the same alteration. Conversely, all erroneous constructions displaying the same alteration but consisting of different auxiliaries or different heads were listed as data. In this manner 32 erroneous as raw data the table contains four headings: Data number, identification of error, correction and cause of error. The data codes were in the form of numbers ranging from 01 to 32. These data codes were intended to clearly display the data in the correction and explanation, while the error types were meant to facilitate the classification of errors in the final step. On the other hand, the text sources indicated from which text the erroneous phrases were derived.

2) Correction:

This step corrected the erroneous verb phrases based on the contexts in which they occurred.

3) Classification:

The corrected and explained erroneous verb phrases were classified according to their types.

4) Explanation:

In this step, the listed and corrected erroneous verb phrases were explained. The explanations addressed how they were erroneously altered based on the contexts in which they appeared.

During the study, it was necessary to analyze the data after it had been collected. The next step is analyzed the students' errors from the test, which were presented in tables. Each table contained one type of error made by the students. After the tables were completed, described the errors made by the students. Additionally, utilized interview data to analyze the causes of students' errors in verb phrases in writing Explanation texts. Subsequently, drew conclusions based on the analyzed data. The descriptive analysis technique (percentage) was employed using the following formula:

$$P = \frac{F}{N} \times 100\% = \dots$$

P: Percentage

F: Frequency of error made

N: Number of samples observed/cases.[22]

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[22] Prof. Drs Ans Sujiono, "Pengantar Ilmu Statistik Pendidikan," *Jakarta: PT. Raja Grafindo Persada,* 2008.p.43

Research variables and indicators

Table 1.1

Research Variables	Indicators
Types of Errors	Omission of necessary elements • Omission of Auxiliary Verb • Omission of Main Verb
	Addition of necessary elements • Double marking • Regularization • Simple Addition
	• The incorrect structure of an elements of the verb phrase
	• The incorrect placement of an elements of the verb phrase

7. Trustworthiness of the Data

This research must emphasize validity and reliability to verify the accuracy of the findings. Validity is the degree of accuracy between the data in the research object and the result can report. Thus, valid data are not different from data reported by researchers and data that occurred in the object

of research.[23] Stainback in Sugiyono defined reliability as the consistency and stability of the data or findings. From a positivistic perspective, reliability is typically synonymous with the consistency of data produced by observations made by different researchers.[24] In qualitative research, four criteria can be selected to check the validity and reliability of data: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. In this research only utilized credibility to check the trustworthiness of the data. One of the types of credibility was triangulation. Here is the triangulation as follows:

a. Investigator Triangulation

   The utilization of multiple investigators was known as investigator triangulation. The ability to corroborate findings across investigators without prior discussion or coordination could greatly improve the credibility of the findings. Investigator triangulation was especially useful for reducing bias in data collection and analysis. In this study asked one of UIN RIL's linguistics lecturers to double-check all of the gathered data.

I. **Systematic of the Discussion**

   The systematic of the discussion in this research is as follows:

   1. **Chapter I. Introduction**

      This chapter contains title confirmation, the background of the problem, identification of the problem, focus and sub-focus of the research, formulation of the problem, the objective of the research, significance of the research, relevant studies, research method, and system of the discussion.

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[23] Sugiyono, *Op.Cit.*,
[24] "Ibid.," n.d.

2. **Chapter II. Literature Review**

An explanation of various theories that are used as the research's framework may be found in this chapter. A literature review aims to provide knowledge about a particular topic or research field and present this information in writing. Those theories assist in carrying out the research.

3. **Chapter III. Description of the Research Object**

This chapter contains a general description of the research and a presentation of the research facts and data. The general description of the research explains the definition and specific information related to the research object. The presentation of the research facts and data describes the data finding presentation and the data analysis procedures.

4. **Chapter IV. Research Analysis**

This chapter contains the data analysis and research findings. The data analysis describes the analysis of research data by presenting the facts and data found. The research findings describe the results of the analysis that answer the research formulation and conclude the phenomena that occur based on the researcher's reflection.

5. **Chapter V. Closing**

This chapter contains the conclusion and suggestions. The conclusion provides a summary related to all the findings of the research that are connected to the research problem. The suggestions contain recommendations for the next researchers who are interested in this topic.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter looks at some related literature in this analysis. The related literature consists of the concepts used in the research topic. For theory, researchers use references from a variety of related books.

A. The Concept of Error Analysis

Learning a foreign language is different from learning a first language. Children who learn foreign languages always commit the mistake that it is caused by interference of the native language and lack of knowledge about the target language. The problem for linguistics, as well as for the children learning the language, is to determine from the data that has been mastered by the speaker–hearer and that he puts to use in actual performance.[25] These incorrect data cause the children cannot understand the material and make some errors.

1. Definition of Error

There are many definitions of errors presented by experts. Those definitions contain the same meaning while the difference lies in how they formulate them. According to Norrish, error is a systematic deviation, when a learner has not learned something and consistently gets it wrong.[26] According to Dulay, Burt, and Krashen stated that errors are defined as the flawed side of learners' speech or writing, which deviates from the come-selected norm of mature language performance. It means that errors are the student's learning process to the next level.[27]

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[25] Chomsky Noam, *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (Cambridge, Mass ; MIT Press, 1965).

[26] Norrish Jhon, Tammase. 20011. *Language Learners and Their Errors.* (Hongkong: Marchmillan Press Ltd, 1983).p.8

[27] Dulay, Burt, and Krashen., *Language Two* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1982).p.138

2. Definition of Analysis

Errors in writing such as tenses, prepositions and low vocabulary are the most common and often type errors that are done by learners. The learner usually face difficulties in learning the grammatical aspects of the target language, such as in subject-verb agreement, the use of preposition, articles and the use of correct tense. According to dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics, A distinction is sometimes made between an error, which results from incomplete knowledge, and a mistake made by a learner when writing or speaking and which is caused by lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or some other aspect of performance.[28]

The fact that the learners do make errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of a system operating within the learners, which led to much of study of learner's errors called error analysis. And then the learners did errors and these errors can be detected, evaluated and categorized to explain something of the system operating within the learner, leading to a surge of study of learners' errors, named error analysis.[29]

Human learning is fundamentally a process that involves the making of mistakes. Mistakes, misjudgment, miscalculations, and erroneous assumptions form an important aspect of learning virtually any skill or acquiring information.[30] It is inevitable that learners make mistakes in the process of foreign language and that process will be impeded if they do not commit errors and then benefit from various forms of feedback on those errors. Thus, the researchers and the teacher of foreign language came to realize that mistakes a person made in the process of constructing a new system of language is needed to be

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[28] Richards, Jack. C and Richard Schmidt, Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, (Longman: Great Britain, 2010)p.201.

[29] Schmidt. *Op.Cit.,*

[30] H. B Doughlas, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, fifth edit (San Fransisco State University: Longman, 2006).p.257

analyzed carefully, for they possibly held some of the keys to the understanding of language acquisition.

Corder noted that a learner's errors are significant in that they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learner or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language. It means that the student's errors need not be seen as signs of failure in learning a language.[31]

Furthermore, errors are significant in three ways:

a. To the teacher : They show a student's progress
b. To the researcher : They show how a language is acquired, and what strategies the learners use.
c. To the learner : They can learn from the see errors.

From the explanation above, analysis of error is a study of identifying, describing, and classifying the noticeable in adult grammar of native speakers. The last purpose of error analysis is to find the feedback, such as references in language learning which is able to prevent and to minimize the errors that may be made by the students.

3. **Definition of Error analysis**

Learners, in learning a second language, often produce erroneous utterances whether in their speech or in their writing. They find difficulties in learning the target language since its rules are different from those of their mother tongue. Those errors happen because there are influences of the rules of their mother tongue on those of the target language. In order to make it easier for the learners to study the target language, all problems of error faced by them should be observe, analyze, and classifiy to find or to reveal the solution to the problems. The study of errors is commonly called error analysis. James states that error analysis is the process of determining the incidence, nature,

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[31]Ibid. p.217

causes, and consequences of unsuccessful language.[32] In addition, Crystal also asserts that error analysis is a technique that involves identifying, classifying, and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms that are committed by the learners in the process of learning a foreign language. In other words, error analysis is uses to identify, classify, and interpret the errors committed by the learners in the language learning process.[33]

Richards stated that error analysis is the study and analysis of errors made by second or foreign-language learners. Based on the definition, it is known that error analysis is necessary to conduct only for the errors made by the learners in learning a second or foreign language. Error analysis is also a way to investigate errors in the second or foreign language acquisition.[34] This study of errors (error analysis) in students' writing is part of an investigation of the process of English language learning. Furthermore, from the above fact interested in conducting the study entitled "An Error Analysis of English Verb Phrase in Explanation Text by EFL Students". This research aimed to find out the kind of error analysis found in Students' Writing in the aspect of grammar, punctuation, and spelling and to find out of error analysis found in students' writing by EFL Students.

Corder has developed error analysis procedure that consists of several stages. Those stages are as follows:

a. Choosing the language corpus: This step is concerned with deciding on the size of the sample, deciding on the medium of the sample taken, whether it is spoken (orally) or written (writing), deciding the homogeneity of the sample that includes background, age, type of education & location.

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[32] C James, *Error in Language and Use.* (London and New York: Longman, 1998).p.1

[33] D Crystal, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987).p.112

[34] Richards, *Op.Cit.,* p.1

b. Identifying errors: in the corpus, before identifying the errors, the researchers have to compare the sentences that learners produce with what seem to be the normal or correct sentences in the target language. After knowing which errors and mistakes students commit, only occurring errors are identified for further process/procedure.

c. Classifying error: After all errors are identified, they can be classified into types of errors.

d. Describing errors: In this step includes describing the types of errors and then providing the correct ones.

e. Evaluating error: This step involves in assessing the seriousness of each error.[35]

Based on the statements above, errors can be described by using the error analysis procedure which is proposed by Corder it consists of five stages. These are choosing the language corpus, identifying errors in the corpus, classifying errors, describing errors, and evaluating errors.

Richards says error analysis deals with the differences between the way people learning a language speak and the way adult native speakers of use the language.[36] Corder claims that error analysis can help us assess the student's language knowledge. He also says that error analysis it both ancient activity and a comparatively new one.[37] Els stated error analysis is often carried out with the aim of finding an application for its result.[38] Error analysis (EA) appeared in the 1970s to discuss the errors made by language learners. EA offered an alternative view towards learners' errors compared to contractive analysis (CA). According to

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[35] S.P Corder, *Error Analysis.* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1974).p.125

[36] ibid.32

[37] S. Pit Corder, *Error Analysis and Interlanguage* (oxford: Oxford University Press, 1981).p.51

[38] Toe Van, Els, et, al., *Applied Linguistic and the Learning and Teaching Foreign LanguagesLinguistics.* (Australia: Edward Arnold Ltd, 1987).1987.p.48

Richards and Schmidt error analysis, learners' errors are not only caused by the native language but also by more universal learning strategies.[39] The fact that learners' Brown argue errors can be observed, analyzed, and clarified to reveal the learners' errors became the basis for EA to investigate the errors. It contrasts with CA which views that the learners' errors in the target language is the result of interference from their first language.[40]

EA replaced CA in the early 1970s because of the following reasons (Saville- Troike):

a. The errors that were predicted by CA do not always occur in actual learners' errors. Many of learners' errors did not relate to the L1 interference.

b. As the theory of linguistic has changed, the concern for structural linguistic moved from surface-level forms and patterns to fundamental rules.

c. Linguists and psychologists questioned the assumption of behaviorists who believe that habit formation is a part of language acquisition.[41]

Ellis said that the mover of the analysis of learners' errors refocused the errors from the language process and language acquisition perspective. Ellis suggested five steps to analyze the learners' errors: sample collection, error identification, error description, error explanation, and error evaluation.

The first step is collecting sample data for analysis. The researcher may control the data by narrowly specifying the sample that they intend to collect. Some researchers used samples that collected in weeks, months, or even years to determine patterns of error utterances. The second step is the

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[39] Richards J.C. & Schmid, R *Op.Cit*.,

[40] H. D Brown, *Principles of Language Learning & Teaching*, 4th ed (New York: Pearson Education, 2007).

[41] Saville Troike.M. &, *Introducing Second Language Acquisition* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006).

identification of errors. In this step, the researcher identified the errors by comparing the learners' sentences with the corresponding native sentences. Then, the researcher identified which parts of the learners' sentences differed from the natives' sentences. The third step is a description of the errors. In this step, the researcher describes the errors using the surface strategy taxonomy in order to describe the difference between learners' sentences and the corresponding native's sentences. Corder in Ellis classified the errors into three types:

a. Presytematic errors occur when the learners are not conscious of the existence of particular rules in the target language.
b. Systematic errors occur when the learners have an understanding of the rule, but the rule is an incorrect one.
c. Postsystematic errors occur when the learners produce errors inconsistently even when they understand the rules.

The fourth step is an explanation of the errors. In this step determines the sources of error in order to find the reasons for the learners' errors. The last step is the evaluation of errors. In this step, the researcher determines which parts of the errors need more explanation or attention. Those five steps are important in order to analyze and understand the learners' errors.[42]

So, error analysis has been defined in different ways, however, all definitions deal with the study of learners' errors in learning language, either second or foreign language. Besides that, error analysis shows as how the language is required and the difference between the way people learn and the way of people learning the way of a native speaker speaks or writes.

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[42] R Ellis, *The Study of Second Language Acquisition* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1994).

4. Error and Mistake

In the process of foreign language learning, inevitably, students sometimes make mistakes. However, some students make the same mistakes even though such mistakes have been pointed out to them. Then they are called errors. Thus, It is essential to differentiate between errors and mistakes. Errors are systematic, while mistakes are accidental. James asserts that an error occurred when there was no intention to commit one.[43] According to Erdogan, a learner makes a mistake because of lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or some other aspects of performance. In addition, it is called a mistake when the learner can correct a fault in they output. On the other hand, if the learner is unable to make self-correctness that it is the error. [44]

Furthermore, as cited in Erdogan suggests two ways to distinguish between an error and a mistake. The first way is to check the consistency of learners' performance. It is a mistake when they sometimes use the correct form and sometimes the wrong one in the written form or spoken. However, it is an error if they always use it incorrectly in the learning language process. The second way is to ask the learner to try to correct they own errors. it can indicate that the learners commit errors when they are unable to make self-correctness. In other words, it happens because of lack of learner's knowledge to the target language. While if they are successful to correct the utterance, then it is a mistake.[45]

It can be concluded that students commit errors that is if they keep performing incorrectly toward the target language that they learn, and when they are asked to correct the errors, they cannot correct them. While mistakes happen when their existences are inconsistent, and they can be corrected by the students. As the result, in this research the research described verb phrase errors which found in the student's written

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[43] C James, *Op.Cit.*,.p.77

[44] Ibid.78

[45] Erdogan, V, *Contribution of Error Analysis to Foreign Language Teaching* (Mersin University of the Faculty of Education, 2005).

Explanation text by checking the consistency of student's performance. Gives the students second chance to write Explanation texts with the free topic of the texts that they had written. If there found in the second text that the students kept writing the wrong form, then it can be concluded that they commit errors.

5. **Factors of Errors**

In order to analyze the error which is made by the learner, it is important to make clear explanation about error. In fact, errors are considered as an important mark of language development in language learning. According to Corder, the errors made by the ESL/EFL learners are significant because they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language.[46] It means that errors can be caused by the language acquisition of students, and how the students process in learning English. It is noted that the learn errors are a register of their current perspective on the target language.[47] In the early period, the native language interference was identified as the only source of errors committed by language learners. Later, two major sources of errors have been recognized:

a. **Interlingual Error**

Interlingual error or we usually call it as mother tongue interference. Language transfer is a major error which refers to the effect of the mother tongue toward learning of the target language.[48] Richards defined interlingual errors as the errors caused by the

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[46] S.P Corder, *The Significance of Learners Errors* (International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 2000).p.167

[47] C James, *Op.Cit.*, p.7

[48] H. Brown Doughlas, *Op.Cit.*,.p.264

interference of the native language.[49] These errors are the results of the learner's application of the native language elements in their spoken or written performances of the target language. When encountered with new language, people tend to consciously or unconsciously draw a connection between what they already know and what they do not. Learners carry over the existing knowledge of their native language to the performance of the target language.

In most cases, it is inevitable to learn a foreign language solely without depending on some linguistic features of the language which has already acquired. At any rate, the interference can occur in various areas of linguistics components including phonology, morphology, grammar, syntax, lexis and semantics.[50] Furthermore, the influence presents in a degree to which both native language and target language differ or similar to each other. The influence is stronger where there are greater appearances of differences. When the linguistic principles of the native language are much differ from that of target language, the learners find it difficult to comprehend, and they begin to apply the rules and structures of native language in their learning process. Chelli defines that interlingual errors as being the result of language transfer, which is caused by learner's first language.[51] While Al- Khresheh suggested that interlingual errors committed by literal translation.[52]

1) Transfer error

Error caused by interference from mother tongue. A student who has not known the rules of target

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[49] Richards Jack, C, *Error Analysis: Perspective on Second Language Acquistion*, 2000.P.205

[50] R Ellis, *Op.Cit.,*.p.350

[51] Chelli. Saliha, *Interlingual and Intralingual Errors in the Use of Preposition and Articles.*, n.d.

[52] Al-Krashen M. H, "Interlingual Interference in English Language Word Order Structure of Jordanian EFL Learners," Proceedings of the European Journal of Social Sciences 16 (2010).

language will use the same rules as he obtained in his native language.

2) Mother tongue interference

Errors are produced in the learners attempt to discover the structure of the target language rather than transferring models of their first language.

3) Literal translation

Errors happens because a student translates his first language sentence or idiomatic expression into the target language word by word.

b. Intralingual error

Intralingual transfer (error within the target language itself). This major source has been recognized as the source of error which extend beyond interlingual errors in learning language. Learners may experience confusion from learning the pattern of the newly acquired language, rather than from language transfer.[53] these errors are referred to as the errors that occur because of the ineffective traits of learning such as faulty application of rules and unawareness of the restrictions of rules. The intralingual errors, therefore, are irrelevant to the native language interference, but led by the target language itself. In the language learning process, these errors normally occur when the learners have acquired insufficient knowledge.[54]

Developmental errors are the errors that occur when the learner attempts to build up hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or text-book. It can be noted that errors in writing produced by EFL learners are the results of learners incomplete knowledge of the target language.

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[53] H. Brown Doughlas, *Op.Cit.*, p.264

[54] C Kweeraa, "Writing Error: A Review of Interlingual and Intralingual Interference in EFL Context.," *English Language Teaching.*, 2013. P.13

Richard classifies the intralingual errors into four categories including over generalization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of the rules, and false concept hypothesized or semantic errors.[55]

1) Overgeneralization

It happens when a learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structure in the target language. The example of forming plural by adding "s" to even irregular plurals, also generalizing the "-ed" past form.

2) Ignorance of rule restrictions

Is specific in the sense that one is normally said to be ignorant of structure; the learner of the second language does not obey the structure of the target language. In this type of error, the learner fails to observe the restrictions of existing structures. Some rule restriction errors may be accounted for in terms of analogy and may result from the role learning of rules.

3) Incomplete application of the rules

This error may occur when learner fails to apply the rules completely due to the stimulus sentence.

4) False concept hypothesized

Learners faulty understanding of distinctions of target language items leads to false conceptualization. Learners faulty understanding of distinctions of target language items leads to false concept hypothesized.

c. **Factors of error by Norrish**

Norrish in Hasyim classifies the causes of error into three types that is carelessness, first language

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[55] Richards Jack, *Op.Cit.*, p.120

interference, and translation. Those are discussed below:[56]

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 they loses interest perhaps the materials and/or style of presentation do not suit them. This error was the caused by the carelessness of the student, or can be said the student was not careful in writing a word in a sentence. On the other hand, factors which became the source of the reason why the students make error in using English text is the style of presentation they teacher in teaching, which according the students, the teachers in teaching in the classroom is too stressful and too rigid, boring, unattractive way of teaching, and a little fierce, so they feel fear when the teacher has begun to enter the classroom to begin the lesson. The other thing they say, they teachers in teaching is too boring, which only focused on textbooks, no a kind of game that motivates student learning related to the themes discussed, so many students do not attention when they teacher explaining the lesson, they feel the way teachers teach less interesting and less stressful.

First language

Norrish states that language learning is matter of habit formation. When someone tries to learn new habits the old ones will interfere the new ones. This cause of error is called first language interference. It happened because the students are still influenced by their mother tongue in writing explanation texts using verb phrases. Where according to them the words they wrote to make the sentence are correct. They are still influenced by their habit of making

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[56] Sunardi, *Op.Cit.,* p.47

sentences using their mother tongue (Indonesian), where they assume that the formation of the words they write to make up the sentence is correct

3) Translation

Translation is one of the causes of errors. It happens because a student translates his first language sentence or idiomatic expression into the target language word by word. This cause of error is closely related to the previous cause of error: first language interference. When student or someone try to translate the first language into the target language, the first language will interfere the target language in their translation. This probably the most common cause of error. The students translate their first language sentence to the English language word by word. The students were still influenced by their mother language in writing explanation text using English verb phrase. Some of them still made errors in using English verb phrase they used English verb phrase in Indonesian rule. So they still like to be confused or inverted in placing English verb phrase in making sentences. They think in making a sentence in English and Indonesian, its formation and sentence structure is the same, but it is very different. As we know, English and Indonesian verb phrase has some differences; one of them is in Indonesian, Verbs often change form to indicate tense or agreement with the subject, but in Indonesian: Verbs generally do not change form to indicate time.

d. Factors of error by Brown

Brown classifies the sources of error into four sources, those are interlingual, intralingual, context of

learning and communication strategies. The four sources of error will be discussed briefly below:[57]

1) The first source of error is interlingual transfer

It is the beginning stage of learning second language. It is the negative influence of the mother tongue of learner. In this stage, students are not familiar yet with the use of target language, so they use a previous experience when they learn it.

2) The second source of error is intralingual transfer

It is the negative transfer of items within the target language. In this stage, students just learn some of target language, so students apply the structure into a new form and develop it that does not correspond to target language or mother language.

3) The third source of error is context of learning

It overlaps both types of transfer. In this stage, context refers to the teacher or the textbook. In classroom, the teacher or the textbook can lead the students to make errors. It can be called false concept.

4) The last source of error is communication strategies

It is related to learning style. In this stage, students have to use their production strategies for getting the message. But sometimes it can be source of error.

e. **Factors of error by Richards**

According to Richards, there are five factors that can influence the language learner in the learning process. There are; [58]

1) Language Transfer

Sentences arranged by the learner in the target language may get disturbances from their mother tongue. So, this factor can be considered as the

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[57] H.D Brown, *Op.Cit.,*.p.223

[58] J.C. Richards, *Op.Cit.*, p.5-14

major, but not the only factor that disturbs language learning.

2) Intralingual Interference

Intralingual interference is a term that is not defined as a reflection of the mother tongue structure, but it is about partial structure in its target language. In the learning process, the intralingual interference represents the student's difficulties, for example, the differences between the verb inflections in / walk and she walks. The students may be inferred they get difficulty with the basic rule.

3) Sociolinguistic Situation

Learning a language is also depends on the social situation. One of the effects of socio-cultural settings is the learners' motivation. This is how the community holds the role of the student's motivation. As Jakobovits & Lambert[59] assume that the different processes of language learning depend on the different motivations in any type of situation. The process and result of learning with one given setting and more than one setting will be different.

4) Modality

There are two modalities in learning a target language, the modality of getting the target language and the production modality. Vildomec assumed that the problem of language learning is more about the productive rather than receptive side. [60]

5) Age

The other factor that affects the approximate system of the second language learner is age. As Hasan Al Basri said that learning at a young age looks like carving in the rocks. It means that age affects the

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[59] Jakobovits L. A. & Lamber W, "Semantics Satiation among Bilinguals," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 1961.62

[60] Vildomec V, *Multilingualism. Leyden, the Netherlands:* (Language switches in L3 production, 1963).

learning process. As Lenneberg[61] stated, some of the characteristics of child language have been attributed to the nature of memory and processing in childhood. So, the errors will have a big opportunity in the learning process according to the age of the learner itself.

In this study, the researcher used the theory factors of error by expert Norrish, because this theory was relevant to the topic and variables of the research, so it can be used as the basis for my research. This theory has also been tested because based on research in journals used this theory as the basis for their research.

6. Error Taxonomy

A mere listing of errors, including alphabetic ones, is not a taxonomy. A taxonomy must be organized according to certain constitutive criteria. These criteria should as far as possible, reflect observable objective facts about the entities to be classified. Many criteria are in principle, available for use in error taxonomies: the sex, age, or nationality of the learner, type of school attended, and type of activity which gave rise to the errors, such as translation, dictation, free speech, guided composition, dictogloss, and so on. Some of these criteria will be more revealing than others, and more informative for some sorts of decision-making than others.

Not also that the criteria, Carl James gave as an illustration, are not mutually exclusive. It is not the case that you can only choose one of them to classify a particular error. In other words, it is possible to classify errors simultaneously according to a number of criteria. Besides indicating that such and such an error was made by an adult, it can also indicate that this adult was male, Japanese, extrovert, intermediate and that the error committed in a free (not controlled) writing task.

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[61] H. E. Lenneberg, "The Biological Foundations of Language.," *Hospital Practice*, 1967.P.59-67

So it will be possible to specify an error in terms of a large number of features relevantly associated with it, its author, and its context of use.

Besides indicating that such and such an error made by an adult, we can also indicate that this adult male, Japanese, extrovert, intermediate and that the error committed in a free (not controlled) writing task. So it will be possible to specify an error in terms of a large number of features relevantly associated with it, its author, and its context of use. When the expert introduced the idea of error taxonomy above, the expert listed a number of theoretically possible criteria. It would be useful to look at the types of criteria people use for describing and classifying errors. We attempt to teach people how to talk and write correct, standard language, but pay little attention to their metalanguage for talking about deviant language. Not only does, it need collections of errors, but as a preliminary, we also need collections of error types.

Corder says that errors fall into four categories. The categories are omission of some required elements; addition of unnecessary elements; selection of an incorrect element; and mis-order of elements.[62] Gustilo and Mango classified errors as omission errors, addition errors, mis-formation errors, wrong order, spelling errors, and system errors. This classification is similar to those found in Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, who categorize errors into four types. They are omission (i.e., excluding a linguistic item that is obligatory in a grammatically correct utterance), addition (including a linguistic item that is not required in a grammatically accurate sentence), miss-formation (mixing up the use of linguistic items), and mis-ordering (placing linguistic items in an inappropriate order). Sun examined other kinds of errors: misuse of words, grammatical errors, syntactic errors, and errors of discourse construction.

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[62] S. P Corder, *Introducing Applied Linguistic* (Oxford: Oxford University, 1973).p.277

a. Error taxonomy by Carl James
1) Linguistic category classification

Dulay et al,. state this type of taxonomy carries out specification of errors in terms of linguistic categories, in terms of where the error is located in the overall system of the TL based on the linguistic item which is affected by the error. First, it indicates on what level (or in which 'component') of language the error is located: in phonology, graphology, grammar, lexis, text or discourse. Next, there is a specification of the 'category' of linguistic unit where the error occurs. If it is a grammar level, particular grammatical construction it involves are the auxiliary system, passives, and sentence complements. In fact, the sorts of categories conventionally used for constructing structural syllabuses for TEFL and the related teaching texts. The expert suggests some refinement of this system. Having established the level of the error, one next asks about the class.[63]

Given that it is a grammar error, does it involve the class of a noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, determiner, etc. Then we need to assign a rank to the error, in terms of where it lies on the hierarchy of units that constitute its level. Finally, we need to specify the grammatical system that the error affects: tense, number, voice, countability, transitivity, etc. So, if it is a grammar-level error, and involves the class noun, we want to know if it is located at the 'rank' of, for example, (noun) morpheme, word, phrase, clause, or sentence and what grammatical system is affected. The taxonomy is rigorous in that these categories of level, class and rank are mutually defining. For example, the class 'noun' is manifest at different ranks: as word noun, as noun phrase, as noun clause. As an example, consider the following error:

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[63] Dulay, H, Burt M. & krashern, *Op.Cit*., . p.146

We *use to/√∅ go running every morning

The learner is attempting to use used to (indicating habitual behaviour) in the present tense. So, it is a grammar-level error involving the word class verb, and the tense system. This framework is certainly useful and can handle the errors of relatively advanced learners. One problem with the scheme is that while we have a reasonably well-understood set of units on the level of grammar, what the corresponding units are on the levels of phonology, lexis, and text/discourse is not so clear. For analyzing lexical errors, the categories of sense relations (synonymy, hyperonymy, opposite, etc.) and of collocation will be appropriate. There are also emerging at present time useful categories for describing discourse errors, such as coherence, cohesion, signaling, and so on.

2) The Surface Structure Taxonomy

This is the second type of descriptive taxonomy proposed by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen. Why make references at all to 'surface' structure, when the deep versus surface structure distinction is immaterial anyway, there being no 'deep structure taxonomy'. A more acceptable descriptive label for this would be the *Target Modification Taxonomy* since it is based on the ways in which the learner's erroneous version is different from the presumed target version. Dulay, Burt and Krashen themselves describe this taxonomy as being based on 'the ways surface structures are altered'. We must not lose sight of the fact that we are speaking metaphorically, however. It would be quite misleading to say that the learner 'alters' or 'distorts' the correct form so as to produce an error.

This formulation would imply that the expert knew the correct form all along, in which case he or she would not have produced an error in the first place. Nor are the

four main kinds of 'alteration' in any way suggestive of the behavior or cognitive processes involved in learning L2 forms: it is merely a vivid, albeit loose, useful metaphor. Dulay, Burt and Krashen suggest that there are four principal ways in which learners 'modify' target forms, in other words, four ways in which IL and TL forms diverge 'in specific and systematic ways'.[64] In addition, there are four further subtypes, yielding eight in all. Carl James shall discuss these, and conclude that viable taxonomy can operate with four of their categories plus a fifth (blends) of his own.

1) Omission

This is to be distinguished from ellipsis (E), and from zero (Z), elements which are allowed by the grammar (indeed are powerful grammatical resources), whereas omission is ungrammatical. Compare:

He'll pass his exam but I won't [pass my exam]. Ellipsis

He'll pass his exam and I'll Ø too. Omission

A high omission rate leads to a truncated IL with features similar to those found in pidgin languages and is typical of untutored learners or learners in the early stages of learning. It tends to affect function words rather than content words at least in the early stages. Kasper and Kellermanto states, more advanced learners tend to be aware of their ignorance of content words, and rather than omit one, they resort to compensatory strategies express their idea.[65] Dulay, Burt and Krashen do appear here to equate omission with non-acquisition, which is disturbing. It does not seem reasonable to describe non-use of 3rd.

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[64] "Ibid," n.d.p.150

[65] E Kasper Gvand Kellerman, *Introduction, Communication Strategies: Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics Perspectives* (London: Addision Wesley Longman, 1997).

person -s and progressive -ing in early second-language English as omission.

2) Addition

This manifestation of error, Dulay, Burt and Krashen suggest, is the 'result of all-too-faithful use of certain rules', and they suggest there are subtypes. First, regularization, which involves overlooking exceptions and spreading rules to domains where they do not apply, for example producing the regular *buyed for bought*. As one might expect, omission, being the mirror image of overinclusion, tends to result from the converse, irregularization. This occurs when a productive process such as affixation is not applied, but instead, the form is wrongly assumed to be an exception to the general rule: *dove* for the preterite form √ *dived*.

A second subtype of oversuppliance is double marking, defined as 'failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic constructions but not in others' . A typical result is an English sentence having two negators or two tense markers instead of one. Here is an example: *He doesn't know*s me* contains a redundant third person -s on the main verb *know*, redundant because the auxiliary *do* already carries that marker. One presumes that the learner has intuitively formulated a rule 'the lexical verb must carry any required third person inflection', overlooking the exception to (or overregularizing) this rule and applying it in contexts where there is an auxiliary that carries the -s already. [66]

A very similar account could be rendered of the double past tense markings in: *1 didn't went there yesterday*. However, some of their examples of regularisation, such as *sheeps* and *putted* could just as well be seen as double marking, suggesting that

[66] Dulay, H., burt m. & krashern, *Op.Cit.*, p.156

the distinction is not clear-cut. Regularization and double marking seem to be two ways of referring to the same phenomenon. They might be distinguished by saying that while regularization is the process or the cause, the second is the product or effect. We shall presently suggest that double marking is an error type that can be better accommodated under the heading of blend. The third category of addition error is a simple addition, which caters to all additions not describable as double markings or regularizations.

3) Mis-formation

This is Dulay, Burt, and Krashen's third category, and again they identify three subtypes. They define miss-formation as the use of the wrong form of a structure or morpheme, and give examples like:

I *seen her yesterday.
He hurt *himself.
I read that book*s.

It is indeed clear that seen for *saw* is the *use* of the wrong form, but why call it 'mis-formation because that is a 'miss formation' of this. What the learner who produced this error has done is not mis-form but mis-select, and these should be called mis-selection errors.

Mis-ordering

This category is relatively uncontroversial. Part of linguistical competence, in addition to selecting the right forms to use in the right context, is to arrange them in the right order. Some languages have stricter word-order regulations than others. Russian is freer than English. Modern English is less free in its word order than Old English. In English certain word classes seem to be especially sensitive to mis-ordering, for instance, adverbials, interrogatives, and adjectives, yielding errors as in: *He every time comes late home, *Tell me where did you go, *The words little*.

According Connor, just as important as syntactic ordering is rhetorical ordering: different linguistic-cultural groups develop conventions determining what each considers consensually to be the 'right' way to order one's arguments or reasons in writing for example. Getting these rhetorical orderings wrong is part of contrastive rhetoric.[67] Slightly different from mis-ordering is call misplacement. Letter-writing conventions in different cultures specify whether the date on a letter shall be at the top left or top right of the page. Failing to conform to such conventions is misplacement.

As Dulay, Burt, and Krashen observe, mis-ordering is often the result of learners relying on carrying out 'word-for-word' translations of native language surface structures when producing written or spoken utterances in the TL. An insightful account of the use learners makes of 'mental translation' when producing and processing a FL or L2 is to be found in Cohen (forthcoming).

To summarise so far, Dulay, Burt and Krashen offer a useful descriptive error taxonomy which call a Target Modification Taxonomy, so acknowledging the fact that it is based on a comparison of the forms the learner used with the forms that a native speaker (or 'knower') would have used in the same situation. Dulay, Burt and Krashen's system comprises four main categories plus four subcategories. Some of these theory reject. Others coalesce or relabel, and so retain the following categories: omission, overinclusion, mis-selection, and mis-ordering. However, to these want to add a fifth not considered by Dulay, Burt and Krashen.

5) Blends

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[67] U Connor, *Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross-Cultuiral Aspects of Second Language Writing* (Cambridge: Cambride University Press, 1996).

There is one category that complements the Target Modification Taxonomy. It is typical of situations where there is not just one well-defined target, but two. The learner is undecided about which of these two targets he has 'in mind'. In such situations the type of error that materializes is the blend error, sometimes called the contamination or cross-association or hybridization error. There are subtle differences implied by these different labels waiting to be teased out. Blending is exemplified in *according to Erica's opinion* which arises when two alternative grammatical forms are combined to produce an ungrammatical blend. In this example *according to Erica* and in *Erica's opinion* seem to have been blended.

There are also contentious cases: for example, Dechert and Lennon suggest that the blend in (*The punishment consists of*) *a sentence to prison* results from a combination of the two following noun phrases: *a prison sentence* and *being sent to prison*. It might also be the case that the near-homophony of *send* and *sent(ence)* reinforces the confusion.[68] Blending has been widely studied in speech error ('slips') research, and Hockett and later Baars explain it in terms of the competing plans hypothesis. As Dechert and Lennon put it: 'The blending errors we have found in the written composition may derive from the co-temporal availability of two alternate. This means that the speaker or writer has activated two structures that are semantically related, either of which could serve his present purpose. But they fail to make a clear choice and instead combine a part of

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[68] H and Lennon P Dechert, *Collocational Blends of Advanced Second Language Learners: A Preliminary Analysis, Contrastive Pragmatics* (Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1989).

each to produce a structure with characteristics of both.

3) Learning Strategies

Readers familiar with the literature on learners, which postdates the heyday of EA by at least a decade, will perhaps have noticed affinities between some of the categories used there and those of our Target Modification Taxonomy for errors. So Selinker mentions the 'overgeneralization of TL rules' and 'system simplification' as pervasive learning strategies. Richards for his part, draws up a fuller but similar list, including 'overgeneralization', 'ignorance of role restriction', 'incomplete role application' and 'hypothesizing false concepts' as learning strategies.[69]

Some of these strategy types are very dubious; how, for instance, can being ignorant of a rule's restriction be a 'learning strategy'? Ignorance might lead one to devise a strategy, either for learning what one was ignorant of, or something that will serve the same purpose. But ignorance is not itself a strategy. 'Generalization' is a strategy, involving the search for parallels and grounds for analogy; but overgeneralization is an unwanted consequence of applying generalization indiscriminately. Finally, 'system simplification' surely is not a strategy for learning the TL, but one for learning a related but simpler system: one might call it a learning avoidance strategy rather than a learning strategy. These behaviors on the part of learners fail the test as learning strategies. Fortunately, they do rather better as descriptive categories within the metaphor of Target Modification.

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[69] J.C Richards, *A Non-Contrastive Approach Too Error Analysis*, 1974.p.172

4) Combined Taxonomies

Recall that Dulay, Burt, and Krashen propose the two taxonomies just described as if they were two alternative taxonomies. This, however, is to overlook the considerable advantages of multidimensional taxonomies. Rather than using these two taxonomies in succession, combine them into a single bidimensional one. Each would provide one of the two axes for the new taxonomy. But why do we have to stop at a two-dimensional taxonomy? A three-dimensional one would be feasible (using a graphic cube) and the increase in information provided by the third dimension would be invaluable. It will be useful in the third dimension, some quantitative information. The problem of error counting is worth considering further.

b. Error Taxonomy by Dulay

Dulay categorized errors into 4 types; There are many definitions types of errors which are provided by linguists and experts. One of them is the Taxonomies of errors are described by Dulay into four types and each of them is classified into several categories of errors that will be explained as follows:[70]

1) Linguistic Category Taxonomy

These errors are categorized according to the language or linguistics components, such as phonology, Syntax and morphology (Grammar) semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary)

2) Surface Strategy Taxonomy

According to Dulay, he defines the surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structure they are omitted necessary item or add unnecessary ones and mis-form item or mis-order them. In other words,

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[70] Dulay, H, Stephen Krashen, Marina Burt, *Op.Cit*.,p.146-169

it also recognizes as omission, addition, mis-formation, mis-ordering.

a) Omission Errors

The first type is omission, omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance. Learner in early stages of learning tend to omit function words rather than content words. More advance learners tend to conscious of their ignorance of content words and rather omit one, and they are forced to took another strategies to express their idea. For example, "*She sleeping*" (Dia sedang tidur) undergoes omission of an item, that is, the omission of is. The word '*is'* is a grammatical verb form that plays an important role in constructing a proper progressive tense. And the word '*is'* in that sentence functions as an *auxiliary*. A verb in a proper sentence is something that cannot be omitted, so one who omits the verb (is) fails in constructing a proper sentence.

b) Addition Errors

The second is addition, Addition errors are the presence of an item that must not appear in well-formed utterances. Dulay, Burt and Krashen say that addition usually occurs in later stage of second language acquisition or when the learner has acquired some target language rules. Addition error consists of three types, namely:

1. Double Marking

   An error when the students give more than one marking in the language
   requires its expression. For instance:

   - The letter will be writtens tomorrow
   - She doesn"t knows my name

The example of sentences above are categorized as the type of error in addition, because on the sentences have the additional where it is not important to exist on the sentences, that is find in word "writtens" for the first sentence and in word "knows" for the second sentence, then the right sentences are "The letter will be written tomorrow" and "She doesn"t know my name". The failure to delete certain items which are not required in some linguistics contractions but not in others.

2. Regularization

Regularization errors that fall under the addition category are those in which a marker that is typically added to a linguistic item is erroneously added to exceptions that can be found in English. For example, the verb *eat* cannot be changed into *eated* but *ate*, instead. The description above shows the types of errors that might be made by the learners, that is, errors which are interfered by regularization. The learners tend to apply the regular rules to the irregular ones, for instance:

- This house has been buyed three years

The sentence above includes in addition error for regularization. Thesentence "This house has been buyed three years ago" is the wrong sentence, because the form of past of buy is bought it is not buyed so the right sentence it should be "This house has been bought three years ago".

3. Simple Addition

Simple addition is the subcategory of additions. It is called simple addition if an

addition error is neither a double marking nor regularization. According to Dulay, no particular features characterize simple additions other than those that characterize all addition errors: the use of an item that should not appear in a well-formed utterance. For example, in *Parto can to sing beautifully*, the student makes a wrong sentence. They add '*to*' after the modal *can*. The well-formed sentence is *Parto can sing beautifully*.

More example,

- I am is a student
- You can to swim in the swimming pool anytime

The example of sentence above is categorized as addition error in simple addition where in the first example it has double to be, the right sentence is "I am a student" and the second example also the wrong sentence, because the sentence add the word "to" and the sentence it should be " you can swim in the swimming pool anytime".

c) **Mis-formation Errors**

Mis-formation error is a type of error characterized using incorrect morpheme or structure. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 158) divided misformation into 3 types, there are:

1. Regularization Errors

Regularization error is the regular marker that is used in place of an irregular one. For example:

- I finded a pecil on the table.
- The childs there have moved to the next village to find the food.

The examples above are the example of misformation in regularization error, which the

sentences are wrong example, firstly, the sentence write the past form of find is not finded but it should found, second the plural form of child is not childs but it should children, because of that the right sentences of the example above are; I found a pencil on the table and the children there have moved to the next village to find the food.

2. Archi-form

This missformation characterized by use one of a class of form to represent others in the class. For example:

- That dogs are naughty.

The example above is categorized in misformation for archi-form where "that" should be followed by singular form, so the right sentence is those dogs are naughty.

3. Alternating Form

This type is when the learner's vocabulary and grammar grow, and put the apparently fairly free alternation of various members of a class with each other. For example:

- I see her yesterday

The sentence above is incorrect, because the verb is not "see" but it should

"saw" so the right sentence is "I saw her yesterday".

d) Mis-ordering Errors

Mis-ordering error is an error that is characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance. For examples are in verb phrases as follows:

Correct	Incorrect
Must have forgotten	Have must forgotten

<u>Could have been killed</u>   <u>have   could</u>   been killed

3) **Comparative Category Taxonomy**

Comparative category taxonomy is classified base on the comparison between the structure of L2 errors and certain other types of construction. This comparison has two major error categories that are interlingual errors and intralingual errors. Interlingual error is an error that causes by of mother tongue to a target language that is learned by students. Meanwhile, intralingual errors reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition.

4) **Communicative Effect Category Taxonomy**

This taxonomy based on distinguishing between errors that cause miscommunication and those that do not cause miscommunication. If surface strategy and comparative taxonomies focus on the aspect of the errors, the communicative effect category taxonomy deals with errors from the perspective of their effect on the learner. Based on the types of error analysis according to Dulay's taxonomy, as stated before, the researcher focuses on the syntax categories. The syntax is one of the studies of how phrases and sentences are structured out of words.

And this research focuses on a phrase, which is a verb phrase. To conduct the research, the Dulay surface category taxonomy it was used. The terms for the error types may vary based on different points of view or different taxonomies to highlight them. One of several taxonomies in highlighting the error types is introduced by Dulay, et al, which is well known as surface strategy taxonomy. The finding of the research about types of

errors based on verb phrase area derives the teacher to the student's grammatical weakness and can give a special approach to it. This taxonomy highlights errors based on the ways surface structure is altered.[71]

In line with these four categories, Dulay puts four other terms of error types, namely (1) omission errors (omission of some required elements), (2) addition errors (addition of unnecessary elements), (3) miss-formation errors (selection of an incorrect element), and (4) mis-ordering errors (mis-order of elements).

Thus, the theory of surface strategy taxonomy is chosen by researcher to classify and identity verb phrase errors because the theory is considered relevant under this study. By using this theory, it can find the types of errors of verb phrase related to omission, addition, mis-formation, and mis-ordering.

B. The Concept of Verb Phrase

1. Definition of Verb

The term 'verb' originally comes from 'were', a proto-Indo-European word that means a 'word'. It comes to English through the Latin word 'Verbum' and the old French word 'Verbe'. Verbs describe actions, events, and states and place them in a time frame. They tell us whether actions or events have been completed or are ongoing. They point out whether a state is current or resultative and perform a number of other functions. Therefore, a verb is considered the sentence's heart. According to Palmer, a verb or a verb phrase is so central to the structure of the sentence that 'no syntactic analysis can proceed without careful consideration of it. [72]

Verbs generally refer to action, events and processes e.g. give, happen, and become. They typically have a number of distinct forms: infinitive (to) walk), third person singular present tense (walks), past tense (walked), present participle (walking), and past participle (walked). The past participle is usually the same as the past tense form, but for some verbs it is

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[71] Dulay & Krashen, Burt, *Op.Cit.*,
[72] R. R Palmer, *Semantic* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981).

different e.g. *show* has past tense *showed* and past participle *shown* ; similarly *give* has *gave* and *given*.

According to Huddleston the term 'verb' can be applied to a grammatically distinct word class in a language having the following properties. [73]

a) It contains amongst its most central members the morphologically simplest words denoting actions, processes or events.

b) Members of the class carry inflections of tense, aspect and mood if the language has these as inflectional categories. The verb phrase is defined in a different way in the generative grammar framework. In this framework, a verb phrase is a syntactic unit that corresponds to the entire predicate. In addition to the verb, this includes auxiliaries, objects, object complements, and other constituents apart from the subject.

Quick and Jackson divides verb into lexical verbs and modal auxiliaries or auxiliary verb. Auxiliary verbs have a mainly grammatical function. The subclass of auxiliary verbs Includes: be, have, do (primary auxiliary) and such words: can, could, will, shall, and the like (modal auxiliaries or modal verb). Among lexical verbs a distinction is made between transitive and intransitive verbs.[74] Verbs which require a direct object to complete the sentence are called transitive verbs. Greenbaum argues that the term 'transitive' comes from the notion that a person performs an action that affects some person or thing. Verbs like 'bring', 'obtain', 'reduce' and 'take' essentially require an object and are, therefore, called transitive verbs. If a main verb does not require another element to complete it (object/complement), the verb is termed

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[73] Huddleston Rodney, "Introduction to Grammar of English," *Cambridge University Press*, 1984.

[74] Jackson Howard, *Analyzing English:An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics* (Pergamon: Oxford, 1982).1982.p.62

intransitive. For example, verbs like 'sit', 'wait' and 'fall' are intransitive verbs. [75]

While transitive verb is a type of action verb that links the subject with the object (a person or a thing) of a sentence, which is receiving the action. Transitive verb has two prominent features: (1) I acts as an action verb, expressing an activity and (2) it uses a direct object that receives an action. For example, my mother gave me some money. The word *gave* expressing an action that is received by *me*. A number of verbs are transitive and transitive verb depending in the context, e.g. write is transitive in write your name here and intransitive in *Devi couldn't read or write*.

Jackson makes another distinction among lexical verbs, namely dynamic and stative verbs on the other. The distinction between stative and dynamic verbs is considered to be a fundamental one in English grammar. Verbs that can occur with the progressive aspect are labeled as dynamic verbs and verbs which generally do not occur in the progressive form are termed as stative verbs. [76] For example, activity verbs like 'call', 'drink' and 'throw', process verbs like 'grow', 'change' and 'deteriorate', verbs of bodily sensation like 'feel', 'ache' and 'hurt', momentary verbs like 'jump', 'hit' and 'knock' and transitional event verbs like 'fall' and 'arrive' are frequently used in the progressive aspect and therefore, they are called dynamic verbs. Thus, it is possible to say in English 'He is drinking coffee' or 'My head is aching'.

On the other hand, verbs of involuntary perception like 'see', 'hear' and 'smell', verbs of likes and dislikes like 'love', 'hate' and 'prefer', and verbs of mental processes like 'remember', 'know' and 'understand' are generally not used in the progressive form and therefore, they are called stative verbs. Thus, English does not allow constructions like 'We are knowing him very weird or 'He is liking music'.

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[75] Nelson and Greenbaum, *An Introduction to English Grammar*, Second ed (Britain: Person Education Limited, 2000).

[76] Jackson, Howard, *Analyzing English:An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics*.1982.p.62

Frank clarifies verbs based on their function in a sentence namely finite and non-finite (infinite) verb. Finite verbs are lexical that are restricted by either "person" (first, second, third person), "time/tense" (present and past) or number (singular and plural).[77] In **I have two books**, **have** acts as the full verb in the predicate which is limited by person. Non-finite (or infinite) verbs are verb forms that function as other parts of the speech than verbs. They consist of the infinite forms (to + the simple form of the verb) and the participle –ing or –ed forms. Thus, in **the boy talking to the teacher is my brother, talking** is a participle used as an adjective to modify boy. In He likes talking to the teacher, talking is a noun (a gerund) used as the object of **likes**.

The examples above show us that the predicate of a clause or sentence must contain a finite verb, but does not always contain a non-finite one. A sentence may or may not contain non-finite verb. Again, some certain verbs are finite in one context but are non-finite in the other contexts. In predication, the non-finite verb, if any, always follows the finite verb. The grammatical form of verbs is usually discussed in connection with tense. The description of verb forms differs according to the way the term tense is interpreted. On the basis of this interpretation by meaning, some grammarians, presents a three-tense system – present, past and future. The different tenses are signaled by verb endings or by auxiliary verbs. A second interpretation of tense is based on the form of the verb alone. According to this interpretation, there are only two tenses – a present and a past – each of which is marked by different forms in the lexical verb itself or in the auxiliary used with it.

A verb that tenses to indicate time: present, past, future may also indicate aspects: progressive and perfect. To indicate time, a verb can be a single word and can also be phrase (verb phrase). Single word verbs indicating time are those that are in

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[77] Frank Marcella, *Modern English.* (United States of America: New York University, 1972).p.49

simple present tense and simple past tense, as in **I am here now** (simple present). Other tenses indicating future time and aspects are always in phrases. In **We have studied hard**, the phrase **have studied** indicates present perfect tense.

2. Definition of Phrase

The word phrase is derived from Latin phrasia meaning are two or more words conveying a single thought or forming a distinct part of a sentence but not containing a subject and predicate, Guralnik, et al.[78] According to Cook the phrase is composed of words and typically fills slots at the clause level. It is a word group that fills the same slots at clause level as are filled by single words.[79] Elson and Pickett defined the phrase as a unit composed of two or more words potentially, which does not have the characteristics of a clause, typically, but not always, fill slot on the clause level. Based on this definition, the phrase has three main features: (1) the phrase typically fills slot on clause level. (2) The phrase does not have characteristics of clause, and (3) the phrase consists of two or more words. [80] Mas'ud defined phrase as a combination of words that has no subject and predicate but it is also has meaning.[81]

From the theories above, the phrase can be said as a group of words without a subject and predicate as a part of clause in a sentence. A sentence is one of the most important elements in written language.

a) Types of Phrases

Elson and Pickett divide phrases into modified noun phrases, possessive phrase, modified adjective phrase, modified adjective phrase, modified adverb phrase, verb

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[78] Guralnik, David B. *Webster's New World Collage Dictionary*, Third Edit (New York: Simon & Schuster Macmillan, 1975).p.563

[79] Cook, S. *Op.Cit*., p.9

[80] Elson, Picket, and Benjamin. "An Introduction to Morphology and Syntax," *Santa Ana: Summer Institute of Linguistics*, n.d.1963.p.73

[81] Fuad, Mas'ud. "Essential English Grammar," *Yogyakarta: BPFE Bahasa Dan Seni*, 1996.p.223

phrase and prepositional phrase.[82] Meanwhile, Waldhorn and Zeiger, state that on its use, phrase can be divided into three types namely: *Noun phrase, adjective phrase, and Adverb phrase.*[83] Jackson divides phrase into 5 types of phrases, these are noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase and prepositional phrase. The first four of these take their name from the word that is the chief word or the head the phrase. The prepositional phrase is different in that there is no head word. For the other types of phrases the minimal form of the phrase is the head. For example, in the clause *She looks beautiful today*, we have a noun, verb, adverb sequence; and each of these words is head of the corresponding phrase, i.e. noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase and adverb phrase. A prepositional phrase, on the other hand, is always composed of two element, a preposition and a noun, or rather noun phrase, e.g. *at night, in the jungle.* Among these five types phrase of phrase, verb phrase is used quiet a lot because the function of the verb phrase in a sentence as predicate which is obligatory element. That means a sentence cannot be constructed without verb phrase.

Phrase is a meaningful group of words that forms part of a sentence or clause. Knapp and Watkins summarize that there are five types of phrases: [84]

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[82] Elson, Picker & Benjamin. *Op.Cit.,* p.75

[83] Siregar, & Waldhorn A. "English Made Simple," *New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc*, 1954.p.46

[84] Megan Watkins Knap, Peter and, *Genre, Text, Grammar* (Australia: University of New South Wales Press Ltd., 2005). P.60

Table 1.2
Type of Phrase

Type of Phrase	Example of Each Phrases
Noun Phrase	The difficult problem of supervision
Verb Phrase	Must not be seen
Adjective Phrase	Seriously unmotivated
Adverbial Phrase	Quite happily
Prepositional Phrase	Before the event

As defined by Crystal, phrase is a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to a single element of structure containing more than one word, and lacking the subject-predicate structure typical or clauses. He divides phrase into several types: noun phrase, verb phrase, adverbial phrase, adjective phrase, and prepositional phrase.[85]

1) Noun phrase
    It is the construction into which noun most commonly enters, and of which they are the head word.
    For example: *two eggs*
    　　　　　red shoes
    　　　　　a good policeman

2) Verb phrase
    It consists of a main verb and one or more auxiliaries.
    For example:　　*is coming*
    　　　　　　　may be coming
    　　　　　　　get up to

3) Adverbial phrase
    It functions in sentence as the adverbial, its head word and modifier are adverb.
    For example: *yesterday morning*
    　　　　　　very quickly
    　　　　　　rather quietly

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[85] Crystal David, *Op.Cit.*,.p.367

4) Adjective phrase

It functions in sentence as adjective; its head word is adjective.

For example: *very important*

extremely hot

5) Prepositional phrase

It consists of a preposition, the object of the preposition and the modifiers.

For example: *in the corner*

under the big tree

b) Phrase Structure Rules

Phrase structure rules (PS-rules) are rules that specify how sentences are structured out of phrases, and phrases out of words.[86] Fromkin, et al state that phrase structure rules specify the well-formed structures of language precisely and concisely.[87] They express regularities of the language and make explicit a speaker's knowledge of the order of words and the grouping of words into syntactic categories. PS-rules can be used to construct (or generate) a phrase marker or tree for a sentence. The following would be examples of PS-rules:

1. S => NP M VP	4. AP	=> ADVP A
2. NP => D N	5. ADVP	=> ADV
3. VP => V AP PP	6. PP	=> P NP

These rule above, (1) can form a clause by taking a Noun Ph. immediately followed by a Modal and Verb Phrase. Rule (2) can form Noun Phrase by taking a Determiner immediately followed by a Noun. Rule (3) can form Verb Phrase by taking a Verb immediately

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[86] Andrew, Raford. *Transformational Grammar(A First Course)* (Britain: Cambridge University Press, 1988).P.123

[87] Fromkin, Victoria et.al, *An Introduction to L anguage* (USA: Thomson Wadsworth, 2007).p.128

followed by an Adjectival Phrases and Prepositional Phrase, while rule (4) can form Adjectival Phrase by taking an Adverbial Phrase immediately followed by an Adjective, and rule (5) tells that an Adverbial Phrase can consist of an Adverbial itself. Rule (6) specifies that it can form a Prepositional Phrase out of Prepositional immediately followed by a Noun Phrase.

3. Definitions of Verb Phrases

To get an understanding of verb phrases, it is worth understanding firstly about verbs and phrases. The reason is that the term verb phrases derive from the term verb and phrase. A verb is defined as a word that demonstrates an action, such as sing, dance, smell, talk, etc., and can function as the predicate of a sentence. Meanwhile, a phrase is a group of two or more words that does not have a subject or a predicate, and functions to take a complete meaning or information of a sentence in which it occurs Elson & Pickett.[88] So, it is understood that a verb phrase is a group of two or more related verbs which does have either a subject or a predicate, and takes a complete meaning of a sentence.

Jacobs argue that every verb phrase contains at least one constituent, a verbal and therefore considers the verbal to be primary constituent of a verb phrase.[89] At the same line, Quirk and Greenbaum hold the view that the verb element is always a verb phrase. According to them, a verb phrase can consist of one verb or more than one verb and if it consists of more than one verb, the phrase consists of a head verb preceded by one or more auxiliary verbs. Additional Biber et al. defines the verb phrase as one that contains a lexical verb or primary verb as head or main verb, either alone or accompanied by one or more auxiliaries.[90] However, in this study the term "verb phrase" is used to refer to the main verb and its auxiliaries and it excludes

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[88] Elson, Picket, and Benjamin. *Op.Cit.,* 1964.p.73

[89] Jacobs, A. Roderick. *English Syntax: A Grammar for English Language and Linguistics* (London: Applied Science, 1995).

[90] Bieber, D*., Op.Cit.,*

the rest of the predicate. Jackson states that a verb phrase is a phrase of which head contains a verb; it is a lexical verb along with any associated auxiliary verbs. The main verb phrase consists of a verb and any auxiliaries attached to it, at least one of which must be in the present or past tense. For example, *have been eaten*, *eaten* is past participle form as head while have and been are auxiliary that attached to it.[91]

In a very simple way, a verb phrase is understood as a phrase which consists of two or more verbs to convey a single action. The following are three examples:

a) The author <u>is writing</u> a new book.
b) He <u>was walking</u> to work today.
c) The dog <u>might eat</u> the cake.

In the examples previously, the verb phrases in a) and b) (is writing and was walking), each consists of a linking verb *to be* (is, was) and a main verb (writing, walking). The linking verbs *to be*, which function as auxiliaries in that phrase, precede the main verbs. The examples of verb phrases in c) consist of *modals* and *main verbs*. The modals are *must* and *might* while the main verbs are *make* and *eat* to derive *must make* and *might eat*.

Crystal states that verb phrase is a phrase with syntactic role of simple verb composed of a main verb or verbal participles related to the verbs. Generative grammar claimed that a verb phrase is a syntactic unit that compounds to the predicate. In addition verb, this includes auxiliaries, object, object complements, and other constituents apart from the subject. Verb phrase is a group of two or more related verbs which does have either a subject or a predicate and takes a complete meaning of a sentence. A verb phrase is a syntactic unit consisting of an auxiliary (helping) verb preceding the main verb. It often contains a head verb, complements, objects, and modifiers as its dependents.

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[91]Ibid.p.72

In linguistics, a verb phrase (VP) is a syntactic unit composed of at least one verb and its dependent objects, complements, and other modifiers, but not always including the subject. Verb phrases generally fall into two types: finite, in which the head of the phrase is a finite verb; and nonfinite, where the head is a nonfinite verb, such as an infinitive, participle, or gerund. Phrase structure grammars acknowledge both types, but dependency grammars treat the subject as just another verbal dependent, and they do not recognize the finite verbal phrase constituent. Understanding verb phrase analysis depends on knowing which theory applies in context.

A verb phrase is a phrase whose head contains a verb it is a lexical verb along with any associated auxiliary verbs. The main verb phrase consists of a verb and any auxiliaries attached to it, at least one of which must be in the present or past tense. Jacobs in Anggraeni, says every verb phrase contains at least one constituent, a verbal, and therefore considers the verbal to be the primary constituent of a verb phrase. In the same line, the verb element is always a verb phrase. A verb phrase can consist of one verb or more than one verb, and if it consists of more than one verb, the phrase consists of a head verb preceded by one or more auxiliary verbs.

Biber stated that a verb phrase is one that contains a lexical verb or primary verb as the head or main verb, either alone or accompanied by one or more auxiliaries. However, in this study, the term "verb phrase" is used to refer to the main verb and its auxiliaries, excluding the rest of the predicate. A verb phrase is a grouxp of words with the main verb (main verb) and auxiliaries as the central element (head).[92] According to Carnie, a verb phrase consists of a single verb. This means that the minimum verb phrase consists of one verb element and can be formed according to the pattern of VP → V.

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[92] Bieber, D., *Op.Cit.,*

4. Verb Phrase Construction

Jackson states that in the verb phrase all the elements are verb phrase of one kind or another. A verb phrase contains one lexical verb as head and may have up four auxiliary verbs, besides the negative word, as modifiers.[93] The lexical verb is always the last element in the verb phrase; e.g. *may not have been being interrogated*, in which the lexical verb *interrogates* and the other elements auxiliary verbs together with *not.* Same line with Jackson; Quirk and Greenbaum believe that the verb element is always a verb phrase. According to them, a verb phrase can consist of one verb or more than one verb and if it consists of more than one verb, the phrase consists of a head verb preceded by one or more auxiliary.[94]

a) Finite verb phrases

A finite verb phrase is a verb phrase containing a finite form of the verb. The finite form of the verb in a verb phrase shows the tense distinction between "past and present", and it is associated with person: First, second and third person, and number: singular or plural. This function is performed by the operator (the first auxiliary in verb phrases). According to Quirk and Greenbaum, auxiliary verbs can be classified into primary and modal auxiliaries. Primary auxiliary verbs play a kind of dual role, as they can function both as lexical and auxiliary verbs.[95] 'Be', 'Have' and 'Do' are examples of the primary auxiliary verbs. For example, in the sentence 'I do my work sincerely', 'do' is a lexical verb, whereas in the sentence 'I do believe in God', 'do' is an auxiliary verb. And modal auxiliary (can, may, will, must, etc). Auxiliary verbs serve to realize the grammatical categories associated with the verb phrase, especially tense and aspect.

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[93] Jackson, *Op.Cit.,* p.72

[94] Quirk Randolph, S. Greenbaum, *University Grammar of English* (London: Longman Group Limited, 1973).

[95] Ibid.

Modals always occur as the first element of the verb phrase, and they help the main verb to express a range of meanings like possibility, probability, permission, certainty, necessity and obligation. Modal auxiliaries do not carry third person present (-s) ending, and they do not have past participle, present participle and infinitive forms. Modal is always followed by the infinitive (without to) form of the verb. E.g. *he may come, they can stay*. The negative word always takes up second position. The primary auxiliary *be* has two uses and *have* has one. *Be* is followed by the present participle (-ing form of the verb to indicate **progressive** or alternatively called **continuous aspect**, as in *he is coming*, *she was going*. *Be* is followed by the past participle (-*ed* form of the verb) to indicate **passive voice**, as in *it is finished, it was eaten.* *Have* is followed by the past participle (-ed form of the verb) to indicate the perfect or passive aspect, as in *he has gone, they had eaten.*

When combinations of auxiliary verbs occur, the relative order among auxiliary verbs is as follows:

Modal – *have* – *be* (progressive) – *be* (passive)

These rules are as follows:

1) When a verb phrase has four auxiliary verbs as modifiers, the order should follow the rule above, in which "be" is of course not present.

   Example: *would have been being done*

2) When a modal auxiliary and a primary auxiliary occur at once in a verb phrase, the modal auxiliary should precede the primary auxiliary.

   For example, *Can be interviewed.*

3) When two primary auxiliary verbs (have and be) occur at once in a verb phrase *have* always precedes *be*.

   For example: *Has been done*

4) When be (am, is, are, was, were) and its variant (being) come at once in a verb phrase, *be* (am, is, are, was, were) always precedes *being*.

5) When the variants of *be* (been and being) occur at once in verb phrase, *been* always precedes *being*. For example, *should have been being taught*"?

Jackson states that the first auxiliary in a verb phrase is called the **operator**, and has a number of special function: [96]

1) The operator is the element in the verb phrase that is marked for tense; that is, the distinction between 'past' and 'present' i.e. *he is coming*, the operator is marked that it is present tense. if there is no auxiliary in the verb phrase, then the lexical verb itself is marked for tense,
for example, *he walks* – indicate *present* and *he walked* – indicate past.

2) The operator changes places with the subject of a clause in most questions;
for example, where the wh-word (interrogative pronoun) is the subject of the clause and comes first like all wh interrogatives.

3) The negative word not is placed immediately after the operator and before any other auxiliaries;
for example, he has not come.

4) The operator is the item that is repeated in a tag question.
Example, *he is coming, isn't he*? From some explanation about finite verb phrases, it can be concluded that the formula for verb phrase, can be written as follow:
V = ± aux1 ±aux2 + H : v

b) Non-Finite Verb Phrase

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[96] Jackson, *Op.Cit.,* .p73

Non-finite verb phrase A non-finite verb phrase is a verb phrase that consists of non-finite forms of the verb. It is not restricted by either person: first, second, and third person; Tense; present or past; or number; singular or plural. A non-finite verb phrase may be introduced by an infinitive (usually with to) and therefore called "infinitive non-finite verb phrase". It can also be introduced by a present participle non-finite verb phrase Jackson.[97] The type (infinitive, present participle) of the non-finite verb is indicated by the form of the first member.

Examples:

1) Infinitive non-finite verb phrases:

   a) They wanted to be fed.

   b) She wants to be going.

   c) He likes to have shaved before 7.00 a. m

   d) He regrets not to have consulted.

Changing the subjects to any other forms or the tense to any other tense would not require us to change the verb phrase to any other forms. Form the example above, we can have the following notes.

- Infinitive non-finite verb phrase is always preceded by any other finite verb (the finite verbs preceding the infinitive non-finite verb phrases in the examples above are respectively: wanted, wants, likes, and egrets).

- An infinitive non-finite verb phrase may contain a 'be- passive', as give in (a)

- An infinitive non-finite verb phrase may contain a 'be-progressive' as given in (b)

- An infinitive non- finite verb phrase may contain a 'have-perfect', as given in (c)

- The negative 'not' in a clause containing an infinitive non-finite verb phrase in immediately

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[97] Ibid.p.74.

placed before the infinitive verb phrase, as give in (d)

2) Present participle non-finite verb phrases: -
   a) Having been asked about his identity, he went straight home.
   b) Having seen that movie before, she does not want to go again.
   c) Being disturbed by the noise from the neighbor's apartment, I woke up early.
   d) Not having read the direction carefully, they lost the direction.

From the examples above we can take some notes on the present participle non-finite verb phrases as follows:

- A present participle non-finite verb phrase may contain a 'be-perfect', as given in (b), and (d)
- A present participle non-finite verb phrase may contain a 'be-passives given in (a) and (c)
- When both 'have' and 'be-passive' occur at once in present participle non-finite verb phrase, the 'have' auxiliary must precede the 'be-passive', as gives in (a)
- The negative 'not' is placed before the present participle non-finite verb phrase, as given in (d)
- The verb head of a present participle non-finite verb phrase is always opposite participle form of the verb.

5. The Formations of Verb Phrases

a. Subject

Morley states that the subject is inherently associated with the specification of identity (or 'thing', as it is frequently referred to in systemic literature), whether abstract or concrete, animate or inanimate.[98] Syntactically, it is typically associated with a nominal phrase or clause. In view of its agreement with the verb, the subject therefore answers the question 'Who/what does/did the verbing?' or 'Who or what is/was the complement?' or, in respect of a passive sentence, 'Who or what is/was verbed?'.

b. Predicator/Verbs

The Predicator is associated with the verbal phrase and realizes the process, of which there are three main semantic types recognized in systemic literature: Material (earlier called 'action' process) e.g. wash, climb, cook, etc. Mental processes are processes of 'sensing', in that in place of an actor they involve a sensor and a phenomenon in processes of perception (e.g. see, hear), affection (e.g. like, fear), and cognition (e.g. think, know). Relational processes are processes of being', of which there are two types - identification and attribution. In meaningful terms, verbs may be said to express processes that can be classified in one of three broad ways. Firstly they can denote actions, e.g. walk, draw, watch, work, feel (pulse), sound(horn), inasmuch as they involve someone doing something and may be identified by questions of the type 'What is X doing/did X do?'. Secondly, they can record events, e.g. occur, collapse, melt, become, see, which involve something happening or a change of state and are identified by What is happening/happened?'. Lastly, they can refer to states (a state of affairs, state of mind.…), e.g. be, seem, like, feel (ill), sound (noisy), which relate to any point in

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[98] Morley, G. David. *Syntax in Functional Grammar (An Introduction to Lexicogrammar in Systemic Linguistics).* (New York: Continuum, 2000).p.92

time past, present or future - and which are identified by 'What is was / will be the state of the subject?'.

c. Modifiers

Miller defines that the discussion of syntax can not be separated with the central idea, that is, the words are grouped into phrases and that groupings typically bring together heads and their modifiers. The head as conveying a central piece of information and the modifiers as conveying extra information.[99]

1) Complements

Berry as cited in Morley presents complements initially as the part of the sentence which answers Who or what?' after the verb. In this vein too it would be described as being associated typically with the nominal phrase (or clause). Indeed, Muir in Morley, describes that the complement is that nominal phrase which is not the subject of the clause. The scope of the complement is to refer to the completive function which it fulfils after the verb.[100] Complements expand X into X-bar. Complement is an obligatory element, so it completes the meaning of its head.

Miller states that complements are modifiers which typically occur next to the head (but not always) and which are required or excluded by particular lexical items.[101] For example, Sarah devoured the cakes in the kitchen last night. Sarah and the cakes are complements of devoured. Devoured requires a noun phrase to its left and a noun phrase to its right, it means that Sarah devoured is unacceptable.

2) Adjunct

Morley defines txhat the adjunct is most frequently ιssociated with adverbial and prepositional phrases, hough occasionally it may be realized by a nominal

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[99] Jim, Miller. *Op.Cit.,* p.1
[100] Morley, G. David. *Op.Cit.,* p.99
[101] Jim, *Miller. Op.Cit.,* p.49

phrase. While extensive complements have the potential of being the subject but are not, adjuncts do not have this potential. Adjunct is both sisters and daughter of X-bar and it expands X-bar into X -bar Radford.[102] Adjunct expands X' into X' and it is an optional element which has more loosely related to its head. Adjuncts are not necessarily next to the head; indeed, they are typically at a distance from the verb. They are not obligatory. Whereas complements complete' the meaning of the verb, giving it both syntactic and semantic completion, adjuncts merely provide additional information that could be dispensed with Miller.[103] As an example in the sentence, Sarah devoured the cakes in the kitchen last night, in the kitchen and last night are adjuncts; this sentence is acceptable and complete without them Sarah devoured the cakes. Adverbs of time and location are always adjuncts.

3) Auxiliary Verb

The typical structure of the verb phrase consists of a main verb preceded optionally by a maximum of four auxiliary verbs. The four belong to different subclasses of auxiliaries. An auxiliary verb is the verbs that come before the main verb also called helping verbs or simply auxiliaries.

If we choose to use auxiliaries, they must appear in the following sequence:

[1] modal auxiliary, such as can, may, will

[2] perfect auxiliary have

[3] progressive auxiliary be

[4] passive auxiliary be

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[102] Andrew, Radford. Op. Cit., p.177

[103] Jim, Miller. *Loc. Cit.,* p.49

These four uses of the auxiliaries specify the form of the verb that follows:

[11 modal, followed by base form: may phone
[2] perfect have, followed by -ed participle: have phoned
[3] progressive be, followed by -ing participle: was phoning
[4] passive be, followed by -ed participle: was phone

Gaps in the sequence are of course normal:
[1] + [3]: will be phoning (modal + progressive)
[21 + [4]: has been phoned (perfect + passive)
[2] + [3]: has been phoning (perfect + progressive)
[1] + [4]: can be phoned (modal + passive).

According to McCarthy that an English verb phrase consists of at least two verbs, one of which is an auxiliary and the other is a main verb as its head. The auxiliary can be a form of *be*, a modal, or an auxiliary *have*. Each of these auxiliaries will vary in a verb phrase, depending upon the tense of the action to convey. When a verb phrase consists of two verbs only, the auxiliary must precede the main verb.[104] The following are some examples:

a) I am studying English now.
b) My sister will go to Lampung.
c) You have just left the room.

Each of the verb phrases (the underlined parts) consists of two verbs, namely a simple form of *be* (am), as in a); a modal, as in b), and an auxiliary *have*, as in c). They precede their own heads (*studying, reading, go*, and *left*). The examples above show the formations of verb phrases in different tenses. Those in a) is verb phrases in *present progressive tense*, to

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[104] McCarthy Chirs, *Learn English Verb Phrases*, 2013.p.3

indicate ongoing events when they are spoken; in b) is a verb phrase in *simple future tense*, to indicate an action planned to be done in the future; and in c) is a verb phrase in *present perfect tense*, to indicate an action which has just been completed. Some verbs   phrases consist of more than two verbs. These verb phrases indicate various times of events being spoken. The following are some examples:

a) She <u>has been waiting</u> for you all day.
b) I <u>have been writing</u> this report since eight o'clock this morning.
c) They <u>have been traveling</u> since last October.
d) It <u>has been raining.</u>

Each of the verb phrases above consists of three verbs, two of which are auxiliaries, and the other is a main verb. One of the auxiliaries is *have* and the other is the past participle form of *be*. So, when the auxiliary *have* and the past participle of be co-occurring in a verb phrase, the auxiliary have must precede the past participle of *be*. The main always comes last.

6.   The Structure of the Verb Phrase
a.   In a finite verb phrases there are a number of choices.[105]

Tense :   Past or present?   *It showed* or *It shows*

Modal :   Modal or not?   *They could find* or *They found*

Aspect :   Perfect or not?   *It has gone* or *It goes*

               Continuous or not?   *It was happening* or *It happened*

 Voice: Passive or active?   *They   were informed* or *He informed them*

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[105] John Eastwood, *Oxford Guide to English Grammar* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1994).

b. In the verb phrase there is always an ordinary verb. There may be one or more auxiliaries in front of it.

Auxiliary verb(s)		Ordinary verb	
You		***leave***	*valuable articles*
the police		***arrived***	
someone	***will***	***steal***	*them*
this	***has***	***gone***	*on too long*
he	***was***	***looking***	*for his clothes*
the police	***were***		***informed***
the camera	***should have***		***worked***
someone things	***has been***		***taking***
a man by police	***is being***		***questioned***
his clothes	***had been***		***stolen***
I	***must have been***		***dreaming***

If there is no auxiliary, the verb is in a simple tense: *leave* (present simple), *arrived* (past simple).

Auxiliary verbs come in this order:
modal verb - *have* - *be* (continuous) - *be* (passive)
The auxiliary verb affects the form of the next word, whether the next word is another auxiliary or an ordinary verb.

Modal verb + base form: *will* ***steal***, *should* ***have*** *worked*
have + past participle: *has* ***gone***, *has* ***been*** *taking, have* ***worked***
be + active participle: *was* ***looking***, *has been* ***taking***

be + passive participle: *were **informed**, had been **stolen***

The first word of the verb phrase is present or past, e.g. *leave* (present), *arrived* (past), *has* (present), *was* (past). The exception is modal verbs, which do not usually have a tense. Sometimes the first word agrees with the subject: *you leave/he leaves.*

Note

- The perfect, the continuous and the passive do not usually all come in the same phrase. A sentence like *It might have been being played* is possible but unusual.
- *Be* and *have* can be ordinary verbs.
  *The money **was** in the changing room. The club **has** a chairman.*
- An adverbial can come inside the verb phrase.
  *Someone will **probably** steal them. A man is **now** being questioned.*
- For the imperative, e.g. Play something for me,
  For emphatic *do* + base form, e.g. *You **did play** yesterday,*

c. The (first) auxiliary is important in negatives and questions. In negatives, the auxiliary has *not after it*.
   *They **haven't** played the video*
   In questions the auxiliary comes before the subject.
   ***Have** they played the video?*
   In simple tenses, the auxiliary is *do*.
   *They **didn't** play the video. **Did** they play the video?*

7. Meaning in the verb phrase

a) Tense

The first word of a finite verb phrase is either present or past. Usually the tenses mean present time and past time, 'now' and 'then'.

Present: I ***think*** *we're going to like it.*
             *We **bright** at the top.*
Past: *We **heard** about it through a friend.*
             *We **were** getting pretty desperate.*

Note

- In some contexts the choice of present or past depends on the speaker's attitude.

    *Have you a moment? **I want** to ask you something.*
    *Have you a moment? **I wanted** to ask you something.*

    Here the present tense is more direct. The past tense is more distant. It makes the request more tentative and so more polite. For these tenses in conditional clauses,

b) Modal verbs

With modal verbs we can express ideas such as actions being possible or necessary.

    *We **couldn't** find anywhere.*   *You **must** come and see us.*

c) The perfect

These verb phrases have perfect aspect.

    *We **have** just **finished** the decorating.*
    *We **have been** there a month now.*
    *We **had been** looking for ages.*

The perfect means 'up to now or 'up to then. The decorating came to an end in the period leading up to the present time. We can sometimes choose the present perfect or the past simple, depending on how we see the action.

> *We've **finished** the decorating. (in the period up to now)*
> *We **finished** the decorating. (in the past)*

d) The continuous

These verb phrases are continuous (sometimes called 'progressive').

> *We **are decorating** at the moment.*
> *We had **been looking** for ages.*
> *We **were getting** pretty desperate.*

The continuous means for a period of time'. We are in the middle of decorating. the search for the flat went on for a period of time.

Sometimes the use of the continuous depends on how we see the action. We do not use the continuous if we see the action as complete.

Period of time: *We had **been looking** for ages.*
Complete action: *We had **looked** everywhere.*

State verbs (e.g. know) are not normally continuous.

e) The passive

We use the passive when the subject is not the agent but what the action is directed at.

> *The flat **wasn't advertised**.*

In the conversation *A new flat*, Jason chooses a passive sentence here because *the flat* is the best subject. It relates to what has gone before.

8. Verb tenses and aspect

a) Present Continuous and present simple

Present continuous: Present simple:
present of *be* + active participle   base form/s-form

*I **am** read**ing***
*you/we/they **are** read**ing***   I/you/we/they
read
*he/she it **is** read**ing***   he/she/it **reads**

Negative
*I **am not** reading*
*you/we/they **are not** read**ing***   I/you/we they **do**
not read
*he/she/it **is not** read**ing***   he/she/**it does not**
read

Questions
***am I** read**ing**?*
***are** you/we/they read**ing**?*   ***Do** I/you/we/they **read**?*
***is** he/she it read**ing**?*   ***does** he/she/it **read**?*

In present simple questions and negatives we use do/does and the base form of the verb.
NOT *He does not reads* and NOT *Does he reads?*

NOTE
- There are some spelling rules for the participle.
    Leaving out *e* : *los**e** losing*
    *Doubling of some consonants: sto**p***
    *sto**pp**ing*

- There are some spelling rules for the s-form.
  Adding *es* after a sibilant sound: *push pushes*
  Y changing to *ie: hurry hurries*
- For pronunciation of the s/es ending

b) Present perfect and past simple

Present perfect:	Past simple:
present of *have* + past participle	past form

*I/you/we/they **have** opened*   *someone opened*
*he/she/it **has** opened*

Negative
*I/you/we/they **have not** opened*   *someone **did not** open*
*he/she/it **has not** opened*

Questions
***have** I/you/we/they opened?*   ***did** someone **open**?*
***has** he/she/it opened?*

Some participles and past forms are irregular, e.g. *seen, bought*.
The perfect auxiliary is always *have*.
  NOT *They arc opened the shop* and NOT *I am hurt myself*.
In past simple questions and negatives we use did and the base form of the verb.
  NOT *It did not opened* and NOT *Did it opened*?

NOTE
- There are some spelling rules for the ed-form.
  Adding *d* after *e*: *dose   closed*
  Doubling of some consonants: *stop   stopped*
  Y changing to *i*: *hurry   hurried*

- For pronunciation of the *ed* ending,

c) Past continuous
Past of be + active participle
I/he/she/it **was** *flying*
you/we/they **were flying**

Negative   Questions
I/he/she/it **was not** *flying*   **was** *I/he/she/it flying?*
you/we/they **were not flying**   **were***you/we/they flying?*

d) Present perfect continuous
Present of have + been + active participle
I/you/we/they **have been** *waiting*
he/she/it **has been waiting**
Negative   Questions
I/you/we/they **have not been waiting**   **have**
I/you/we/they **been** *waiting?*
he/she/it **has not been waiting**   **has** *he/she/it* **been**
waiting?

e) Past perfect and past perfect continuous
Past perfect: Past perfect continuous:
had + past participle   *had been* + active participle
someone **had** *invited*   *someone* **had been** *going*
Negative
someone **had not** *invited*   *someone* **had not been**
going
Questions
had *someone invit**ed**?*   **had** *someone* **been going***?*

9. The Future

a. Will and shall

    1) We use *will* + base form for the future.

> *This book **will change** your life.*   ***We'll***   ***know*** *our exam results in August.*
>
> *Cinema goers **will have** to travel ten miles to the nearest cinema.*
>
> ***Will*** *you still **love** me tomorrow?*   *This*   *town* ***won't be*** *the same again.*

Will has a short form 'II, and will not has a short form won't.

    2) In the first person we can use either *will* or *shall* in statements about the future. The meaning is the same.

> *I **will be/shall be** at home tomorrow.*
>
> *We **will have/shall have** another opportunity soon.*

Shall is less usual in the USA.

We do not normally use shall with other subjects.

> NOT *Christine shall be at home tomorrow.*

NOTE
- *Shall not* has a short form *shan't* / a:nt /.
- *I **shan't** be here tomorrow.*

    3) *Will* often expresses the future as fact, something we cannot control. It expresses a prediction, a definite opinion about the future.

> *Southern England **will stay** cloudy and windy tonight.*
>
> *My father **will** probably **be** in hospital for at least two weeks.*

    4) We can sometimes use I'll/we'll for an instant decision.

*It's raining. I'll **take** an umbrella.   I   think   I'll **have** the soup, please.*

We decide more or less as the words are spoken. Compare be going to.

   ***I'll buy** some postcards.* (I'm deciding now.)

   ***I'm going to buy** some postcards.* (I've already decided.)

NOTE

Will expresses a definite action in the future, not just a wish.

   Action: *There's a shop here. **I'll buy** some postcards. ~ OK, **I'll wait** for you.*

   Wish: *I **want to buy** some postcards, but I haven't got any money.*

5) *Will* sometimes expresses willingness.

   *Jim **will translate** it for you. He speaks Italian.*

   ***I'll** sit/I'm willing to sit on the floor. I don't mind.*

   Won't can express unwillingness or an emphatic refusal.

   *The doctor **won't come** at this time of night.*

   *I **won't put** up with this nonsense.*

NOTE

We can also use won't when the subject is not a person.

   *The car **won't start**.   This screw **won't go** in properly.*

6) We can use *I'll/we'll* and *will/won't you* in offers, promises, etc.

   Offer: ***I'll hold** the door open for you. ~ Oh, thanks.*

   Promise: *(I promise) **I'll do** my best to help you.*

   Invitation: ***Won't you sit** down?*

Request: ***Will you do*** *something for me?*

7) When we can't decide, we use *shall I/we* to ask for advice or suggestions.
*Where **shall I put** theseflowers? ~ I'll get a vase.*
*What **shall we do** this weekend?*
We can also use shall I/we for an offer.
***Shall I hold** the door open for you? ~ Oh, thanks.*

8) We can use *you shall* for a promise.
*You **shall be** the first to know. (I promise).*

9) *Will* is sometimes used in formal orders. It expresses the order as a definite future action. This emphasizes the authority of the speaker.
*You **will leave** the building immediately.*
*Uniform **will be worn**.*
Shall is sometimes used for formal rules.
*The secretary **shall give** two weeks' notice ofsuch a meeting.*

b. Present tense forms for the future

1) We use the present continuous for what someone has arranged to do.

I'm meeting Gavin at the club tonight.
*What **are** you **doing** tomorrow?*

*Julie **is going** to Florida.*

This suggests that Julie has made arrangements such as buying her ticket.

The meaning is similar to be going to for an intention, and in many contexts we can use either form.

*We're visiting/ **We're going to visit** friends at the weekend.*

NOTE

- An 'arrangement' need not be with another person.

    ***I'm doing** some shopping this afternoon.*
    ***I'm having** an early night.*

    This means that I have arranged my day so that I can do these things,

- We cannot use a state verb in the continuous.

    *Gavin **will be** at the club tonight.*
    NOT Gavin is being at the club tonight.

2) We can sometimes use the present simple for the future, but only for what we see as part of a timetable.

    *The Cup Final **is on** May 7th.   The train **leaves** at 16.40.*

    *We **change** at Birmingham.   What time **do** you **arrive** in Helsinki?*

   We do not use the present simple for decisions or intentions.

    NOT I carry that bag for you.

    NOT They build some flats here soon.

c. Will, be going to or the present continuous

1) Both *will* and *be going* to can express predictions.

    ***It'll rain**, I expect. It always rains at weekends.*
    *It's **going to rain**. Look at those clouds.*

   A prediction with be going to is based on the present situation.

   Sometimes we can use either form with little difference in meaning.

    *One day the sun **will cool** down.*
    *One day the sun **is going to cool** down.*

The sentence with *be going to* suggests that there is some present evidence for the prediction.

We often use *will* with *I'm sure, I think, I expect* and *probably.*

> **I think we'll** have time for a coffee.
> There'll **probably** be lots of people at the disco.

We use **be going to** (not will) when the future action is very close.

> **Help! I'm going to** *fall!*   **I'm going to be** *sick!*

NOTE

Compare the meanings of these verb forms.

> *The cinema **closed** last year.*   *The cinema **has closed**.*
> (in the past)   (past action related to the present)
> *The cinema **will close** in November.*   *The cinema **is going to close** soon*.
> (in the future)   (future action related to the present)

2) When we talk about intentions, plans and arrangements, we use *be going to* or the present continuous, but not will.

> **We're going to eat** *out tonight. (We have decided to eat out.)*

> *We're **eating** out tonight. (We have arranged to eat out.)*

We use *will* only for an instant decision.

> *It's hot in here. **I'll open** a window.*

> *Paul is using the kitchen. He's cooking for some friends. ~ Well, we'll **eat** out then.*

d. The future continuous: will be doing

1) We use *will + be + active* participle for an action over a period of future time. It means that we will be in the middle of an action.

*I can't meet you at four. **I'll be working.***

*How will I recognize you? ~ I'm fair, six feet tall, and **I'll be wearing** a blue coat.*

*A huge crowd **will be waiting** when the Queen arrives later today.*

Compare the past and future.

*I've just had a holiday. This time last week I **was lying** in the sun.*

*I'm going on holiday. This time next week I'll be **lying** in the sun.*

Compare these sentences.

*The crowd **will cheer** when the Queen arrives.*

(She will arrive and then the crowd will cheer.)

*The crowd **will be cheering** when the Queen arrives.*

(The crowd will start cheering before she arrives.)

NOTE

In the first person we can also use shall.

***I will/shall be revising** all day for the exam.*

2) We can also use *will be doing* for an action which is the result of a routine or arrangement.

***I'll be phoning** my mother tonight. I always phone her on Fridays.*
*The Queen **will be arriving** in ten minutes' time.*

*The postman **will be coming** soon.*

*The site is to be sold, and so the cinema **will be closing** in November.*

The phone call is the result of my regular routine. The Queen's arrival is part of her schedule. The postman's visit is part of his normal working day. Compare these sentences.

Decision: *I think I'll have lunch in the canteen today.*

Arrangement: *I'm **having** lunch with Alex.*

Routine: *I'll be **having** lunch in the canteen as usual.*

We can use will be doing to ask if someone's plans fit in with our wishes.

***Will** you **be going** past the post office this morning? ~ Yes, why? ~ Could you post this for me please?*

How long will you be using the tennis court? ~ We've booked it until three. You can have it after that.

When will you be marking our test papers? ~ Next week, probably.

e.   **The future perfect: will have done**

We can use *will* + *have*+ past participle to look back from the future, to talk about something that will be over at a future time.

***I'll have finished** this book soon. I'm nearly at the end.*

*We don't want to spend all day in the museum. I should think we'll **have seen** enough by lunch-time.*

*Sarah **won't have completed** her studies until she's twenty-five.*

*Our neighbours are moving soon. They'll **have** only **been** here a year.*

NOTE

- In the first person we can also use shall.

    *We **will/shall have done** half the journey by the time we stop for lunch*.

- For *until* and *by*,
- We can use will with the perfect and the continuous together.

    *I'll **have been reading** this book for about six weeks.*

    *Our neighbours are moving soon. They'll **have** only **been living** here a year.*

10. Be, have and Do

a. Auxiliary verbs and ordinary verbs

1) In these statements, *be* and *have* are auxiliary verbs.

    Continuous: *I'm **taking** my library books back.*

    Passive: *Books **are lent** for a period of three weeks.*

    Perfect: *I've **finished** this book.*

    In a statement we do not normally use the auxiliary do. Verbs in the present simple or past simple have no auxiliary.

    Simple: *I **like** murder stories.*

2) In negatives, questions and some other patterns, we always use an auxiliary. In simple tenses we use the auxiliary do.

	be/have	do
Negative *the library*	*I'm not going to*	*I don't go to*
	the post office.	*very often.*
Question *library? ~*	*Have you **finished.***	*do you **use** the*
short answer	*this book? ~ Yes, **I have**.*	*Yes, I **do.***
Tag *murder stories,*	*You're reading*	*You like*
	*this book, **aren't** you?*	
		***don't** you?*
Addition *that book.*	*I've read this book.*	*I enjoyed*
	*~ So **have** I.*	*So **did** I.*
Emphasis	*I **am** enjoying this book.*	*I **do** like*
murder stories.		

3) *Be*, *have* and *do* can also be ordinary verbs.

*It **was** a lovely day.* *We **had** some sandwiches.* (= ate)

*I **did** the crossword this morning.* (= completed)

The ordinary verbs can be perfect or continuous.

*It **has been** a lovely day.* *We **were having** some sandwiches*. (= were eating)

*I've **done** the crossword*. (= have completed)

NOTE

- There can be the same auxiliary and ordinary verb together.

    *I **was being** lazy.* (continuous of be)   *I've **had** a sandwich.* (perfect of have)

    *I **did do** the crossword yesterday.* (emphatic form of do)

- The ordinary verb do can be passive.

    *The crossword **was done** in ten minutes.*

11. Modal Verbs

a) Introduction to modal verbs

1) A modal verb is always the first word in the verb phrase. It always has the same form and never has an ending such as 5, *ingot ed*. After a modal verb we put a bare infinitive.

> ***It will be*** windy.　　***You should look*** after your money.

A modal does not have a to-infinitive after it (except *ought*).

NOTE

- Some modal verbs have a spoken weak form.
   > You ***must***/m^st/give me your honest opinion.
- We can stress a modal if we want to put emphasis on its meaning.
   > You really ***must/be quiet***. (It is very necessary.)
   >
   > You 'may be right. (It is not certain.)
- *Will* and *would* have the written short forms *'ll* and *'d*.

2) Like the other auxiliary verbs (*be, have* and *do*), modal verbs are important in negatives, questions, tags and so on. A modal verb can have *not* after it, and it comes before the subject in questions.

> *Your desk **shouldn't** be untidy.*
>
> *How **should** I organize my work?*
>
> . *You should take notes, **shouldn't** you? ~ I suppose I **should**.*

We do not use *do* with a modal. NOT *HOW do I should organize my work?*

3) A modal verb does not usually have a tense. It can refer to the present or the future.

Present: *We **must** know now.*   *The letter **might** be in my bag*.

Future: *We **must** know soon.*   *The letter **might** arrive tomorrow*.

For the past we use had to, was able to etc, or we use a modal verb + have.

Past: *We **had to** know then.*   *The letter **might have** arrived yesterday.*

But in some contexts *could, would, should and might are past forms of can, will, shall* and *may*.

   *I **can't** remember the formula*. (present)

   *I **couldn't** remember the formula*. (past)

   *We **may** have problems*. (direct speech)

   *We thought we **might** have problems*. (indirect speech)

4) A modal verb can go with the perfect, the continuous or the passive.

   Perfect: *I **may have shown** you this before*.

   Continuous: *They **may be showing** the film on television*.

   Passive: *We **may be shown** the results later.*

   Perfect + continuous: *You **must have been dreaming**.*

   Perfect + passive: *The car **must have been stolen**.*

5) There are some expressions with *have* and *be* which have very similar meanings to the modal verbs.

   a) The main expressions are *have to*, *be able to*, *be allowed to* and *be going to*.

       *You **have to** fill in this form.*   *I **was able to** cancel the order.*

There are some important differences in the use of modal verbs and these expressions, *e.g. must and have to*, *can/may and be allowed to*, *and could and was able to*, *For will and be going to*, *and for be to*,

b) We can use *have to*, *be able to*, etc to talk about the past.

> We **had** to do a test yesterday. NOT *We must do a test yesterday*.

We can also use them in the infinitive and ing-form.

> I want to **be allowed to** take part. NOT *to may take part*

> **Being able** to see properly is important. NOT *canning to see A modal verb does not have an infinitive or ing-form*.

c) We sometimes put a modal verb in front of *have to, be able* to etc, or we use two such expressions together.

> You **will have to** hurry.   I **might be able to** do a little revision.

> We **ought to be allowed to** decidefor ourselves.

> People **used to have to** wash clothes by hand.

> You **aren't going to be able to** finish it in time.

But we cannot use two modals together. NOT *You will must hurry.*

d) Some nouns, adjectives and adverbs and ordinary verbs have similar meanings to modal verbs.

> There's no **chance** ofeverything being ready on time.

> It's **essential/vital** you keep me informed.

> *They'll **probably** give us our money back.*
>
> *The passengers **managed** to scramble to safety.*

b) Obligation and advice: Should, ought to etc

   1) *Should* and *ought* to

     a) We use *should* and ought *to* for obligation and advice, to say what is the right thing or the best thing to do.

> *They **should build/ought to** build more hospitals.*
>
> *People **shouldn't** leave/oughtn't to leave litter all over the place.*
>
> *You **should** go **I ought to** go to York. It's an interesting place.*
>
> *I **shouldn't** leave/**oughtn't to** leave things until the last moment.*
>
> *Who **should** we invite? / Who **ought** we **to** invite1.*

     Should and ought to are not as strong as must.

> *You **should** tour in a group.* (It's a good idea to.)
>
> *You **must** tour in a group.* (It's essential.)

     But in formal rules should is sometimes a more polite and less emphatic alternative to must.

> *Passengers **should** check in at least one hour before departure time.*

     b) We can use the continuous or perfect after *should* and *ought to.*

> *I **should be doing** some work really.*
>
> *You **should have planted** these potatoes last month.*

*After all the help Guy has had, he **ought to have thanked** you.*

The perfect here means that the right action did not happen. Compare *had to*,
where the action really happened.

*I **ought to have** left a tip.*

(Leaving a tip was the right thing to do, but I didn't leave one.)

*I **had to** leave a tip.*

(It was necessary to leave a tip, so I did leave one.).

c) Probability: *should* and *ought to*

We use *should* and *ought to* to say that something is probable, either in the present or the future.

*They **should** have/**ought to** have our letter by now.*

*We **should** know/ought **to** know the result soon.*

In the negative the usual form is shouldn't.

*We **shouldn't** have long to wait.*

Should and *ought to* have the additional meaning 'if all goes well'. We cannot use these verbs for things going wrong.

*The train **should** be on time. but NOT The train should be late.*

NOTE

To express probability we can also use *be likely to* or *will probably*.

***We're likely to** know the result soon./**We'll probably** know the result soon*.

d) Certainty: *will*, *must* and *can't*
   1) We can use these verbs to say that something is certainly true or untrue.

There's someone at the door. ~ It'll be the milkman.

*You got up at four o'clock! Well, you **must** be tired.*

*This **can't** be Roland's textbook. He doesn't do physics.*

Will expresses a prediction. It means that something is certainly true, even though we cannot see that it is true. *Must* means that the speaker sees something as necessarily and logically true. *Can't* means that the speaker sees it as logically impossible for something to be true.

Must and *can't* are opposites.

*The bill **can't** be so much. There **must** be some mistake.*

NOTE
- In informal English we can sometimes use *have (got) to* for logical necessity.
    *There **has to/has got to** be some mistake.*
- We can also use *be sure/bound to*.
    *Carl **is sure to/is bound to** be sitting in a cafe somewhere.*
- For *can't* and *mustn't* in the USA,

2) In questions we normally use *can* or *will*.
    *Who **will/can** that be at the door?   **Can**   it really be true?*

   But *can* for possibility has a limited use in statements.

3) We can use the continuous or the perfect after *will, must* and *can't*.
    *Where's Carl?~ **He'll be sitting** in a cafe somewhere, I expect.*

*The bus is ten minutes late. It **must be coming** soon.*

*This glass is cracked. Someone **must have dropped** it.*

***I can't have gone** to the wrong house. I checked the address.*

Compare must have *done* expressing certainty about the past and *had to*

expressing a past necessity.

*This film seems very familiar. I **must have seen** it before.*

*Everyone had been telling me about the film. I **had to** see it.*

But for another meaning of *had to*,

4) *Must do* is usually a kind of order, a way of telling someone to do something. Must *be doing* usually means it is logically necessary that something is happening.

*You've got exams soon. You **must work**.* (order)

*Paul isn't at home. He **must be working**.* (logical necessity)

5) We can use *would, had to and couldn't* when something seemed certain in the past.

*There was someone at the door. It **would** be the milkman.*

*The fingerprints were the husband's, so he **had to** be the murderer.*

*Harold stared in amazement. It **couldn't** be true!*

e) Possibility: may, might, can and could

GOING TO LONDON

Leon: *I **may** drive up to London on Saturday. There are one or two things I need to do there.*

Simon: *I'd go early if I were you. The motorway **can** get very busy, even on a Saturday. You **may** get stuck in the traffic.*

Leon: *Well, I didn't want to go too early.*

Simon: *You **could** go on the train of course.*

Leon: *Yes, that **may** not be a bad idea. I **might** do that. Have you got a timetable?*

Simon: *I **might** have. I'll just have a look.*

1) May and might

   a) We use *may and might* to say that something is possibly true.

      *This old picture **may/might** be valuable.*
      *That **may not/might not** be a bad idea.*

   We can also use may and might for an uncertain prediction or intention.

      *You **may/might** get stuck in traffic if you don't go early.*
      *I'm not sure, but I **may/might** drive up to London on Saturday.*

   There is almost no difference in meaning, but *may* is a little stronger than *might*.

      NOTE

- *Might not* has a short form.

      *That **mightn't** be a bad idea.*
      But *mayn't* is very old-fashioned. We use *may not*.

- There are other ways of being less than certain in English.

      Perhaps/Maybe the picture is valuable.
      *It's **possible** the picture is valuable./There's a **possibility** the picture is valuable.*

> This toaster **seems to/appears** to work all right.
> **I think** that's a good idea.
> **We write the** adverb *maybe* as one word.

b) We do not often use *may or might* in questions.

> **Do you think** you'll get the job?

c) We can use the perfect or the continuous after *may* and *might*.

> I don't know where the paper is. I **may have thrown** it away.
> Tina isn't at home. She **may** be **working** late.
> I **might be playing** badminton tomorrow.

d) We can use a statement with *might to* make a request.

> If you're going to the post office, you **might** get some stamps.

Might can also express criticism that something is not done.

> You **might** wash up occasionally.
> Someone might have thanked me for all my trouble.

Could is also possible here.

e) We use *might as well to* say that something is the best thing to do, but only because there is no better alternative.

> I can't repair this lamp. I **might as well** throw it away.
> Do you want to go to this party? ~ Well, I suppose we **might as well**.

2) Can and could

a) We use can and *could* to suggest possible future actions.

> *You **can/could** go on the train, of course.*
> *We **can/could** have a party. ~ Yes, why not?*
> *If we're short of money, I **can/could** sell my jewellery.*

Can is stronger than *could*, which expresses a more distant possibility.

b) We use can and *could* in requests. Could is more tentative.

> ***Can/Could** you wait a moment, please?*
> ***Can/Could** I have one of those leaflets, please?*

We also use *can* for an offer.

> *I **can** lend you a hand.   **Can** I give you a lift?*

c) Can and *could* express only a possibility. They do not mean that something is likely to happen.

> *We **can/could** have a party. ~ Yes, why not?*
> (suggestion)
> *We **may/might** have a party. ~ Oh, really?*
> (uncertain intention)

d) For something that is possibly true, we use *could*.

> *Tina **could** be working late tonight.*
> *The timetable **could** be in this drawer.*
> *You **could** have forgotten to post the letter.*

We can also use *may* or *might* here, but not can.

For an uncertain prediction about the future, we also use *could, may* or *might* but *not can*.
> The motorway **could** be busy tomorrow.

e) There is a special use of can to say that something is generally possible.
> You **can** make winefrom bananas.
> Smoking **can** damage your health.

Can often has the meaning 'sometimes'.
> Housewives **can** feel lonely. (= They sometimes feel lonely.)
> The motorway **can** get busy. (= It sometimes gets busy.)

NOTE
Tend to has a similar meaning.
*Americans **tend** to eat a lot of meat.*
*Dog owners **tend** to look like their dogs.*

f) *Can't and couldn't* express impossibility.
> She **can't** be very nice ifno one likes her.
> You **can't/couldn't** have seen Bob this morning. He's in Uganda.

Compare *can't* with *may not/might not*.
> This answer **can't** be right. It **must** be wrong.
> (= It is impossible for this answer to be right.)
> This answer **may not/might not** be right. It **may/might** be wrong.
> (= It is possible that this answer isn't right.)

g) Possibility in the past

May/might/could + perfect refers to something in the past that is possibly true.

> *Miranda **may have missed** the train.*
> (= Perhaps Miranda missed the train.)
> *The train **might have been delayed**.*
> (= Perhaps the train has been delayed.)
> *The letter **could have got lost** in the post.*
> (= It is possible that the letter has got lost in the post.)

NOTE

Could have done can also mean that a chance to do something was not taken.

*I **could have complained**, but I decided not to*.

f. Ability: can, could and be able to

1) *Can* and *could*

We use these verbs to say that something is possible because someone has the ability to do it. We use *can* for the present and *could for* the past.

> *Nicola **can** play chess.*
> *Can you draw a perfect circle?*
> *We **can't** move this piano. It's too heavy.*
> *Nicola **could** play chess when she was six.*
> *My grandfather **could** walk on his hands.*

The negative of can is *cannot*, written as one word. It has a short form
can't

As well as physical or mental ability, we also use *can/could* for a chance, an opportunity to do something.

> *We **can** sit in the garden when it's nice.*

*When we lived in aflat, we **couldn't** keep a dog.*

NOTE

- With some verbs we can use a simple tense for ability.

*I **(can) speak** French. We **didn't/couldn't understand** the instructions.*

- For *can/could* expressing a perception, e.g. *I **can see** a light,*

2) Be able to

   a) *Be able to* in the present tense is a little more formal and less usual than *can*.

> *The pupils **can** already read/are already **able to** read.*
>
> *The duchess **can** fly/**is able to** fly an aeroplane.*

   b) We use *be able to* (not can) in the perfect and the infinitive or ing-form.

> *Mr Fry has been illfor years. He **hasn't been able to** workfor some time.*
>
> *It's nice **to be able to** relax.*
>
> ***Being able to** speak the language is a great advantage.*

   c) We use *will be able to* for future ability or opportunity.

> *When you have completed the course, you **will be able to** impress others with your sparkling conversation.*
>
> *One day people **will be able to** go on a package tour ofthe solar system.*

But we normally use *can* to suggest a possible future action.

> *We **can** discuss the details later.*

3) *Could* and *was/were able to*

    a) In the past, we make a difference between a general ability and an ability which resulted in an action. For a general ability we use *could or was/were able to.*

> Kevin **could** walk/was **able to** walk when he was only eleven months old.

    But we use *was/were able to* to talk about an action in a particular situation, when someone had the ability to do something and did it.

> The injured man **was able to** walk to a phone box.
>
> NOT *The injured man could walk to a phone box*.

    We can also express the meaning with *managed to* or *succeeded* in.

> Detectives **were able to/managed to** identify the murderer.
>
> Detectives **succeeded** in identifying the murderer.

    b) But in negatives and questions we can use either was/were able to or could because we are not saying that the action really happened.

> Detectives **weren't able** to identify/couldn't identify the murderer.
>
> **Were you able to get/Could** you get ticketsfor the show?

NOTE

It is safer to use *was/were able to* when the question with *could* might be understood as a request. *Could you get tickets?* can be a request meaning 'Please get tickets'.

c) We normally use *could* (not was/were able to) with verbs of perception and verbs of thinking.

> *I **could see** smoke on the horizon.*
> *We **could understand** that Emily preferred to be alone.*

d) To say that someone had the ability or the chance to do something but didn't do it, we use *could have done*.

> *He **could have walked** there, but he decided to wait where he was.*
> *I **could have got** tickets, but there were only very expensive ones left.*

NOTE

Could have done can also express a past action that possibly happened.

> *The murderer **could have driven** here and dumped the body. We don't know yet if he did*.

e) *Could* can also mean 'would be able to'.

> *I **couldn't** do your job. I'd be hopeless at it.*
> *The factory **could** produce a lot more goods if it was modernized*.

12. The Passive

a. Tenses and aspects in the passive

1) A passive verb has a form of be and a passive participle. Be is in the same tense as the equivalent active form. The passive participle has the same form as a past participle: *announced, called, seen.*

> Active: *The Ministry **announced** the figure*. (past simple)

Passive: *The figure was announced.*
(past simple of be + passive participle)

a) Simple tenses (simple form of be + passive participle)
*Large numbers of people **are killed** on the roads.*
*The drugs **were found** by the police.*

b) The perfect (perfect of be + passive participle)
*Cocaine **has been seized** by the FBI.*
*The drugs **had been loaded** onto the ship in Ecuador.*

c) The continuous (continuous of be + passive participle)
*The case **is being called** 'the chocolate connection'.*
*Three men **were being questioned** by detectives last night.*

d) Will and be going to (future of be + passive participle)
*The drugs **will be destroyed**.*
*The men **are going to be charged** with importing cocaine.*

2) We form negatives and questions in the same way as in active sentences. In the negative not comes after the (first) auxiliary; in questions there is inversion of subject and (first) auxiliary.
Negative: *The drugs **were not** found by customs officers.*
*The law **hasn't** been changed.*
Question: *Where **were** the drugs found?*

__Ha__s the law been changed?

NOTE
We use by in a question about the agent.
Who were the drugs found by?

3) When we use a phrasal or prepositional verb in
   the passive, the adverb or preposition (e.g. *down,
   for*) comes after the passive participle.

   > *The tree was **cut down** last week.*
   > *Has the doctor been **sent for**?*

   Note also verb + adverb + preposition, and verbal
   idioms with prepositions.

   > *Such out-of-date practices should be **done
   > away with**.*
   > *The poor child is always being **made fun of.***

4) We can sometimes use a participle as a modifier,
   like an adjective: a broken vase, We can also put
   the participle after be. The vase was broken can
   express either a state or an action.

   State: *The vase **was broken**. It lay in
   pieces on the floor,*

   (be + complement) *The drugs **were hidden** in
   the ship. They were in blocks
   of chocolate.*

   Action: *The vase **was broken** by a
   guest. He knocked it over.*

   (passive verb) *The drugs **were hidden** (by
   the gang) and then loaded
   onto the ship.*

b.   Modal verbs in the passive

1) We can use the passive with a modal verb (or an
   expression like have to). The pattern is modal
   verb + be + passive participle.

   > *Stamps **can be bought** at any post office.*

*Animals **should** really **be seen** in their natural habitat.*
*Meals **have to be prepared** every day.*
*Many things that **used to be done** by hand are now done by machine.*

NOTE
For an adjective ending in able/ible meaning that something 'can be done',
*Stamps are **obtainable** at any post office.*

2) A modal verb can also go with the perfect and the passive together. The pattern is modal verb + have been + passive participle.

*I can't find that piece of paper. It **must have been thrown** away.*
*The plane **might have been delayed** by thefog.*
*This bill **ought to have been paid** weeks ago.*

c. **The passive with get**
1) We sometimes form the passive with get rather than with be.

*The vase **got broken** when we moved.   We **get paid** monthly.*
*It was so hot my shoulders **were getting** burnt.*
*If you don't lock your bike, it **might get stolen**.*

We use the passive with get mainly in informal English, and it has a more limited use than be. The passive with get expresses action and change, not a state. It often refers to something happening by accident, unexpectedly or incidentally. (Note that the payment of salaries is a small, incidental part of a company's whole

activities.) We do not use get for a major, planned action.

NOT *Wembley Stadium got built in 1923*.

In simple tenses we use the auxiliary *do* in negatives and questions.

*I forgot to leave the dustbin out, so it **didn't get emptied**.*

*How often **do** these offices **get cleaned**?*

2) We also use get + passive participle in some idiomatic expressions.

*There wasn't enough time to **get washed**. (= wash oneself)*

Such expressions are: *get washed, get shaved, get (un)dressed, get changed; get engaged, get married, get divorced; get started* (= start), *get lost* (= lose one's way).

The idioms *get washed/shaved/dressed/changed* are much more common than wash myselfetc. But we can use wash etc in the active without an object.

There wasn't much time to wash and change.

3) After get there can be an adjective in ed.

*I'd just **got interested** in the film when the phone rang*.

(= I'd just **become interested** in the film ...)

Some other adjectives used after *get* are *bored, confused, drunk, excited* and *tired*.

d. Passive + to-infinitive or active participle

Some patterns with a verb + object + infinitive/active participle have a passive equivalent.

1) Infinitive

a) Active: *Police advise drivers to use an alternative route.*

Passive: *Drivers* **are advised to use** *an alternative route.*

We can use this passive pattern with verbs like *tell, ask, persuade, warn, advise,* and verbs like *force, allow,*

NOTE

We can also use a finite clause after the passive verb.

Drivers are advised **that an alternative route should** *be* **used**.

b) Active: *The terrorists made the hostages lie down.*

Passive: *The hostages* **were made** *to lie down.*

In the passive pattern we always use a to-infinitive (to lie) even if in the active there is a bare infinitive (lie). This happens after *make* and after verbs of perception such *as see.*

NOTE

We do not often use *let in* the passive. We use *be allowed to* instead.

The hostages **were allowed to talk** *to each other.*

2) Active participle

Active: *The detective saw the woman putting thejewellery in her bag.*

Passive: *The woman* **was seen putting** *the jewellery in her bag.*

Active: *The officials kept us waitingfor half an hour.*
Passive: *We **were kept waiting** for half an hour.*
In this pattern we can use verbs of perception (see) and *catch, find, keep, leave, lose, spend,* and *waste.*

3) Overview

With a participle   With an infinitive

Active : *Someone saw him **running** away.*
*Someone saw him **run** away.*
Passive: *He was seen **running** away.*
*He was seen **to run** away.*

e. The passive to-infinitive and gerund
1) Forms

	Active	Passive
To-infinitive	*to play*	*to be played*
Perfect to-infinitive	*to have played*	*to have been played*
Gerund	*playing*	*being played*
Perfect gerund	*having played*	*having been played*

The passive forms end with a passive participle (played).

NOTE
Passive forms can sometimes have get instead of be.

*I don't expect **to get invited** to the wedding.*
*Let's not risk **getting caught** in a traffic jam.*

2) Patterns

The passive to-infinitive and gerund can come in the same patterns as the active forms, for example after some verbs or adjectives.

(a) To-infinitive

*I expect **to be invited** to the wedding. It's awful **to be criticized** in public. I'd like this rubbish **to be cleared** away as soon as possible.*

NOTE

After decide and agree we use a finite clause with should.

*We decided that the rubbish **should be cleared** away.*

After arrange we can use a to-infinitive pattern with for.

*We arranged **for** the rubbish **to be cleared** away.*

(b) Perfect to-infinitive

*I'd like this rubbish **to have been cleared** away when I get back.*

(c) Gerund

***Being searched** by customs officers is unpleasant.*

*Let's not risk **being caught** in a traffic jam. I was afraid of **being laughed** at. The government tried to stop the book **being published**.*

NOTE

After suggest, propose, recommend and advise we use a finite clause with should.

> *The Minister proposed that the book **should be banned.***

(d) Perfect gerund
*I'm annoyed at **having been made** a fool of.*

3) Use of the passive forms
Compare the subjects in the active and passive clauses.
Active: *I'd like **someone** to clear away this rubbish.*
Passive: *I'd like **this rubbish** to be cleared away.*
In the active, the subject of the clause is *someone*, the agent. In the passive it is *this rubbish*, the thing the action is directed at.

When the main clause and the infinitive or gerund clause have the same subject, then we do not repeat the subject.
> *I expect to be invited to the wedding.*
(= I expect that I shall be invited to the wedding.)
The understood subject of *to be invited* is *I*.

f.   Overview: active and passive verb forms
  1) Tenses and aspects
  Active
   Passive

  Present simple
  *They play the match.   The match **is played***
  Present continuous
  *They are playing the match.   The   match **is being played***
  Present perfect

They have played the match. *The macth **has been played***

Past simple

They played the match. *The macth **was played***

Past continuous

They were playing the match. *The macth **was being played***

Past perfect

They had played the match. *The macth **had been played***

Future

They will play the match. *The macth **will be played***

They are going to play the match. *The match **is going to be played***

2) Modal verbs

Modal + infinitive

They should play it. ***They should played***

They ought to play it. ***They ought to played***

Modal + perfect infinitive

They should have played it. ***They should have been played.***

They ought to have played it. ***They ought to have been played***

3) To-infinitive and gerund

To-infinitive

I wanted them to play the match.

*I wanted the match **to be played***

Perfect to-infinitive

They expect to have played the match by then

*They expect the match **to have been played***

match by then.

Gerund

They left without playing the match.

*They left without the match **being played***

Perfect gerund

They left without having played the match.

*They left without the match **having been played***

C. The Concept of Writing

1. The Definition of Writing

The four basic skills of English language learning are well known: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These abilities are classified as either receptive or productive. Reading and listening are receptive skills because they do not require learners to produce language. Students only plan their strategy for understanding information in the oral or written text that they listen to or read. Speaking and writing, on the other hand, are considered productive skills in which students must produce language. Students should produce oral language production when speaking and written language production when writing. As a result, when learning a new language, learners begin with a receptive understanding of the new items and then progress to productive use. Learners typically begin by listening, then speaking, then reading, and finally writing.

Writing has long been regarded as a critical skill in the teaching and learning of English as a Second Language (ESL) because it is a comprehensive skill that helps reinforce vocabulary, grammar, thinking, planning, editing, revising, and other elements. Writing also aids in the development of all other skills, such as listening, speaking, and reading, as they are all interrelated.[106] Writing not only

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[106] Hadeel Saad, "The Effectiveness of a Proposed Program Based on a Mind Mapping Strategy in Developing the Writing Achievement of Eleventh Grade EFL Students in Jordan and Their Attitudes Towards... Linguistic Ethnography of

stimulates students' thinking but also forces them to concentrate and organize their thoughts, as well as develop their abilities to summarize, analyze, and criticize. At the same time, it emphasizes continuous learning, thinking, and reflecting in English.[107]

Hammer define writing is one of the four English skills that students must master in order to be able to communicate with each other.[108] Writing is a means of communication to convey the author's thoughts or ideas and to express feelings in writing. At the same time, Brown argues that writing is a thought process. From this, it can be concluded that writing is the ability to communicate by conveying thoughts and expressing feelings. Richards and Renandy argue writing is regarded as the most difficult skill for second language learners to master, the difficulty is not only in generating and organizing ideas but also in translating ideas into readable text.[109] It convey that the difficulties of writing stem from students' ability to think of good ideas, organize them into good paragraph structure, and deliver a discourse to readers. The translation of ideas into correct English dictions becomes the most important consideration for students as writers. In short, writing becomes the most important skill for most students because they must produce text that is readable for the readers while incorporating complex linguistic elements.

Writing skills are specific skills that help writers organize their thoughts into meaningful words and mentally interact with their messages. There are several definitions of writing

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Discursive Identities of an English for Medica," *Journal of Education and Practice*, no. January 2014 (2014), https://www.researchgate.net/publication/334537337.

[107] Mojtaba Maghsoudi, "The Impact of Brainstorming Strategies Iranian EFL Learners' Writing Skill Regarding Their Social Class Status," *International Journal of Language and Linguistics* 1, no. 1 (2013): 60, https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ijll.s.20130101.20.

[108] Jeremy, Harmer. "How to Teach Writing," *Overland* 2018-Winte, no. 231 (2004): 162.

[109]Richard&Renandya,"Methodology_in_Language_Teaching_2002_Scann ed. 2002.p.303

explained by various linguists. Harmer states writing is an integral part of a larger activity in which something else is focused, such as writing language practice, acting, or speaking. Writing, on the other hand, is the representation of language in a text medium using a series of signs or symbols.[110] Some people find writing difficult, Elbow has stated that you need the ability to generate words and ideas from within yourself in order to write, but you also need the ability to criticize them and explain which words should be used.[111]

Then, the next expert Axelrod and Coopers, writing is a complex process with elements of mystery and surprise, but it is believed that writing is a skill that anyone can learn to manage.[112] It says that writers must go through a difficult writing process when creating text. It can begin with thinking of ideas, structuring them, and writing all of the elements into a good structure of ideas that the readers can read. Writing, on the other hand, is something that students can learn. As a result, students should learn all language elements in order to become good writers. To summarize, while learning to write is difficult, students can learn it by improving the language elements that support their writing skills.

Writing ability is synonymous with the ability to express ideas through written products. In this case, Murcia defined writing as the ability to express one's ideas in writing as a second or foreign language.[113] That writing is an activity that allows us to express ourselves in written form. That writing is a skill that students have that allows them to express themselves through written language. As a result,

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[110] Jeremy, Harmer. Op. Cit., p.33

[111] Elbow, Peter. *Writing With Power Techniques for Mastering the Writing Process*, oxford university press 1998.P.9

[112] Rise, B. Axelrod and Cooper Raymond Charles R, *The St. Martin's Guide to Writing* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1985).

[113] Murcia, celce Mariane. *Teaching English as a Second Language or Foreign Language, ELT Journal, third edit, vol. 3 (Heinle Thomson learning,* 1949), https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/III.5.113.

understanding text structure and developing idea skills are important for students to express their ideas through written language so that readers can easily understand them. It should also be noted that writing involves the writer's physical elements. According to Barnet and Stubbs, writing is a physical act that requires material and energy.[114] It points to, when students are learning to write, they should be aware of their ability to perform fully and bring pleasure. In this case, serious writing practice is required to be successful in producing the text of high-quality or readable text for the readers.

From some of the definitions above, it can be concluded that the definition of Writing is the process of inventing ideas, deciding how to express them, and organizing them into statements and paragraphs with the goal of communicating something with other people indirectly. Students learn to express themselves through language in writing. Writing is one of the language skills that requires a complicated process to learn for students to produce readable text that delivers specific discourse to the readers. Students must be proficient in language grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, and spelling knowledge in order to produce a good writing text. The most important factor in developing writing fluency in students is practice.

2. The Process of Writing

In the writing process, it is not the result that is the focus, but the most important thing is practice. According to Hyland, illustrating the stages of writing will give students a clear understanding that in order to produce good writing, students must first understand the writing process. The writing process has several stages that must be

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[114] Barnet and Stubbs"s, *Practical Guide to Writing*, 4th edition (Canada: Brown Company, 2003).p.3

understood.[115] First, the topic is decided upon by the teacher and students. They can decide on or choose a topic together. Second, prepare to write. Students exchange ideas, make outlines, take notes, and gather data at this stage. Students write sentences in the third stage (drafting). At this point, students begin to jot down ideas about the assigned topic on scrap paper. The following stage is revision. Done either by the teacher or in groups. It involves organizing the text, developing ideas, and evaluating it. The teacher grades the students' writing assignments. In this case, the teacher evaluates the progress made by students in the writing process. Following that, I simply published. It all comes down to student performance. This means that students will be able to present or display their writing in front of the class. The final step is the follow-up task. This is done to conclude the writing's flaws

Hamer mentions the writing process is divided into four stages. There are four of them: planning, drafting, editing (revising), and final revision.[116]

The stages of the writing process are:

Planning =>Drafting => Editing => Final Version

a. Planning

Students are expected to collect information about what will be written in accordance with the plan. Students also choose the purpose of their writing, the format of the text, the information to include, and the language to use. Students should also think about the content structure and idea organization. At this point, the teacher can help students generate the ideas they need while also acting as a motivator and facilitator.

b. Drafting

Drafting is the first stage of production for students to get ideas by using complete sentences that reflect the

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[115] Hyland, Ken. "Genre and Academic Writing in the Disciplines," *Language Teaching* 41, no. 4 (2008): 543–62, https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444808005235.p.10

[116] Jeremy, Harmer. *Op.Cit.*, p.86

general conventions of writing. At this point, students can express their ideas and write them in sentences to form a paragraph. Students should be given plenty of time because they need to concentrate on developing ideas and organizing those ideas rather than perfect grammar, punctuation, and spelling.

c. Editing

It is about how to revise student drafts. The process of revising and improving the first draft is known as editing. the teacher should read what students write as a draft again to check for ambiguous or confusing words or sentences If there are errors in writing. Errors can be minimized by participating in this activity.

d. Final Version

Harmer said the final version is the final stage of the writing process. Students create the final version after all processes have been completed. The final version may differ significantly from the previously determined plans and drafts. It is possible if there are many changes made during the editing process. Unimportant or irrelevant information should be removed from the draft. After completing those forms, the finished product is ready to be sent to the reader. It is different when students compose quickly. As a result of following those processes, the result of composing will be better.

3. Difficult Students in Writing

Writing is one of the most difficult skills in English, so students often struggle with it. Some factors may contribute to the problems. According to Bryne, writing difficulties fall into three categories: Physiology (content aspect), Linguistics (language use and vocabulary), and Cognitive difficulty (organization and mechanics).[117] Solikhah claims that linguistic problem is writing issues relating to the

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[117] Byrne, D "Teaching Writing Skills. New Edition/Donn Byrne," *London \& New York: Longman Handbooks for Language Teachers*, 1991. P.4

writer's capacity to apply language rules in accordance with writing standards.[118] Psychological problems are mental health issues that the author has that impact their motivation, self-worth, and anxiety. Byrne said cognitive problems are issues with the writer's comprehension of specific components of written instruction.[119]

In a real classroom, teachers usually discovered that students' difficulties varied as indicated by their writing test scores or criteria. Language use and vocabulary were found to be the most difficult aspects of the student's writing, while organization, mechanics, and content were found to be the easiest. Many students have criteria ranging from poor to very poor. It makes sense if the students have the most difficulty using the language. Because English is a foreign language, Bryne believes that linguistic aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, language use, and sentence structure must be closely monitored.[120] As a student of a non-native country, language use is always a problem. Not only for English but even for Indonesian, it is known that not all Indonesian students have good skills in written Indonesian.

According to the explanation above, the most prevalent difficulties in students' writing are related to Linguistic difficulty (in Grammar and Vocabulary Aspects), followed by writing difficulties related to Cognitive difficulty (in Organization and Mechanic Aspects), and Physiology difficulty (in Content Aspect).

There are five key elements of writing that must be considered, based on the previous paragraphs, namely content, organization, vocabulary, language usage, and mechanics. These five elements could make it challenging for pupils to put them into practice.

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[118] Solikhah Imroatus, "Center of Language and Culture Studies, Surakarta, Indonesia," *Ijoltl* 2, no. 1 (2017): 31–44.

[119] Byrne, D. *Loc. Cit.,*

a. Content

Roza et., al define a written concept called "content" as one that will be expanded upon and clarified. As a debate topic, content can also be interpreted. It could be founded on data, viewpoints, or personal encounters. Content can be seen as a person's method of refining his ideas into writing, in accordance with them.[121] Creating and organizing ideas for writing is a challenge for many authors. Also, alfaki said this could result from ignorance about the discussion's outcome. When it comes to cognitive challenges, difficulty creating material is a part of it. [122]

b. Organization

Writing must be organized properly for readers to understand its structure. According to this definition, Harris claims that organization is defined as the author's method of interacting with his audience. Because many authors find it challenging to produce and organize thoughts, the organization is one of the most prevalent challenges in writing.[123] Raimes asserts that one of the issues with writing organization is the challenge of differentiating between topics and supporting ideas. The term "cognitive problems" also includes "difficulty organizing writing".

c. Vocabulary

The use of vocabulary in writing is a criterion by which the author's use of words to construct sentences is assessed. The writer must employ proper diction in

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[121] Effendy Gultom and Dwi Pravitasari, "A Study on the Ability of the Second Year Students of Sman 10 Siak in Comprehending English Fables," *Sorot* 8, no. 2 (2013): 147, https://doi.org/10.31258/sorot.8.2.2357.

[122] Ibrahim Mohamed Alfaki, "University Students' English Writing Problems," *International Journal of English Language Teaching. Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (Www.Eajournals.Org)* 3, no. 3 (2015): 40–52,

[123] Harris David, *Testing English As a Second Language*, 17th edition (New York: Mc-Hill, 1969).

order to effectively convey the idea of the statement. One aspect of language challenges is difficulty applying terminology.[124] Because the writer lacks extensive experience in this area, the difficulty of writing in terms of language is considered. Langan argue contends that authors should take their time while selecting words rather than just utilizing the first ones that spring to mind. This is because proficient writers will try to select and employ the various vocabularies that the language has to offer.

d. Grammar

The first cause of linguistic difficulty is grammar. Debata asserts that grammar is a force that motivates us to be able to group words into sentences.[125] In other terms, grammar is a science that explains how language's word's function. Writing is a skill that heavily relies on grammar. The author's views can be effectively communicated in written words by using grammar. Writing requires organizing thoughts into well-developed sentences so that they may convey meaning. Oshima & Hogue define a sentence as a group of words used by the author to express concepts. Simple sentences, compound sentences, and complicated sentences are all possible sentence structures.[126] When students struggle with sentence structure, they cannot write sentences that require subordination and coordination with longer sentences. Writing in these sentence forms necessitates proficiency and knowledge in order to avoid errors.

a. Fragment sentence is a problem when the meaning of the sentence is hazy and unclear.

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[124] Alfaki, *Op. Cit.*,

[125] Pradeep Kumar Debata, "The Importance of Grammar in English Language Teaching-A Reassessment," *Language in India* 13, no. 5 (2013): 482–86,

[126] Houge, Ann Osima Alice. *Writing Academic English*, *Nucl. Phys.*, vol. 13 (Pearson, Longman., 1959).

b. Choppy sentence is one that is too brief, which is a sentencing problem. It is possible to classify it as nonacademic writing.

c. Run-on sentence is a grammatical error that happens when two independent clauses are written as a single unit without any punctuation.

d. Sentence problem known as a comma-splice occurs when two clauses are incorrectly combined using a comma without conjunction.

e. Stringy sentence is one that contains too many clauses and thus does not conclude. That goes on like a thread. Often, the conjunction is used to find this (and, but, or, etc.).

Furthermore, Mabuan states that there are seven types of grammar problems, including the misuse of verb tense, subject-verb agreement, prepositions, morphology, articles, verbs, and pronouns.[127]

a. **Mechanic**

Mechanics include punctuation, capitalization, and spelling, all these aspects are part of cognitive difficulties. Punctuation is a system that helps people understand what they are reading. Punctuation marks are used to avoid misunderstanding expressions and promote full comprehension of the writing. Byrne makes the case that punctuation needs to be acknowledged as difficult since it does not adhere to the same standards as spelling. A lot of students employ punctuation mechanically rather than as an essential component of the writing system, he continued.[128] It is possible that this is one of the reasons why kids make punctuation mistakes. There are numerous punctuation marks that can be used in

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[127] Tira Nur Fitria et al., "An Analysis of Weblogs ' Grammatical Errors of Filipino Learners of English as Second Language," *European Journal of English Language and Literature Studies* 17, no. 2 (2020): 7–15.

[128] Byrne, D. *Op. Cit.,*

writing, including quotation marks, commas, colons, semicolons, and points.

The use of capital letters in particular words is referred to as capitalization. Pathan claims, the most crucial goal of capitalization is to give readers a clear understanding of a word's meaning so that it is not unclear.[129] This sentence serves as an example of how capitalization errors can alter meaning. Pathan said, most students make capitalization mistakes because they are unaware of the principles of the proper usage and have the propensity to disregard them. They frequently capitalize the first letter of every word and even individual letters inside words they want to draw attention to.

Swick argues capitalization may be employed in the circumstances listed below.

a) The start of sentences should be capitalized.
b) The title is written in all caps.
c) Official names of companies or institutions are written in capital letters.
d) The name of the individual is capitalized.
e) Personal titles are written in all caps.
f) For the day and month, capitalization is utilized.
g) The acronym's entire alphabet is capitalized.[130]

pelling is a component of writing exercises that include
ng the letters of a word. Harmer states spelling problems can arise since there is not always a clear correlation between how the words sound and how the letters are written. Byrne claims Spelling difficulties are a

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[129] Md. Arif Khan Pathan, "The Most Frequent Capitalization Errors Made by the EFL Learners at Undergraduate Level: An Investigation," *Scholars International Journal of Linguistics and Literature* 4, no. 3 (2021): 65–72, https://doi.org/10.36348/sijll.2021.v04i03.001.

[130] Ed Swick, *English Grammar For ESL Learners* (McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005).

concern for language learners. This is due to the complicated interaction between sounds and symbols in spelling. By developing better writing habits and receiving feedback from peers or teachers, one can hone their spelling skills.[131]

4. **Assessments in Writing Skill**

Assessment is a crucial element of schooling. It can be described as a continuing process that covers a much larger realm. After teaching reading, teachers must assess their students' writing skills. Teachers conduct ongoing assessments to determine what their students can do after the lesson. If the situation reveals that the student's abilities are not truly satisfied, teachers can plan for additional treatment for students in order to improve their performance. In assessing writing the teacher should take the proper approach. In the field of education, there are two different approaches that can be used to evaluate writing ability. The first is to divide writing into discrete levels, such as grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation, and to test each separately using objective tests. The second is to construct more direct examples of different types.[132] They would have more construct and content but would necessitate a more subjective assessment.

Lin and Gronlund mention functional assessment is divided into four types:

a. A placement test to evaluate students' abilities before they begin a new course;
b. Formative assessment, which tracks students' development during a course,
c. A diagnostic evaluation to identify issues that keep cropping up during the learning process and to decide the most effective way to address them;

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[131] Byrne, D. *Op.Cit.,*

[132] Flojo, Ofelia Oracion, "Curriculum and Instruction : The Teaching of English," *Teacher Education Council, Department of Education*, 2013, 1–133, https://www.academia.edu/38239526/Module_6_1_English.p.95

d. A final exam to determine whether the objectives established at the start of the course have been met.[133]

Although all forms of evaluation are crucial at various points in a language course, academics place special emphasis on formative evaluation when teaching writing for academic purposes for a variety of reasons. For instance, Wei supports formative assessment as a collection of formal and informal methods targeted at improving both students' writing abilities and their learning potential. Formative assessment can take on a variety of shapes, including teacher, peer, self-assessment, or a combination of these. It also employs a variety of methods, including portfolios, interviews, and classroom observations. [134]

In order to evaluate students' writing effectively, teachers must have a proper understanding of writing evaluation. The purpose of the assessment of writing achievement is to evaluate the quality of the student's writing process and the volume of their written work. The researcher's primary interest in this study is the syntactical problem that students have when writing their writing.

5. The Characteristics of Good Writing

The teaching of writing is directed to have good results of writing. Melissa Donovan states seven characteristics of good writing as follows:

a. Clarity and focus: in good writing, everything makes sense, and readers don't get lost or have to reread passages to figure out what's going on focused writing sticks with the plot or core idea without running off on too many tangents.

b. Organization: a well-organized piece of writing is not only clear, but it's also presented in a way that is logical and aesthetically pleasing; you can tell

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[133] R. Gronlund, N. Linn, *Measurement and Assessment in Teaching.* (WI: Merril Publishing Associates, 2000).p.41-42

[134] L Wei, "Formative Assessment: Opportunities and Challenges.," *Journal of Language Teaching and Research,* 2010.

nonlinear stories or place your thesis at the end of an essay and get away with it as long as your scenes or ideas are well ordered.

c. Ideas and themes: the topic of your paper is relevant, the story comes complete with themes, and the reader can visualize your poem. For a piece of writing to be considered well-crafted, it must contain clearly identifiable ideas and themes.

d. Voice: this sets you apart from all other writers. It's your unique way of stringing words together, formulating an idea, and relating images to the reader.

e. Language (word choice): we writers can never underestimate or fail to appreciate our most valuable tools, words. Good writing includes smart word choices and well-crafted sentences.

f. Grammar: many writers would wish this one away, but for a piece of writing to be considered good (let alone great), it has to follow the rules of grammar (and break those rules only when there's a good reason).

g. Credibility or believability: nothing says bad writing, like getting the facts wrong or misrepresenting oneself. In fiction, the story must be believable (even if it's impossible), and in nonfiction, accurate research can make or break a writer.[135]

6. **The Importance of Writing**

Raimes states that writing is important to help the students in the learning process. The reasons are as follows:

a. Writing reinforces the grammatical structure and vocabulary which has been owned by the student.

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[135] Denovan Melissa, "Creative Writing Exercises," *Swan Hatch Press*, 2012.p.20

b. When the students write they also have a chance to be adventurous with the language to go beyond what they learned to say and to take the risk.

c. When the students write, they become very involved with the new language and effort to express the ideas and constant use of eye, had, and trains is unique way reinforce learning.[136]

7. The Types of Writing Texts

A text is a certain unity of meaning, which contains sequences of sentences. Anderson and Anderson as cited in Cholipah stated that the types of writing texts as follows:[137]

a. Explanation text is a text that tells a story. Its purpose is to present a view of the world that entertains or informs the reader or listener.

b. Recount text is a piece of text that retells past events, usually in the order in which they happened. The purpose is to give the audience a description of what occurred and when it occurred.

c. Procedure text is a piece of text that gives instruction for doing something. The purpose is to explain how something can be done

d. Descriptive text is a piece of text that describes living things or non-living things. Its purpose is to describe to audience people, things, animals, or places.

e. Report (Information Report) is a piece of text that presents information about a subject. The text usually contains facts about the subject, description, and information on its parts, behavior, and qualities. Its purpose is to classify, describe or to present information about a subject.

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[136] Raimes, A *Op.Cit.,*.p.3

[137] Cholipah., "An Analysis of Students Error in Writng Recount Text (A Case Study in Second Grade Students of SMP Timulia Jakarta Selatan)," *Research Paper. Jakarta: UIN Syarif Hidayatullah*, 2014.p.36

Although, most of the texts are learned by the twelfth grade students in SMAN 01 Penawartama, but it is impossible for to do research about all of the text, so the Explanation text was selected in the research.

D. The Concept of Explanation Text
1. Definition of Explanation text

Anderson and Anderson say that Explanation text is a piece of text which tells a story and in doing so entertains and informs the reader or listener.[138] From the definition above, it said that Explanation text is story tells us about something interesting that has purpose to amuse and to entertain for the readers or or viewers. We use Explanation when we tell a friend about something interesting that happen to us at work or at school and we tell someone a joke. Explanation provides human interest and entertainment, spark our curiosity, and draw us close to the storyteller. In addition, Explanations can create a sense of shared history. linking people together, and provide instruction in proper behavior or moral conduct. The purpose of Explanation text is to entertain the reader to express the feelings and relate at the experience to informs the readers and to persuade the reader. By displaying interesting conflicts in the middle of a Explanation text the readers will he entertained and will become recitals so that they will read the story to completion. This text is to entertain the readers and even sometimes the take makes the readers are experiencing themselves the action told in the story. So, the concluded of the Explanation text is the type of text in the form of imaginary stories, engineered real stories, or fairy tales Explanation text tells a storv that has a series of events connected chronologically. The purpose of Explanation texts is to entertain the reader.

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[138] M & Anderson K. Anderson, *Text Types in English 2* (South Yarra: MacMillan EducationAustralia PTY LTD, 2003).P.6

2. **The language feature of Explanation text**

According Pratyasto the significant lexico-grammatical features (language features) of Explanation:[139]

a. Using opening words that interesting the readers
b. Focus on specific and usually individual participant
c. Use storytelling convention especially on myth and fairy story. such as once upon a time
d. Use of past tense
e. Use of time words: after that, then, a few moments later
f. Action verb
g. Using present tense

3. **Generic structure of Explanation text**

Pratyasto adds the generic structure of explanation text include orientation, complication and resolution. [140]

a. General statement/Orientation: As the first stage, orientations which introduce the major characters, the topic of story and established setting - time and place that the story happens.
b. Explanation sequence: In this section the writer have to write several statements of reasoning explaining and elaborating the topic chosen by writer.
c. Concluding statement: In the last the writers have to puts all the information about the topic.

So, the thing that must be considered in writing Explanation texts is the generic structure because of the generic structure identify certain characters, places and times to make readers listeners understand the story easily, give adjectives from characters, provide information about what the character will do and conclusions from a story.

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[139] Putut Pratyasto, *Jenis Teks Bahasa Inggris* (PT. Pustaka Pitaloka, 2011).p.39

[140] Pratyasto, *Op.Cit.p.39*

4. **Type of Explanation text**

Explanation writings are divided into two type: Non-fiction is a kind of Explanation writing that tells the true story. It is often used to recount a person life story, important historical event, or new stories. This is really a combination of Explanation and informational writing. Fiction is a kind of Explanation that tells the untrue story. The story made up by the writer such as short story, comics, novels, etc. The main purpose of this fiction is to amuse, or sometimes to teach moral lessons.

An example of Explanation text
Aurora Borealis Phenomenon

Introduction/Orientation:

The Aurora Borealis, also known as the "Northern Lights," is one of the most striking natural phenomena in the northern night sky. This spectacular light has shed light on mysteries, myths and persisted for centuries. Let's explore how the Aurora Borealis phenomenon occurs and why it produces such a stunning visual display.

Cause and Effect Sequence:

Basically, Aurora Borealis is the result of interactions between particles containing the solar wind and the earth's atmosphere. The sun continuously releases these particles in the form of solar wind. When this solar wind reaches Earth, the Earth's magnetic field interacts with it, diverting most of the particles toward the north and south poles. When these particles are hit with molecules in the Earth's atmosphere, a chemical reaction occurs that produces light. More precisely, light is emitted when the electrons in these molecules gain energy from collisions with particles and then return to their original state. The color of the light emitted varies depending

on the type of molecules involved in the reaction, generally green, red, blue, and purple.

The only place where we can observe the Aurora Borealis clearly is in the area quite close to the northern polar circle. Here, the light of the Aurora Borealis forms a curtain or dancing pattern in the night sky. Although the Aurora Borealis tends to occur year-round, winter is becoming a more popular time to observe it, as the longer night sky gives viewers the opportunity to enjoy this stunning light spectacle. Apart from being a stunning natural phenomenon, the Aurora Borealis also inspires culture and mythology. Some indigenous cultures in the Arctic region have stories and legends about the Aurora Borealis as the result of encounters with otherworldly spirits or spiritual signs.

Concluding statement:

In conclusion, the Aurora Borealis is a stunning example of how our universe interacts and produces extraordinary beauty in the northern night sky. Through the interaction of particles falling from the sun into the earth's atmosphere, we can witness spectacular lights shining brightly in the night sky, reminding us of the wonder of the vast, limitless universe.

E. Theoretical Framework

In practicing writing, the students can express their thoughts, ideas, and feelings. They can write many English text types, including Explanation text. However, there are found many errors related to syntactical errors committed by the students. In this research uses the error analysis procedure proposed by Corder. It was chose the language corpus, identified the errors, classified the types of errors, described the errors, and evaluated the errors. After that, the types of errors will be identified using the surface category taxonomy proposed by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, the errors will be classified into omission, addition, mis-formation, and mis-ordering. In describing the errors also provided the

correct ones. then the students who committed more errors will be evaluated to get a deeper understanding. It was collecting the data from the 32 students' written Explanation texts written by the student's Twelfth grade of SMAN 01 Penawartama year 2023/2024.

For a clearer Explanation, it is explained in the following diagram.
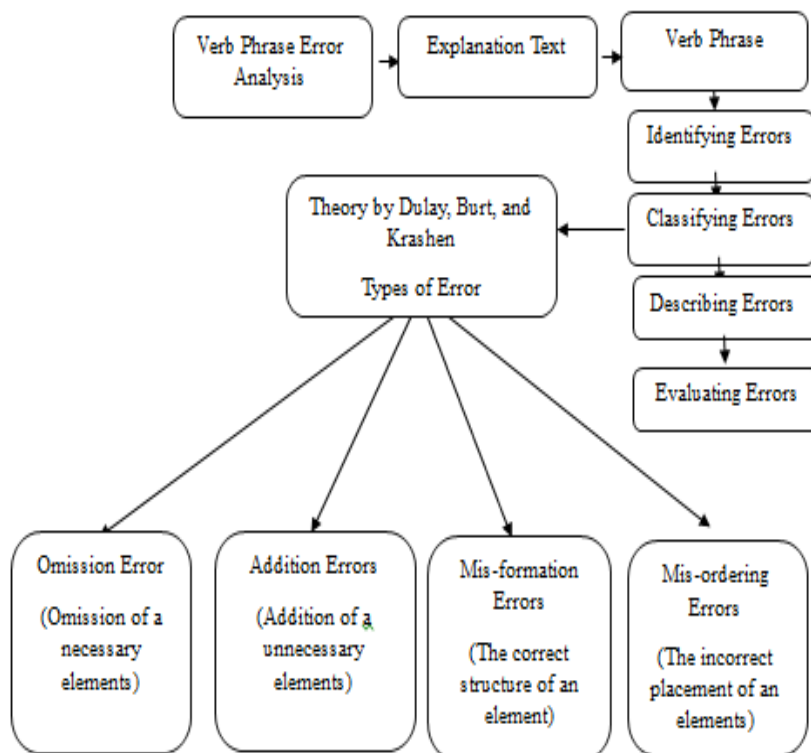
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