

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discusses the related literature dealing with the morphological errors. It covers morphology, morpheme, morphological process, errors, category of errors, and expository essay.

A. Morphology

Morphology is the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words.³ From this definition the researcher can conclude that morphology is related with word formation process or the grammar of words where the words can be constructed from the smallest part, which usually called as morpheme in well-formed.

1. Morphemes

The definition of morpheme is "a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical functions".⁴ Morphemes are the minimal meaningful units which may constitute words or parts of words.⁵ From these two statements, it can be described that morpheme is the smallest meaningful units in the structure of language. We can recognize that English word-forms such as *talks*, *talker*, *talked*, and *talking* must consist of one element *talk*, and a number of other elements such as *-s*, *-er*, *-ed*, *-ing*. All these elements are described as morphemes. The distribution of

³ Eugene A. Nida, *Morphology The Descriptive Analysis of Words (Second Edition)*, (Ann Arbor : The University of Michigan Press, 1949), 1.

⁴ George Yule, *The Study of Language (An introduction)*, (Cambridge University Press, 1985), 60.

⁵ Loc.cit.

morphemes differentiates many classes of morphemes and combinations of morphemes. They will be explained as follows:

a. Bound vs. Free Forms

Free morpheme is morphemes which can stand by themselves as single words, e.g. *open* and *tour*.⁶ As Benjamin F. Elson stated that morpheme which may occur alone are called free forms; morpheme which never occur alone are called bound form.⁷ Free morphemes fall into two categories, first, is a set of nouns, adjectives, and verbs. They are categorized as lexical morphemes. For example: *boy, handsome, walk etc.* The second category is called functional morpheme, such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles pronoun. For example: *but, of, by, in, the, a, etc.* The first category will be presented as follows.

Bound morpheme is morphemes which cannot normally stand alone, but typically attached to another form, e.g. *ist, ed, s,* etc are called bound morphemes. Bound morphemes also can be categorized into two types; derivational and inflectional morphemes. Some morpheme derives (create) new words by either changing the meaning (happy vs. unhappy, both adjectives) or the part of speech (syntactic category e.g. ripe an adjective, vs. ripen, a verb) or both. These are called *derivational morpheme*. Whether morpheme which serve a purely grammatical function, never creating different word, but only different form of the same word, are called *inflectional morpheme*.⁸ All bound morphemes have

⁶ George Yule, *The Study of Language (An introduction)*, (Cambridge University Press, 1985), 60.

⁷ Benjamin F. Elson, Velma B. Pickett, *Beginning Morphology and Syntax*, (Summer Institute of Linguistics, 1983), Inc, 7

⁸ A. Nida. Eugene, *Morphology The Descriptive Analysis of Words(Second Edition)*, (Ann Arbor : The University of Michigan Press, 1949), 119

different way in attaching to kinds of words. It all will be explained in morphological process.

b. Roots vs. Nonroots

Roots are nuclear part of words.⁹ It constitute the nuclei (or cores) of all words. There may be more than one root in a single word, e.g. *blackbird*, *catfish*, and *he-goat*, and some roots may have unique occurrences. For example, the unique element *cran-* in *cranberry* does not constitute the nucleus of any other words, but it occurs in the position occupied by roots, for example: *redberry*, *blueberry*, *blackberry*, and *strawberry*. All other distributional types of morphemes constitute nonroots.

It is not always easy to distinguish between roots and nonroots. This is because some roots become nonroots and vice versa. For example, the nonroots *-ism* in such words as *fatalism*, *pragmatism*, *fascism*, and *communism*, has become a full root, e.g. *I'm disgusted with all these*. We may say that *ism* fills the position of both a root and a nonroot. As a suffix it is a nonroot, and as a noun it is a root. Conversely, the root *like* became the bound form *-ly*. Historically, a form such *man-like* become *manly*, but a new formation *man-like* was reintroduced. There is no difficulty in this instance, because there is so little phonetic-semantic resemblance between *like* and *-ly*, and hence we consider them two morphemes. But in the words *disgraceful* and *bucketful* we recognize elements which have phonetic-semantic resemblance to the root *full*.

⁹ Loc.cit.

Criteria for determining roots include the following:

1. Positions of occurrence, e.g. in Eskimo, Quechua, Turkish.
2. Occurrence with certain prosodic features. Roots frequently have different prosodic characteristics of stress or tone from those of other morphemes.
3. Occurrence with different bounding junctures, e.g. *full* and the suffix *-full* in *disgraceful*.
4. Statistical frequency. There are many more roots than bound forms, i.e. by morphological listing, not necessarily by occurrence in context.
5. Parallelism of structure. Having determined the structure of most morphological constructions, the same patterns may be employed to establish the roots and nonroots where there may be some doubt.

c. Roots vs. Stems

All bound roots are stems, but not all stems (they are all bound) are roots. Roots are single morpheme.¹⁰ However, the central part of a word does not always consist of a single morpheme. For example, the English word *bookcase* consists of two root morphemes, *book* and *case*. A stem is composed of the nucleus, consisting of one or more roots, or nucleus plus any other nonroot morphemes, except the last "structurally added" morpheme that results in a word. The form *man-* in *manly* is at the same time a root and a stem. The form *breakwater* is the stem of *breakwaters*, but it is not a single root. There are two root morphemes, *break* and *water*. The stem /əbil-/ in *ability* is a bound alternant of a root morpheme /eybəl – əbil-/. A form such as *men's* may never constitute a stem since

¹⁰ Op. cit, 8

the genitive morpheme *-s* always closes any morphological construction in English.

d. Nuclei vs. Nonnuclei

The nucleus of a morphological construction consists of a root or a combination of roots including possible nonroots attributive to respective roots. The nonnucleus is made up of nonroots. In the construction *boyishness* the element *boy* is the nucleus and *-ishness* constitute the nonnucleus. In *breakwaters* the nucleus *breakwater* consists of two roots.

e. Nuclear vs. Peripheral Structure

A nuclear structure consists of or contains the nucleus, or constitutes the head of a subordinate endocentric construction. A peripheral morpheme usually consists of a nonroot and is always "outside" of the nuclear constituent. In the word *formal* the nuclear element is *form-* and the peripheral element *-al*. In the word *formalize* the nuclear structure is *formal-* and the peripheral element is *-ize*. Similarly in *formalizer* the nuclear constituent is *formalize-* and the peripheral element is *-er*. "Nuclear" and "Peripheral" are simply names for the immediate constituents.

The Greek word /hipopotamus/ (cited above, under D) has a structure which may be symbolized as $(N+P) = (N+P) = N + P$ in which N stands for nuclear and P for peripheral elements. In the first two instance of N the nuclear element is also both a nucleus and a root, but that is not pertinent to the problem here.

f. Morphemes of the same order vs. Morphemes of different orders.

In the structure of words we find morphemes which belong to the same order to different orders. For example, the subject pronouns *ni-* 'I' *wu-* 'you', *a-* 'he', *tu-* 'we', *mu-* 'you', and *wa-* 'they' all belong to the same order class. They are in contrast with the tense morphemes which all belong to the same order, but *ni-* 'I' and *na* 'present tense' belong to different orders. Similarly, the subject pronoun *wu-* 'you' is a different order from the object pronoun *ku-* 'you'.

g. Mutually Exclusive Morphemes

Morphemes of the same order are always mutually exclusive. Morphemes of different orders may also be mutually exclusive. That is to say if *na-*, the prefixes of the iterative mode, occurs in the word.

h. Mutually Obligatory Morphemes

If the occurrence of one morpheme requires the occurrence of another, then the two morphemes are mutually obligatory. If forms are mutually obligatory in all situations, then they constitute a single discontinuous morpheme, but some forms may be mutually obligatory in some constructions and not in others.

i. Obligatory vs. Nonobligatory Morphemes

Certain morphemes may be obligatory to a structural class and other not. For example, in the finite verb forms of Bantu there are usually only two obligatory affixal morphemic classes, namely, the subject indicator and the suffixal modal indicator. In Kekchi a finite verb must consist of a verb stem and a subject, though in the third person singular the subject may be indicated by a zero morpheme. All the other order classes are optional.

j. Closing vs. Nonclosing Morphemes

Certain morphemes "close" the construction to further formation. For example, in English the use of genitive suffix closes the noun to further suffixation. No suffix may follow the genitive. In Greek the addition of /-o/ to the root /hipp-/ 'horse' does not prevent further derivation, e.g. /hippotɛ.s/ 'horseman' and /hippodromos/ 'reecourse', but the addition of a declensional ending such as the nominative singular /-s/ closes the word to any further derivation. The morphemes /-o/ is a nonclosing morpheme, and /-s/ is a closing morpheme.

There are two distinct degrees of closure in some language. For example, a morpheme such as *-ize* in *formalize* and *legalize* does not close the form to further word formation, e.g. *formalizer* and *legalization*. But the addition of the plural *-s* closes any form further derivation by such suffixes as *-ment*, *-ity*, *-ence*, *-ion*, *-ian*, *-ize*, *-er*. A genitive suffix does the same thing. The break in structure in English coincides with the division between inflectional and derivational formations.

2. Morphological Process

Eugene A. Nida stated that all languages so far as is known construct word. Various language employ different methods, but these are distinctly limited number of basic processes, when one has completed the study of these processes, one has analyzes all the possible ways in which any language in the world may form words. There are some other ways to form new words, which do not put

morphemes together in the familiar way. The parts which are put together are sometimes parts of morphemes or are not morphemes at all.

They are:

1. Affixation

Affixation is the process of attaching bound morpheme to free morpheme. They change the meaning or the grammatical function of the word. The kinds of affixes are prefix, suffix, and infix.¹¹ The set of affixes which fall into the bound category can also be divided into two types.¹²

a. Derivation

Derivational morphemes are used to make new words in the language and are often used to make words of a different grammatical category from the stem. Thus, the addition of the derivational morpheme *-ness* changes the adjective *good* to the noun *goodness*. A list of derivational morphemes will include suffixes such as the *-ish* in *foolish*, the *-ly* in *badly* and the *-ment* in *payment*. It will also include prefixes such as *re-*, *pre-*, *ex-*, *dis-*, *co-*, *un-* and many more.

b. Inflection

Inflectional Morpheme are not to produce new words in the English language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word. Inflectional morphemes are used to show if a word is plural or singular, if it is past tense or not, and if it is a comparative or possessive form. Example of inflexional morphemes at work can be seen in the use of *-ed* to make jump into the past tense

¹¹ P.H. Matthews. *Morphology (An Introduction to The Theory of Word-Structure)*, (Cambridge University Press, 1946), 124.

¹² George Yule, *The Study of Language*, (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1985), 61

form jumped, and the use of -s to make the word boy into the plural boys¹³. Others examples are the -ing, -s, -er, -est and -'s inflections in the phrases Myrna is singing, she sings, she is smaller, the smallest and Myrna's horse. Note that, in English, all inflectional morphemes are suffixes.

2. Compounding

A compound is a word formed by the combination of two independent words.¹⁴ Compounding is the word formation process in which two or more word combine into a single new word, for example: *notebook*, *bathroom*, *wallpaper*, *bookcase*, etc.

3. Blending

Blending is process of creating a new word by combining the parts of two different words, usually the beginning of one word and the end of another. Some other commonly used examples of blending are *brunch* (breakfast/lunch), *motel* (motor/hotel), and *telecast* (television/broadcast).

4. Acronym

Acronym is some new words which are formed from the initial-letters of a set of words. These acronyms often consist of capital letters, as in NATO or UNESCO, but can lose their capitals to become everyday terms such as *laser* (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation), *radar* (radio detecting and ranging).

¹³ Jos Daniel Parera, *Morphology*, (Jakarta: Gramedia Pustaka Utama, 1990), 23

¹⁴ P.H. Matthews. *Morphology (An Introduction to The Theory of Word-Structure)*, (Cambridge University Press, 1946), 129

5. Borrowing

Borrowing is the taking over of words from other language. A special type of borrowing is described as loan-translation. In this process, there is a direct translation of the element of a word into the borrowing language.

6. Coinage

Coinage is the invention of totally new terms. For example some words like *aspirin* and *nylon*, originally invented trade names. Familiar recent examples are *Kleenex* and *Xerox*, which also begins as invented trade names, and which have quickly become everyday word in the language.

7. Back formation

A very specialized type of reduction process is known as backformation. Typically, a word one type (usually noun) is reduced to form another word of a different type (usually verb). Other examples of words created by this process are: *edit* (editor), *donate* (donation), *opt* (option).

8. Conversion

Conversion is a change in the function of word. For example: when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without a reduction). This process is particularly productive in modern English, with new uses occurring frequently. The conversion can involve verbs becoming nouns, with *guess*, *must* and *spay* as the sources of a *guess*, a *must*, and a *spay*. Or adjectives, such as *dirty*, *empty*, *crazy* and *nasty*, can become the verbs to *dirty*, to *empty*, *crazy*, and *nasty*, can become the verbs to *dirty*, to *empty*, etc. other form, such as *up* and *down*, can also become verbs, as in *they up the prices or we down a few beers*.

9. Clipping

Clipping is a process of creating new words by shortening parts of a longer word. For example: *prof* (professor), *flu* (influenza), *fan* (fanatic), etc.

10. Suppletion

Suppletion is the occurrence of a completely different stem form. Besides adding an affix to a morpheme (affixation) or copying all or part of the morpheme (reduplication) to make morphological distinction, it is also possible to make morpheme internal modifications or suppletion. For example, the form *go* becomes *went*, *is* and *are* become *was* and *were*.¹⁵

11. Ablaut

Ablaut is a systematic variation of vowels in the same root or affix or in related roots or affixes especially in the Indo-European languages that is usually paralleled by differences in use or meaning (as in *sing*, *sang*, *sung*, *song*)

12. Multiple processes

Multiple processes is a process of more than one process in the creation of a particular word. For example, the term *deli* seems to have become a common American English expression via a process of first 'borrowing' *delicatessen* (from German) and then 'clipping' that borrowed form¹⁶.

B. Error

Errors are defined as any deviation from a selected norm of language performance, no matter what the characteristic or causes of the deviation might

¹⁵ Op. Cit, 21

¹⁶ Op. Cit, 56

be. They are those parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance.¹⁷ H. Douglas Brown stated an error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, referring the inter language competence of the learner.¹⁸ According to Corder, errors are breach of the code, meaning that they are against the grammatical rules of the language, which result in acceptable utterances. They are not physical failures but the sign of imperfect knowledge of the code. Errors are systematic and provide the researcher insight into the learner process.

C. Categories of Errors

Actually, it is hard to classify errors precisely. There has been no error categorization which is simple and agreed upon by all analysts. Every analyst seems to have his or her own approach. This may make researchers have different finding for the same data with respect to the ways in categorizing errors. To counter those obstacles in categorizing and classifying errors, this present study limits itself to the descriptive aspect of error taxonomies based on assumption proposed by Dulay et. al. they stated that the accurate description of error is separate activity from the task of inferring the sources of those errors.¹⁹

Dulay et. al. stated that the most useful and commonly used bases for the descriptive classification of errors are: 1) linguistic category taxonomy; 2) surface strategy taxonomy; 3) comparative analysis; 4) communicative effect.

¹⁷ Heidi Dulay, et al, *Language Two* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001), 138-139

¹⁸ H. Douglas Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (USA: Prentice Hall Regents, 1987), 170..

¹⁹ Op. Cit, 145

Here the researcher uses Dulay surface strategy taxonomy, because this research wants to describe the error on morphological only. Furthermore, the object of this research is not in communication but in the form of writing.

Thus the researcher uses Surface Strategy Taxonomy. This category highlights the way surface structures are altered. Analyzing errors from this taxonomy hold much promise for researchers for as it is concerned with identifying cognitive processes that underlie the learners' reconstruction of the new language. This also gives us consideration that students' errors are not the result of the laziness or sloppy thinking but are based on some logics, as the result of the learners' use of interim principles to produce a new language.²⁰

The types of errors which belong to surface strategy taxonomy are: 1) omission; 2) addition; 3) miss formation, and 4) miss ordering.²¹

1. Omission

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance. Generally, there are two mind kinds of omission: omission of content morphemes, and omission of grammatical morphemes.

a. Omission of Content Morphemes

This type of omission is related to the major constituent of a sentence as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. For example: She ... him nothing. In this sentence, the users omit a needed verb and the third singular marker -s. It should be "she gives him nothing".

²⁰ Op. Cit, 150

²¹ Op. Cit, 154

b. Omission of Grammatical Morphemes

This type of omission does not carry the burden meaning. In other words, it plays a minor role in conveying the meaning of sentence. It includes noun and verb inflections (e.g. the -s in birds, the -s in mother's, the -ed in looked, the -ing in laughing, etc); preposition (in, on, at, under, etc); conjunction (and, or, but, because, if, although, etc); verb auxiliary (is, will, can, etc); and article (a/an, the) for example: Marry is beautiful girl. In this sentence, indefinite article before a singular countable noun is omitted. It should be "Marry is a beautiful girl".

2. Addition

Addition errors are the opposite of omissions. They are characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. There are types of addition errors have been observed.

a. Double Markings

Table 2.1

Table of the example of Double Marking Errors

Semantic Feature	Error	Example of Error
<i>Past Tense</i>	Past tense is marked in the auxiliary and verb	She <i>didn't went/ goed</i>
<i>Present Tense</i>	Present tense is marked in the auxiliary and verb	He <i>doesn't eats</i>
<i>Negation</i>	Negation is marked in the auxiliary and the quantifier. Negation is marked in the auxiliary and the adverb	She <i>didn't</i> give him none. He <i>don't</i> go no wings. They <i>don't</i> hardly eat
<i>Equation Predicate</i>	Equation is marked in two copula position	<i>Is this is</i> a cow?
<i>Object</i>	The object is both topicalized and expressed in the object pronoun	That's <i>the man</i> who I saw him
<i>Past tense</i>	The auxiliary is produced twice	Why <i>didn't</i> mommy

	<i>don't make dinner?</i>
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b. Regularization

Regularization is the type of addition error in which a marker that is typically added to a linguistic item is erroneously added exceptional items of the given class that don't take a marker.

Example: *He **cutted** the grass yesterday.* (incorrect)
 *He **cut** the grass yesterday.* (correct)

c. Simple Addition

Simple addition is the type of addition error in which the use of an item that should not appear in a well-formed utterances.

Table 2.2

Table of the example of Simple Addition Errors

Linguistic item added	Example
3rd person singular -s	The fishes <i>doesn't</i> live in the water
Past tense (irregular)	The train is gone <i>broke</i> it
Article	<i>a</i> this
Preposition	<i>In</i> over here

3. Misformation

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure. There are three types of misformations:

a. Regularization Errors

It is that falls under the misformation category are those in which a regular marker is used in place of an irregular one. Take for example:

*He goes to Jakarta by **his self**.* (incorrect)
*He goes to Jakarta by **himself**.* (correct)

b. Archi-form

The selection of one member of forms to represent others in the class is a common characteristic of all stages of second language acquisition. Take for example: Demonstrative adjective *this, that, these and those* to do the work for several of them:

that dogs. (incorrect)

that dog. (correct)

For this learner, *that* is archi-demonstrative representing the entire of demonstrative adjective.

c. Alternative forms

Alternative forms is alternating of various members of a class with each other in using of archi-forms

Example:

She written a letter last night. (incorrect)

She wrote a letter last night. (correct)

4. Misordering

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

Example:

Why Daddy is doing? (incorrect)

Why is Daddy doing? (correct)

D. Expository Essay.

Exposition is to argue for a particular point of view. The expository essay is a genre of essay that requires the student to investigate an idea, evaluate evidence, expound on the idea, and set forth an argument concerning that idea in a clear and concise manner. This can be accomplished through comparison and contrast, definition, example, the analysis of cause and effect, etc.²². From this statement can be concluded that expository essays are simply essays that explain something with facts, as opposed to opinion. Sometimes expositions begin with a background stage which provides any information the reader needs in order to follow the arguments.²³. Exposition has the following three stages:²⁴

- A thesis which introduces the issue and the writer's point of view.
- A series of arguments which support the thesis
- A restatement of the thesis which is stronger and more direct statement of the thesis introduced in the first stage.

E. Review of the Previous Study

In conducting the research, the researcher also pays attention to a considerable previous study. The researcher gets an inspiration of this study from a thesis entitled Grammatical Errors in The English Translation in Setiawan G.

²² <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/685/02/> downloaded in May 18, 2013

²³ Susan Feez et.al, *Writing skills*.(Australia : Phoenix education PTY LTD, 1998),138

²⁴ Mark Anderson et.al, *Text Types in English*.(Australia: Macmillan education Australia PTY LTD, 1998),22

Sasongko's Bilingual Kids Books of Seri Organ Tubuh Conversation written by Endah Kurnia, a student of STAIN Kediri also has become an inspiration for the researcher to start the study. The second previous study is also conducted by Ririn Kusumawati, a student of English Letters and Language Department Faculty of Humanities and Culture Maulana Malik Ibrahim State Islamic University of Malang entitled Morphological Error Found in the English Essays of the Fifth Semester Students of English Letters and Language Department of UIN Malang in 2008. Both of them also took the theory of Heidi Dulay in finding and identifying the errors in the application of the English grammar made by the students. And also the following previous study is conducted by Anita Yuli Rahmawati, a student of STAIN Kediri with a thesis entitled The Correlation between Morphological Knowledge and Vocabulary Mastery of English Department Students of STAIN Kediri gives the researcher inspiration what must be written about the material of morphology in chapter II.