# CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

II.1 The Definition of Error

Learners sometimes make errors when they speak their mother tongue. It can be seen from their slips of the tongue, lose track of a complex structure as we utter it, begin utterance and abandon it, and so on. In addition, errors are also the flawed side of learner writing. It means that errors can be found either on spoken or written language. According to Littlewood (1984: 22), Errors are signs of learning failure and, as such, not to be willingly tolerated. This means that learners' errors need not be seen as signs of failure. On the contrary, they are the clearest evidence for the learner's developing systems. Furthermore, in second language learning process, Corder (1981: 138) states that, the learner's errors indicate both the state of the learner's knowledge, and the ways in which a second language is learned. Related to the previous definition, Corder in Richard's *The Context of Language Teaching* (1985: 63) states that, "A learner's errors, then, provide evidence of the system of the language that he is using (i.e. has learned) at a particular point in the course."

Ellis (1997: 17) makes a distinction between error and mistake. Errors reflect gaps in a learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance; they occur because, in a particular instance; the learner is unable to perform what her or she knows. In addition to the previous difference between error and mistake;
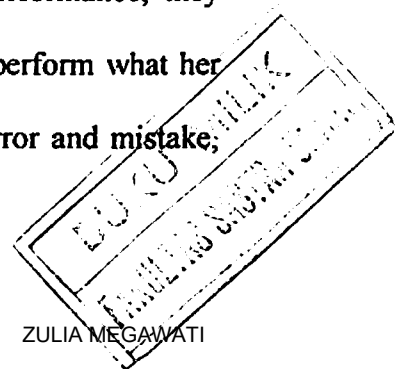
according to Corder (1981: 139) states that, "Errors of performance as mistakes, reserving the term error to refer to the systematic deviations due to the learner's still developing knowledge of the second language rule system." However, the problem of determining what a learner's error is one of some difficulties and involves analysis.

In addition, Brown (1994: 165) says that in order to analyze learners' errors in a proper perspective, it is crucial to make a distinction between mistakes and errors, which are technically two different phenomena. A mistake refers to performance error that is either a random guess or a slip, in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. Such mistakes are easy to be recognized and corrected by native speakers since they are not the result of a deficiency in competence but the result of some sorts of breakdown or imperfection in the process of producing speech. Further, Brown (1994: 165) explains that an error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of native speaker, reflecting the competence of the learner.

II.2 Error Analysis' Theory

The study of error is a part of investigation of the process of language learning. The result of the analysis of the learners' errors provides clear picture of language acquisition as learners' knowledge, and of the ways in which a foreign language is learnt. It may be true as Corder states that the learners' errors provide the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language (cited in

Richards, 1985: 67). Furthermore, Hendrickson (1979: 6) says that the researchers hold that producing errors is a natural and necessary phenomenon in language learning. The learners' errors can be analyzed to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of study of learners' errors, called error analysis (Brown, 1994: 166). Corder defines that error analysis as a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make (1981: 138). In addition, the error analysis technique describes an alternative approach to evaluate students' spontaneous speech and writing errors in a foreign language (Hendrickson, 1979: 58).

II.3 Procedures of Error Analysis

One of the common difficulties in understanding the linguistic system of both first and second language learners is the fact that the systems cannot be directly observed. The linguistics systems must be inferred by means of analyzing the errors. In analyzing the errors, we must have procedures to make the process of error analysis run smoothly.

Corder (cited in Richard, 1974: 166) identified a procedure for error analysis which includes three stages: recognition, description, and explanation. These are logically dependent each other.

a. Recognition of error

Recognition of error is crucially dependent upon correct interpretation of the learner's intention. This statement means that a well-formed and apparently appropriate utterance might have been misinterpreted. In other

words, an apparently well-formed utterances may nevertheless be erroneous. Implicitly, all the learner's utterances either well-formed must be presumed erroneous until they are found what their surface structure could mean in the target language.

b. The description of error

The description of error is essentially comparative process, comparison of the original erroneous utterance and the reconstructed utterance. Consequently, only the description which shows the respects in which the realization rules of the target language differ from those of the learner's dialect is of value. It is obvious that we cannot do this step unless we have adequate data.

c. Explanation (the object of error analysis)

It is statement of the way in which a learner has deviated from the realization rules of the target language. Corder states that the explanation of error is concerned with accounting for the cause of errors.

Ellis (1997: 15) designs three procedures to analyze the second language learners' error that is, the identification, the description, and the explanation of the errors.

a. Identifying errors

It can be done by comparing the sentences the learners make with the correct sentences in the target language. For example, a learner makes sentence: *Janet go to school everyday.* It is obvious that the sentence is

incorrect because it should be *Janet goes to school everyday.* This kind of error happens due to disagreement of the subject and verb.

b. Describing errors

This step is meant to put the errors found into a classification or type. There two ways that can be done to describe the learners' errors. First, the errors can be put into grammatical categories. The second way of describing the errors is by identifying general ways in which the learners' errors differ from the reconstructed target language sentences.

c. Explaining errors

This last step is meant to explain why the errors occur. There are three ways in explaining the learners' errors in terms of grammatical analysis. First, is stating the grammatical rule that has been violated. Second, is stating the correct form to show contrast with inappropriate form. Third, is giving examples that show the rule in action.

Corder's and Ellis' procedures of error analysis explained more about the cause of the learners' errors appearing in the language studied. It can be seen in the third stage of Corder's and Ellis' error analysis procedures. In conducting the research, the writer focused on descriptive error classification without reference to its underlying cause or source. Therefore, the writer used Brown's theory to analyze the students' written work. There is a descriptive error classification in Brown's theory.

According to Brown (1994: 167) there are two steps of analyzing learners' errors, namely, the identification and description of errors.

a. Identifying Errors

Identification of errors is recognizing the learners' errors by finding out the learners' erroneous utterances in a second language.

b. Describing Errors

Description of errors is a process of comparing the reconstructed sentences with the original ones that the learners have made, and then describing the differences among them. Those errors are described as errors of omission, addition, substitution, and misordering.

1) Omission

This type of omission is indicated by the absence of an item that must appear in well formed sentence. Omission in morphology can be indicated by omitting inflectional morphemes in the sentences.

e.g. She *go* to school every day

There is an omission of agreement morpheme. The verb, *go* should be added by suffix –es to indicate third-person singular present verb form.

2) Addition

Addition errors are characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed sentence.

e.g. - The *books* is here

There is overuse in forming plural. It is indicated by the presence of suffix –s in the noun, *book*.

3) Substitution

This error can be committed in pronunciation, morphology, syntax, and vocabulary due to the selection of the wrong phoneme, morpheme, structure or vocabulary item. In morphology, this error can be committed as a result of the substitution of wrong morpheme.

e.g. My friend is *oldest* than me

There is overuse in forming comparative. It is indicated by the substitution of suffix –est in the adjective, *old*. The learner use superlative morpheme instead of comparative morpheme.

4) Misordering

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of morphemes.

e.g. He is get *upping_*now

The inflectional morpheme is not supposed to attach the particle of the two-word verb get up. The suffix –ing should be attached the verb, *get*.

II.4 The Definition of Morpheme

Morphology is defined as the study of the internal structure of words, and of the rules by which words are formed" (Fromkin,1983: 113). In addition to the previous definition, Yule in *The Study of Language* (1985: 60) states that "Morphology is the study of investigating forms in language." The investigation of this study analyzes the basic element which is used in a language that is technically known as morphemes.

A morpheme is a unit in language that carries meaning (Nasr, 1980: 53). In addition to the previous definition, Katamba (1993: 24) states that "The morpheme is the smallest difference in the shape of a word that correlates with the smallest difference in word or sentence meaning or in grammatical structure." Katamba (1993; 20) also points out that a morpheme is a short segment of language that meets three criteria, those are:

1) It is a word or a part of a word that has meaning.

   For example, the word, cats is composed of two units: cat + s. The first unit refers to the cat; the second unit refers to the number of animals (more than one). Thus, we also see that suffix -s is a part of a word that has meaning.

2) It cannot be divided without violation of meaning.

   For example, the word cat in itself cannot be broken down further because the meaning of cat is not made up of c or /k/ + at. Besides, suffix -s that includes a part of word cannot also be divided into smaller meaningful units.

3) It recurs with a relatively stable meaning in words like books, cats, windows, etc. Therefore, it is that suffix -s is considered as a morpheme.

II.4.1 The Types of Morphemes

Nasr (1980: 53) divides a morpheme into two big parts, namely, the first is an independent morpheme or a free morpheme. The second is dependent morpheme or a bound morpheme.

- Independent morpheme or a free morpheme

Independent morpheme or a free morpheme is morpheme that can stand by itself, it does not need other morpheme to get its meaning thus giving them free status. Words such as *kind, boy, desk,* and *run* are all examples of free morphemes.

- Dependent morpheme or a bound morpheme

Dependent morpheme or bound morpheme is morpheme that cannot stand by itself, it must be attached to another morpheme (independent or free morpheme) in order to be used. Bound morphemes tend to be affixes (e.g. prefixes and suffixes), attaching to the beginnings and ends of words. According to Yule (1985; 61), Bound morphemes that are prefixes or suffixes can be further divided into:

1. Derivational morphemes

    These 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, the words to which the suffixes and infixes are attached (Yule, 1985: 61). The examples are as follow:

✓ The noun category becomes adjective category

boy + -ish → boyish

The word, *boy* is noun. The suffix –ish is derivational morpheme. However, the word, *boy* will become adjective category because that word is added by suffix –ish.

health + -ful → healthful

The word, *health* is noun. The suffix –ful is derivational morpheme. However, the word, *health* will become adjective category because that word is added by suffix –ful.

✓ The verb category becomes noun category

free + -dom → freedom

The word, *free* is verb. The suffix –dom is derivational morpheme. However, the word, *free* will change to noun category because that word is added by suffix –dom.

sing + -er → singer

The word, *sing* is verb. The suffix –er is derivational morpheme. However, the word, *sing* will change to noun category because that word is added by suffix –er.

✓ The noun category becomes verb category

brand + -ish → brandish

The word, *brand* is noun. The suffix –ish is derivational morpheme. However, the word, *brand* will change to verb category because that word is added by suffix –ish.

moral + -ize → moralize

The word, *moral* is noun. The suffix –ize is derivational morpheme. However, the word, *moral* will change to verb category because that word is added by suffix –ize.

✓ The adjective category becomes adverb category

slow + -ly → slowly

The word, *slow* is adjective. The suffix –ly is derivational morpheme. However, the word, *slow* will change to adverb category because that word is added by suffix –ly.

quiet + -ly → quietly

The word, *quiet* is adjective. The suffix –ly is derivational morpheme. However, the word, *quiet* will change to adverb category because that word is added by suffix –ly.

2. Inflectional morphemes

These morphemes are not used to produce new words in the English language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of words (Yule, 1985: 61). These morphemes never change the syntactic category of the words or morphemes to which they are attached. Besides, they are always attached to complete words. This kind of morphemes are for the most part purely grammatical

markers, representing such concept as tense, number, gender, case, and so forth. In addition to the previous explanation, Yule in *The Study of Language* (1985: 62) notes that, in English, all inflectional morphemes are suffixes. Furthermore, Katamba (1993: 51) also points out that the inflectional morphemes differ from the derivational morphemes in the following ways, to which there are few exceptions:

- ❖ Inflectional morphemes do not change the meaning of the base to which they are attached.

  For examples:

  book, books

  Both words, *book* and *books* belong to noun category and still have same meaning.

  sleep, sleeps

  Both words, *sleep, sleeps* belong to verb category and still have same meaning.

- ❖ Inflectional morphemes do not alter the word-class of the base to which it is attached.

  For examples:

  book, books

  Both nouns, *book, books* refer to the same kind of entity. The suffix –s carries information about the number of those entities.

❖ Most of inflectional morphemes are suffixes. English has no inflectional prefixes.

II.4.2 Inflectional Morphemes

Katamba, et al (1996: 160) schematized the inflectional morphemes as follows. In addition, it is supported with the rules for spelling according to Thomson in A Practical English Grammar (1999: 25).

II.4.2.1. Plural Morpheme

Plural morpheme is used to indicate plurality in nouns. The plural morpheme has meaning more than one that applies to nouns. For example:

Form		Stem	Plural Form
Inflectional morpheme	:		stem + plural morpheme
Models	:	woman	women
		doctor	doctors

The plural form of noun, *doctor* is *doctors*. The noun, *doctor* is added by suffix –s to indicate plurality. However, the plural form of noun, *woman* is *women*. That noun does not require the suffix –s or –es because the noun, *woman* has irregular plural form.

The characteristics for number in the noun can be known as follows:

● A noun is singular if it can take one of these substitutes: *he/him, she/her, it, this, or that.* It is plural if it can take as a substitute *they/ them, these, or those.* For examples:

The beach was covered with *white sand.* (= it)

The word, *white sand* can be substituted by pronoun it. It means that that word is singular.

Where did you hang *my trousers*? (= them)

The word, *my trousers* is plural because that word can be substituted by pronoun them.

- The number of a noun may be signaled by a modifier like *several, many, this, that, these, those, fifteen,* or by a pronoun reference like *his, he, its, their.*

For examples:

We saw *many fishes* swimming under the bridge.

The number of the word, *fish* is more than one. It is indicated by the modifier many.

They buy *several books* in that shop.

The number of the word, *book* is more than one. It is indicated by the modifier several.

The rules for spelling to form plural nouns are:

- Plural noun is usually added by suffix –s to the singular noun

  e.g. house (singular)   → houses   (plural form)

  (one house)   (more than one house)

  dog   (singular)   → dogs (plural form)

  (one dog)   (more than one dog)

- Nouns ending in a consonant + o take suffix -es or -s

  e.g. potato (singular) → potatoes (plural form)

    (one potato)   (more than one potato)

    zoo (singular)   → zoos (plural form)

    (one zoo)   (more than zoo)

- Nouns ending in z, s, ch, sh, or x   are added by suffix -es

  e.g. class (singular)   → classes (plural form)

    (one class)   (more than one class)

    watch (singular) → watches (plural form)

    (one watch)   (more than one watch)

- Nouns ending in a consonant + y , change the y into i

  and add suffix -es

  e.g. library (singular) → libraries (plural form)

    (one library)   (more than one library)

  Nouns ending in y following a vowel are added by suffix –s

  e.g. boy (singular)   → boys (plural form)

    (one boy)   (more than one boy)

    donkey (singular) → donkeys (plural form)

    (one donkey)   (more than one donkey)

- Nouns endings in –fe or –f, change the ending to –ves

  e.g. knife (singular)   → knives (plural form)

    (one knife)   (more than one knife)

shelf (singular) → shelves (plural form)

(one shelf)   (more than one shelf)

Nouns scarf and wharf take either suffix -s or ves in the plural

e.g. scarfs or scarves (the plural form can be scarfs or scarves)

wharfs or wharves (the plural form can be wharf or wharves)

Other words ending in f or fe are added by suffix –s in the ordinary way

e.g. cliff (singular)   → cliffs (plural form)

(one cliff)   (more than one cliff)

handkerchief (singular) → handkerchiefs (plural form)

(one handkerchief)   (more than one handkerchief)

- A few nouns form their plural by a vowel change

e.g. foot (singular)   → feet (plural form)

(one foot)   (more than one foot)

goose (singular) → geese (plural form)

(one goose)   (more than one goose)

man (singular)   → men (plural form)

(one man)   (more than one man)

The plural form of child and ox are children and oxen.

- Zero or no change in the plural form as in

e.g. sheep (singular) → sheep (plural form)

(one sheep)   (more than one sheep)

deer (singular)   → deer (plural form)

(one deer)   (more than one deer)

- Some nouns that English has borrowed from other languages have foreign plural as in

  e.g. cactus (singular)   → cacti (plural form)

  (one cactus)   (more than one cactus)

  bacterium (singular) → bacteria (plural form)

  (one bacterium)   (more than one   bacterium)

II.4.2.2 Past-tense Morpheme

Past-tense morpheme is used to indicate the past verb. The morpheme has meaning past that applies to verbs. For example:

Form	Stem	Past Verb Form
Inflectional Morpheme :		stem + past-tense morpheme
Models :	run	ran
	study	studied

The past form of verb, *study* is *studied*. The verb is added by suffix –ed to indicate past verb. However, the past form of verb, *run* is *ran*. That verb does not require the suffix –s or –es because the verb, *run* has irregular past verb form.

The past tense takes on numerous forms, irregular forms, kept, led, began, ran, rode, built, etc, and regular forms. Most regular verbs are spelled with –ed for past tense. Some regular verbs, however, have special rules for spelling to form past verbs:

- When the last letter of the verb is silent e, the e is dropped before adding suffix –ed.

e.g. complete (infinitive) → completed (past verb form)

create (infinitive) → created (past verb form)

When the last two letters are ee, the last e is dropped before adding suffix –ed.

e.g. agree (infinitive) → agreed (past verb form)

- When the last letter of the verb in two consonants, just add suffix –ed

e.g. help (infinitive) → helped (past verb form)

learn (infinitive) → learned (past verb form)

- When the verbs ends in two vowels + a consonant, just add suffix –ed

e.g. rain (infinitive) → rained (past verb form)

heat (infinitive) → heated (past verb form)

- When the last syllable is accented and ends in one vowel + one consonant is divided:

✓ If the verb has one-syllable and ends in one vowel, double the consonant to make past verb form

e.g. stop (infinitive) → stopped (past verb form)

plan (infinitive) → planned (past verb form)

Do not double w or x to make past verb form:

snow (infinitive) → snowed (past verb form)

fix (infinitive) → fixed (past verb form)

✓ The verbs has two- syllable verbs:

o If the first syllable of a two-syllable verb is stressed, do not double the consonant

e.g. visit (infinitive) → visited (past verb form)

offer (infinitive) → offered (past verb form)

o If the second syllable of a two-syllable verb is stressed, double the consonant

e.g. prefer (infinitive) → preferred (past verb form)

admit (infinitive) → admitted (past verb form)

- For the verbs that end in y:

✓ If the verb ends in a vowel + -y, keep the –y. Do not change it to –i

e.g. play (infinitive)   → played (past verb form)

enjoy (infinitive) → enjoyed (past verb form)

✓ If the verb ends in a consonant + -y, change the –y to –i to make past verb form

e.g. worry (infinitive) → worried (past verb form)

study (infinitive) → studied (past verb form)

- When the verb ends –ie, just add suffix –d

e.g. die (infinitive) → died (past verb form)

tie (infinitive) → tied (past verb form)

- Regular verbs spelled with a final c add k before suffix –ed.

e.g. panic(infinitive) → panicked (past verb form)

picnic (infinitive) → picnicked (past verb form)

II.4.2.3 Agreement Morpheme

Agreement morpheme is used to indicate the third-person singular, present verb. The morpheme has meaning third person singular that applies to verbs. For example:

Form	Stem	Third-Person Singular Present Verb Form
Inflectional morpheme :		stem + agreement morpheme
Models :	run	runs
	cut	cuts

The third-person singular present form of verbs, *run* and *cut* are *runs* and *cuts*. Those two verbs are added by suffix –s to indicate the third person singular, present tense of verb.

The third-person singular present is the form used with singular nouns, with *he, she, it,* and words for which these pronouns will substitute, and with word groups, *somebody*.

Examples: *He* cuts his class every Wednesday.

Somebody gives a note for you.

The third-person singular verbs in present tense are usually added by suffix –s, but some verbs are added by suffix –es. However, some regular verbs, have special rules for spelling to form third-person singular present verbs:

- Many verbs end in –e, suffix –s is added

    e.g. I *hope* (infinitive use)

    She *hopes* (third-person singular present verb use)

- Verbs ending in a consonant + o are added by suffix -es

  e.g. They *do* (infinitive use)

    He *does* (third-person singular present verb use)

- Verbs ending in z, s, ch, sh, or x take suffix -es

  e.g. I *catch* (infinitive use)

    She *catches* (third-person singular present verb use)

    I *wash* (infinitive use)

    She *washes* (third-person singular present verb use)

- Verbs ending in a consonant + y change the y into i and add suffix -es

  e.g. We *study* (infinitive use)

    He *studies* (third-person singular present verb use)

    We *try* (infinitive use)

    He *tries* (third-person singular present verb use)

  Verbs ending in y following a vowel obey the usual rule

  e.g. I *obey* (infinitive use)

    He *obeys* (third-person singular present verb use)

    I *say* (infinitive use)

    He *says* (third-person singular present verb use)

II.4.2.4 Comparative Morpheme

Comparative morpheme is used to indicate the comparative degree of adjectives.

For example:

Form	Stem	Comparative Form
Inflectional morpheme :		stem + comparative morpheme
Models :	sweet	sweeter
	near	nearer
	important	more important

The comparative form of adjectives, *sweet* and *near* are *sweeter* and *nearer*. Those two adjectives are added by suffix –er to indicate comparative degree of the adjectives. However, the comparative form of three-syllable adjective, *important* is *more important*. That adjective is added by suffix more to indicate the comparative degree of adjectives.

The morpheme meaning comparative has special rules for spelling:

- For most one-syllable adjectives, suffix -er is added

    e.g. old → older (comparative form)

- For two-syllable adjectives:

    ✓ For most two-syllable adjectives, suffix more is used

      e.g. famous → more famous (comparative form)

    ✓ Suffix -er is used with two-syllable adjectives that end in –y. The –y is changed to –i.

      e.g. busy → busier (comparative form)

        pretty → prettier (comparative form)

    ✓ Some two-syllable adjectives use suffix –er or more

      e.g. clever → cleverer (comparative form)

        handsome → more handsome (comparative form)

- Adjectives with three or more syllables, suffix more is used

  e.g. important → more important (comparative form)

  fascinating →more fascinating (comparative form)

Irregular adjectives:

- Major change as in

  little → less (comparative form)

  many → more (comparative form)

  much → more (comparative form)

- Complete change as in

  good → better (comparative form)

  bad → worse (comparative form)

II.4.2.5 Superlative Morpheme

Superlative morpheme is used to indicate the superlative degree of adjectives. For

example:

Form	Stem	Superlative Form
Inflectional morpheme :		stem + superlative morpheme
Models :	sweet	sweetest
	near	nearest
	important	most important

The superlative form of adjectives, *sweet* and *near* are *sweetest* and *nearest.*

Those two adjectives are added by suffix –est to indicate superlative degree of the

adjectives. However, the superlative form of three-syllable adjective, *important* is

most important. That adjective is added by suffix most to indicate the superlative degree of adjectives.

The morpheme meaning superlative has special rules for spelling:

- For most one-syllable adjectives, suffix -est is added

  e.g. old →the oldest (superlative form)

- For two-syllable adjectives:

  ✓ For most two-syllable adjectives, suffix most is used

    e.g. famous → the most famous (superlative form)

  ✓ Suffix -est is used with two-syllable adjectives that end in –y.

    The –y is changed to –i.

    e.g. busy → the busiest (superlative form)

    pretty → the prettiest (superlative form)

  ✓ Some two-syllable adjectives use suffix –est or most

    e.g. clever → the cleverest (superlative form)

    handsome → the most handsome (superlative form)

- Adjectives with three or more syllables, suffix more is used

  e.g. important → the most important (superlative form)

    fascinating → the most fascinating (superlative form)

Irregular adjectives:

- Major change as in

  little → the least (superlative form)

  many → the most (superlative form)

  much → the most (superlative form)

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- Complete change as in

  good → the best (superlative form)

  bad →the worst (superlative form)

II.4.2.6 Present-participle Morpheme

Present-participle morpheme is used to indicate present participle forms of verbs.

The present-participle morpheme has meaning progressive or continuous applies

to verbs. For example:

Form	Stem	Present-participle Verb Form
Inflectional morpheme :		stem + present-participle morpheme
Models :	run	running
	cut	cutting

The present-participle form of verbs, *run* and *cut* are *running* and *cutting*. Those

two infinitive verbs are added by suffix –ing to show progressive that applies to

verbs.

The present participle verb form combines with seven of the five forms of *be--am,*

is are, be, been-- to make verb phrases.

For examples: They are writing letters.

        She is studying now.

Most regular verbs are spelled with suffix –ing for the progressive. Some regular

verbs, however, have special rules for spelling to form present-participle verbs:

- When the last letter of the verb is silent e, the e is dropped before adding

  suffix –ing.

e.g. complete → completing (present-participle verb form)

create → creating (present-participle verb form)

When the last two letters are ee, the last e is not dropped before suffix –ing.

e.g. agree → agreeing (present-participle verb form)

Exception: after age, dye, and singe

e.g. age → ageing (present-participle verb form)

dye → dyeing (present-participle verb form)

- When the last letter of the verb in two consonants, just add suffix –ing

e.g. help → helping (present-participle verb form)

learn → learning (present-participle verb form)

- When the verbs ends in two vowels + a consonant, just add suffix –ing

e.g. rain → raining (present-participle verb form)

heat → heating (present-participle verb form)

- When the last syllable is accented and ends in one vowel + one consonant is divided:

✓ If the verb has one-syllable and ends in one vowel, double the consonant to make present-participle verb form

e.g. stop → stopping (present-participle verb form)

plan → planning (present-participle verb form)

Do not double w or x: snow/ snowing   fix/ fixing

✓ The verbs has two-syllable verbs:

o If the first syllable of a two-syllable verb is stressed, do not double the consonant

e.g. visit → visiting (present-participle verb form)

offer → offering (present-participle verb form)

- o If the second syllable of a two syllable verb is stressed, double the consonant

e.g. prefer → preferring (present-participle verb form)

admit → admitting (present-participle verb form)

- For the verbs that end in y:

✓ If the verb ends in a vowel + -y, keep the –y. Do not change it to –i

e.g. play → playing (present-participle verb form)

enjoy → enjoying (present-participle verb form)

✓ If the verb ends in a consonant + -y, keep the –y for the present-participle verb form

e.g. worry → worrying (present-participle verb form)

study → studying (present-participle verb form)

- When the verb ends –ie, change –ie to –y and add suffix -ing

e.g. die → dying (present-participle verb form)

tie → tying (present-participle verb form)

- Regular verbs spelled with a final c add k before suffix -ing

e.g. panic → panicking (present-participle verb form)

picnic → picnicking (present-participle verb form)

II.4.2.7 Genitive Morpheme

Genitive morpheme is used to indicate the genitive case in most nouns. An apostrophe (') and suffix –s are used with nouns to show possession. For example:

Form	Stem	Possessive Form
Inflectional morpheme :		stem + possessive morpheme
Models :	woman	woman's
	doctor	doctor's

The possessive form of singular nouns, *woman* and *doctor* are *woman's* and *doctor's*. Those two nouns are added by an apostrophe (') and suffix –s to show possession.

Some regular nouns have special rules for spelling to form possessive:

- Singular possessive noun:

  Noun + apostrophe ('s) + suffix -s

  e.g. the student → the student's name (possessive form)

  my baby → my baby's name (possessive form)

- Plural possessive noun:

  Noun + suffix -s + apostrophe

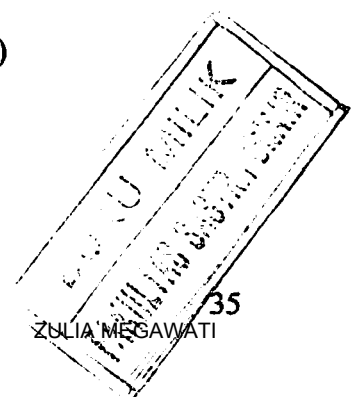 e.g. the students → the students' names (possessive form)

  my babies → my babies' name (possessive form)

- Irregular plural possessive noun:

  Noun + apostrophe (') + suffix -s

  e.g. the children → the children's names (possessive form)

  men → men's name (possessive form)

CHAPTER III
METHOD OF THE STUDY