THE DEVIATIONS OF MORPHOSYNTAX OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN THE ESSAYS OF THE ENGLISH GRADUATE STUDENTS OF STATE UNIVERSITY OF PADANG

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Abstract

This research dealt with deviations or errors of morphosyntax of grammatical categories which consist of structural properties and distributional properties of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs made by the first semester English graduate students of State University of Padang (UNP) in writing their essays. It aimed at explaining what errors of morphosyntax of grammatical categories committed by those students in writing their essays. The subjects of this research were the first semester English graduate students of 2008/ 2009 academic year of UNP. There were 15 randomly selected students who took the course of Academic Writing as the subjects of the research. The instrument used was through a test with one administration where the lecturer asked the students to construct essays based on the topics given. The analysis of data was based on theories proposed by Payne (1997) describing morphosyntax, error analysis method by James (1998) and Scovel (2001). It was found out that deviations of morphosyntax of grammatical categories mostly occurred. First, in the mis-formation of verbs (54.45%) as a structural property that exhibits subject agreement and in the omission of verbs which serves as predicates of clauses as a distributional property. Second, in the misformation of nouns (32.07%) exhibiting number as structural property and in the omission of nouns as a distributional property which serves as heads of noun phrases. Third, in the misformation of adjective (8.33%) which exhibits predicative function; and fourth in the errors of omission suffix –ly in adverbs (5.05%) modifying verbs. The findings reveal that the use of correct morphosyntax of grammatical categories of the first semester English graduate students of 2008/ 2009 academic year of UNP in writing essays is low implication?

Keywords/ phrases: Deviations, morphosyntax of grammatical categories, essays

A. INTRODUCTION

Among the four language skills (speaking, reading, listening and writing), writing is considered as the most difficult skill (Hogue, 2003). It demands a great deal of work and concentration. Good writing in English requires both good grammar and good organization. To apply correct grammar and organize our thoughts in ways that are familiar to native speakers are very difficult in writing. Native speakers are accustomed to seeing a long piece of writing divided into paragraphs; each paragraph discusses a single idea. They are also used to having information presented in a certain order, or order of importance.

Writing is a process of creating, organizing, and polishing ideas which involves several subskills. Some of these are related to accuracy, i.e. using the correct forms of language or using good grammar to develop a more sophisticated writing style. Writing accurately involves spelling correctly, forming letter correctly, writing legibly, punctuating correctly, using correct layouts, choosing the right vocabulary, using grammar correctly, joining sentences correctly and using paragraphs correctly (Spratt, et.all, 2005).

Furthermore, accuracy in writing is one aspect that should be paid attention by a writer. The accuracy in morphosyntax is a must to produce good writing. Accuracy of morphosyntax of grammatical categories is very indispensable since it will influence the meaning of what the writer wants to express in his writing.

Considering the importance of that skill, English Language Education Section of Graduate Program of State University of Padang has prepared their students with writing courses; academic writing and thesis. In the learning process, the English graduate students (EFL learners), who are majoring in the language, potentially commit hundreds of thousands of language deviations in writing, but these errors gradually decrease and their writing ability gradually increases through exercises, training, and practicing in a set of lecture subjects, including direct or indirect correction by their peers and lecturers when they commit them. It is hoped that the higher they are in, the more the errors will decrease and the more their writing skill will increase. If they still make errors in oral communication, it does not matter as long as what they communicate can be understood by the people whom they speak to.

Nevertheless, the deviations in morphosyntax of grammatical categories in writing essays are considered embarrassing because they are still relatively great in number and committed by the advanced EFL learners who are majoring in English, like the English graduate students of Language Education Section of Graduate Program of State University of Padang who have been learning English so long and are going to be teachers.

To response those facts, the researcher was interested in analyzing more about English graduate students' morphosyntax of grammatical categories in writing their essays. It was assumed that they

paid less attention to aspect of morphosyntax. They did not realize the benefit of proof-reading and peer-correction for errors they committed in writing. So that, the papers submitted to the lecturers were full of errors. In relation to that statement, the researcher was interested in investigating:

1. What errors of morphosyntax of nouns were found in the essays of academic writing course of the first semester English graduate students of State University of Padang registered in 2008/ 2009 academic year?
2. What errors of morphosyntax of verbs were found in the essays of academic writing course of the first semester English graduate students?
3. What errors of morphosyntax of adjectives were found in the essays of academic writing course of the first semester English graduate students?
4. What errors of morphosyntax of adverbs were found in the essays of academic writing course of the first semester English graduate students?

It is hoped that the study would give contribution to EFL teaching and to those who are involved in teaching and learning process. To lecturers of academic writing, it would inform them about the level of their students' errors from morphosyntax which is a significant feature of the English grammar. In addition, the findings might be useful to the English graduate students and those who will do further research about other types of errors of morphosyntax.

B. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE
1. Errors of the Morphosyntax: Mistakes and Errors

An ESL (English as second language) or EFL (English as foreign language) learner like English graduate student commits grammatical deviations when he breaks the language rules in speaking and writing. Whether an error of morphosyntax is a mistake or an error is not certain yet, (Ellis, 2003: 17) says that it needs to distinguish them.

It is true that an error is different from a mistake. Scovel (2001: 48) states that as early as 1967, Corder made the useful observation that it was important to distinguish between mistakes and errors. Scovel further says that up to that time the two terms had been used interchangeably as synonyms, as they are usually in every day speech, but Corder was wise enough to see that SLA (second language acquisition) research was better served if the two words were defined to describe two different types of linguistic misbehavior.

Ellis (2003: 139 & 141) defines a mistake as a deviation in usage that reflects the learner's ability to use what he actually knows of the target language, and an error as deviation in usage which results from a gap in a learner's knowledge of the target language. In fact, he says that mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance and they occur because the learner is unable to perform what he actually knows

while errors reflect gaps in the learner's language and they occur because the learner does not know what the correct ones are. This idea of Ellis' is strengthened by Scovel who views mistakes as any in accuracies in linguistic production in either L1 or L2 that are caused by fatigue, inattention, etc., and that are immediately correctable by the speaker or writer, errors as goofs which appear because of the learners' lack of competence.

Moreover, James (1998) gives the clearest and most practical classification of deviance a four-way one:

(a) Slips, or alternatively lapses of the tongue or pen, or even fingers on keyboard, can quickly be detected and self-corrected by their author unaided.

(b) Mistakes can only be their agent if their deviance is pointed out to him or her. If a simple indication that there is some deviance is a sufficient prompt for self-correction, then we have a first-order mistake. If additional information is needed, in the form of the exact location and some hint as the nature of the deviance, then we have a second-order mistake.

(c) Errors cannot be self-corrected until further relevance to that error input (implicit or explicit) has been provided and converted into intake by the learner. In other words, errors require further relevant learning to take the place before they can be self-corrected.

(d) Solecisms are breaches of the rules of correctness as laid down by purists and usually taught in schools: "split infinitives' and dangling participles.

Based on opinions above, it can be concluded that errors are not the same as mistakes. Errors may occur because of students' failure in mastering the rule of target language. Mistake may occur because they are not careful in applying the rule. An 'error' is committed when students do not know the correct form, meanwhile mistakes are the result of tiredness, worry or other temporary emotions or circumstances which can be corrected by English graduate students once they realize they have made them.

2. Types of the Errors

The linguistic errors can be classified into four types: omission, addition, misformation, and mis-ordering (Dulay et. all, 1982: 154-162, Corder, 1981: 36-43). The omission is characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance like *'I went to movie, or He teach English',* while addition is the opposite of omission. Addition is characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance, and it usually occurs in the later stages of L2/ FL acquisition, when the learner has already acquired some target language rules. In fact, it results from the all-too-faithful use of a certain rule.

This type of errors is subdivided by Dulay et. all. into three: double marking, regulari-zation, and simple addition. Double marking occurs because two items

rather than one are marked for the same feature of a tense; for example, an EFL learner might say *'He doesn't knows my name', or We didn't went to there'*. Regularization or overgeneralization as named by Ellis happens when there are both regular and irregular forms, and the learner applies the rules for the regular forms to the irregular ones as in '*We saw a lot of sheeps' or Jenny goed to cinema yesterday'*. Simple addition occurs if the learner uses an item that is necessary not to appear in a well-formed structure as in *'Fishes doesn't live on land'* .

In addition, Dulay et.all. explain that misformation is the most common type of errors committed by L2/ FL learners. Its characteristic is the use of the wrong form of a morpheme or structure. While in the omission type, the item is not supplied at all, in this misformation type a learner supplies something although it is incorrect. The example is as in *'The boy don't often watch TV' or They was playing football'*.

The last type is misordering. Dulay, et.all. assert that its characteristic is incorrect placement of a morpheme or a group of morphemes in an utterance, for example; '*Yesterday went the farmers to their rice fields'*.

In conclusion, errors can be classified into several types: omission, addition, misformation and misordering types.

3. Sources of the Errors

Harmer (2001: 99-100) proposes that there are two distinct causes of error. The first one is *L1 interference* that is the condition when the learner first language (L1) is exposed to each other; there is often confusion, which provokes errors in a learner's use of English. The second is *the developmental error* or also called as over-generalization, that is the situation where a learner over-generalizes a new rule that has been (subconsciously) learnt and as a result even make mistake with things that he or she knew before.

4. Concept of the Morphosyntax

Morphosyntax is the study of linguistic units that have both morphological and syntactic properties definable by both morphological and syntactic category (Payne, 1997:32). So, morphosyntax is the study of language structure both morphologically and syntacticcally as an organization that can not be separated each other. For example: morphemes as part of morphology have sentence level functions as studied in syntax such as, a morpheme can indicate whether a form functions as a subject or an object in a sentence; *Walking is good for you. I like walking to school.* The word *walking* can be a subject or can be an object in the sentences, depending on the position of that word in the sentences. The word *walk* and suffix *–ing* form *walking* which can be a noun or a verb (in morphological study) can be a subject or an object of the sentences which depends on the position of that word in the sentences (in syntactic study). The first position is at the beginning of the sentence, so it means *walking* is a noun which functions as subject of the sentence,

meanwhile the second is after predicate, it means *walking* is an object. Furthermore, the word *question* can be either a noun or a verb depending on their function in a sentence, e.g. *The question was easy; The police questioned several people.*

5. Morphosyntax of the Grammatical Categories

According to Payne (1997) morphosyntax of the grammatical categories is morphological and syntactic properties of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Morphosyntactic properties of each grammatical category fall into two groups:

(a) structural properties; have to do with the internal structure of word itself (morphological study) and (b) distributional or configuretional properties (syntactic study); have to do with how words are distributed in phrases, clauses, and texts. Meanwhile Harmer (2003) calls the grammatical categories parts of speech. Parts of speech are learned as the basic part of the English language grammar. Parts of speech are similar to word class where words and phrases on the one hand and grammar on the other meet up (Harmer, 2003: 21). The illus-tration of the parts of speech can be seen in the following figure:
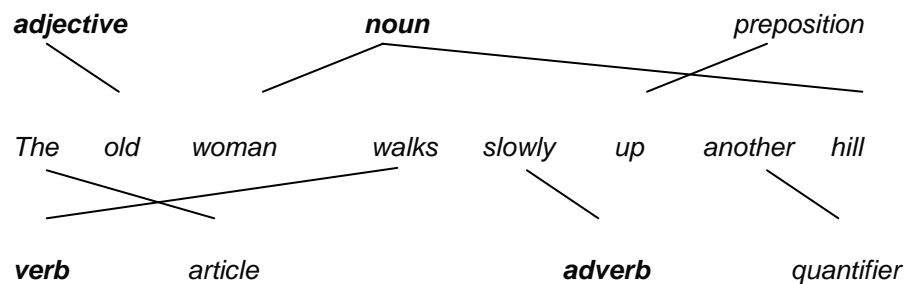

Figure 1: The possible position of parts of speech in a sentence
(Adopted from Parrot: 2004)

In the figure 1, there are seven parts of speech; *the* as an article for noun *woman, old* is an adjective that modifies subject *woman*, *walks* is verb which indicates action done by the subject, *slowly* as an adverb for verb *walks, up* as a preposition for the noun phrase of *another hill*. So, by arranging several parts of speech in a sentence well, people can express an idea but, for this study the

bold ones were much focused by the researcher.

a. Nouns

According to Payne (1997) nouns include words that express the most time-stable concept, e.g. rock, tree, etc. Nouns fall into two groups:

(1) Distributional properties (syntactic study) that have to do with how words are distributed in phrases, clauses, and sentences:

(a) Nouns can serve as heads of noun phrases, clauses and text. The head of a noun phase is the one word within the phrase that refers to the same entity that the whole phrase refers to. For example: *that computer man* refers to a time-stable concept and there are two words of time-stable concepts; *computer* and *man*.

(b) Subjects and objects of clauses, such as; *Bob left, Bob greeted John. Bob* is the subject and *John* is the object of the clause.

(c) Topics of texts, such as; *John had black and white striped sheets in his bedroom. White and striped sheets* is the topic of text.

(2) Structural properties (morphological study) have to do with the internal structure of the noun itself. There are several things which nouns can exhibit:

(a) Nouns exhibit case marking, such as; *my red car, mine.* Nouns and most pronouns in English have only two case forms: common case (*children, someone)* and genitive case (children's, someone's).

(b) Number marking, such as; *two cars, many cars,* etc. The English number system constitutes a two - term contrast: singular which denotes *one* and plural which denotes *more than one.* Each noun phrase is either singular or plural, and its number is deter-mined by its head, which is typically a noun.

(c) Gender marking, such as; *actress, stewardess, businessman, her friend,* etc. By gender is meant a grammatical classification of nouns, pronouns, or other words in the noun phrase, according to certain meaning - related distinctions, especially a distinction related to the sex of referent.

(d) The possibility of taking descriptive modifiers, such as the *red* car. There are examples where nouns act descriptive modifiers. For example: *women's universities* means several universities for women, *ship's doctor* means a doctor working on a ship, and *farmer's wives* does not imply polygamy, it is simply the plural form of *farmers' wives.*

(e) The use of genitive case pronouns, such as *my own* car. Semantically, possession can be divided into alienable and inalienable possession. Alienable possession is the kind of possession which can be terminated; e.g. someone can transfer possession of his worldly goods to someone else, hence his relationship to his worldly goods is one of the alienable possessions. Inalienable possession is the kind of possession that cannot be terminated, for example: body parts and kinship terms.

b. Verbs

According to Thomson and Martinet (1980), verbs are consisting of auxiliary verbs and ordinary verbs. Auxiliary verbs, then, are divided into to be (e.g. is, am, are, was, were etc.), to do (e.g. do, does, did), to have (e.g. have, has and had) and modal (e.g. can, may, must, should, have to, will, etc.). Moreover, ordinary verbs are divided into regular and irregular verbs. Regular verbs are verbs that follow the normal rule or need –d or –ed for the simple past and the past participle (e.g. work – worked – worked, study – studied – studied, stop - stopped – stopped. While, irregular verbs are verbs that do not follow the normal rule or do not need –d or –ed for the simple past and the past participle. (e.g. break – broke – broken, sing – sang – sung, write – wrote – written).

Payne (1997) states that morphosyntax of verbs fall into two groups:

(1) Distributional properties (syntactic studies) have to do with how words function in phrases, clauses, and texts. *For example*:

(a) Verbs can serve as heads of verb phrases. Verb phrases are combination of verbs and a set of *function words* called auxiliaries. Auxiliaries are verbs in that they satisfy the morphosyntactic definition of verbs, e.g. they occur in the position of a verb and they carry at least some of the inflectional information (subject - object agreement and tense, aspect, mode marking associated with verbs. So, the auxiliaries are often empty and express auxiliary information such as tense, aspect or mode in English.

(b) Verbs serve as predicates of clauses. At the sentence level, subject and predicate are two important elements. The verbal element may be a single verb, a verb phrase, an infinitive, a structure of modification with verb as head, or a structure of coordination whose components are any of these. The following examples illustrate some of these: simple verb; he *gives* lesson, verb-phrase; we *are learning* grammar.

(2) Structural properties (morphological studies) have to do with the internal structure of the verb itself. Verbs exhibit:

(a) Person. All English verbs except the modal auxiliaries (can, may, shall, will, must, need, etc.) have two persons, which can be called *common* and *third singular*. Verb forms consisting of base form + {-s} inflection are in the third-singular person; all others are in the common person. Examples of the third singular are *The man walks, This looks good*; the common: *The dogs bark, we are here.*

(b) Subject agreement; concord between *a subject* and *its verb*. Hogue (2003) calls it concord. There are five kinds of concord in English. They are agreement between a subject and its verb

(subject - verb concord), concord between a subject and its complement (subject complement concord); when the subject is plural, the complement is plural or compound/ coordinated. Except if the SVC pattern is in the adjective clause with the only one of where the complement is singular, or in the adjective clause with one of where the complement is plural. The examples are as seen in: *(1) Ninety percent of the police are policemen. (2) A number of course participants are pediatricccians. (3) The doctor who is standing among the nurses is an internist;* agreement between subject and its object (subject-object concord) particularly when the object is a reflexive or reciprocal pronoun; for example: *(1) I don't want*

you to pay for me. I'll pay for myself. (2) Carlos cut himself while he was peeling an apple. (3) If you want some more to eat, help yourselves; agreement between noun/ pronoun-possessive adjective, concord between noun/ pronoun-possessive pronoun.

(c) Tense. Tense is a category of morphosyntactic properties distinguishing a finite verb's temporal reference. Tense is associated with the sequence of events in real time. Tense is the grammatical expression of the relation of the time of an event to some reference point in time, usually the moment the clause is uttered. If we think of time as a line, with now represented by a point moving from left to right; it can be conceptualized in the following figure:
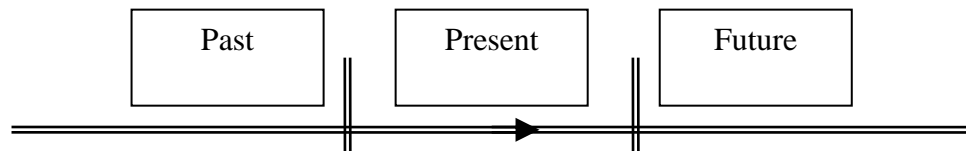
(Payne, 1997: 236)

Figure: Tense

All English verbs except a few auxiliaries (ought, must) have two senses, the present or common tense and the past or preterit tense. These are formally distinguished by inflecttions. The past-tense form consist of the base + the inflectional suffix {-ed$_1$; the common-tense forms are the base alone and the third-singular (base + {-s}) and the

verb *be* has two past-tense forms. was and *were* which show member concord. For example; *we saw a good movie last night.* The simple past tense *saw* expresses past time.

(d) Aspect. Aspect is a category of morphosyntactic properties distinguishing the various senses in which an event A can be situated at a particular time interval i. The properties are

distinguished in the present affirmative, the continuous aspect, indicates that e is in progress throughout i, the habitual aspect at i; the projected aspect, indicates an intention at i for A to take place; the completive indicates that e has just come to completion at i; the initiative aspect indicates that the state resulting from the completion of A holds true at i; experiential identifies A as having happened at some indefinite time interval prior to i.

(e) Mode marking. Mode is a category of morphosyntactic properties distinguishing the ways in which a proposition may relate to actuality in the speaker's mind. Mode describes the speaker's attitude toward a situation, including the speaker beliefs in its reality, or likely hood. English verbs have a variety of modes. They can be classified on the basis of form into two groups: (1) those formed by the *modal auxiliaries* with the base form of the verb, (2) those formed by certain other auxiliaries are *can, may, shall, will, must, do, need, etc.* all of these except *must* and *need* have past-tense forms; *do* also has a third-singular form, *does*. The auxiliaries which form modes with the infinitive are *have, be, be going, be about, used, ought, get, have got*. For examples *He can go, they have to go*, etc. These sentences indicate the present future, etc.

(f) Voice. English verbs have two voices, the normal or active passive and the passive voice. Passive voice forms consist of some form of the auxiliary *be* with the past-participle form of the verb. Another passive, formed with *get* as auxiliary and the past-participle, seems to be increasing in frequency. For example: active; *he kills, be*-passive; *he is killed* and *get*-passive; *he gets killed*.

c. Adjectives

Adjectives are class of words often called as describing words because they provide information about the qualities of something described in nouns, noun phrases or clauses. According to Payne (1997) morphosyntax of adjectives can be expressed by: (1) age (young, old, etc), (2) dimension (big, little, tall, short, etc), (3) value (good, bad), (4) color (black, white, red, etc), (5) physical characteristics (hard, heavy, smooth, etc), (6) shape (round, square) and (7) speed (fast, slow, quick, etc).

He adds that morphosyntactic properties of adjectives have three functions:

(1) To predicate a property of some referent already on the discourse stage. For example*: Our child is **sleepy**. Sleepy* is to predicate *our child* because it occurs in the predicate of a sentence and without a following noun.

(2) To introduce new participants into the discourse. For example: *He had **black** and **white striped** sheets in his bedroom. Black and white striped sheets* introduces

rug as new participant in the discourse.

(3) As nouns in some cases, e.g. ***The poor*** *will always with you,* or in elliptical expressions, e.g. *Would you like to try the **white** or the **red**?*

d. Adverbs

According to Parrot (2004) the popular definition of adverbs is words that modify verbs, adjectives or another adverb. He also thinks that it is sometimes helpful to think of adverbs as a ' dustbin' term that mean all types of that do not fit neatly into other categories such as noun, adjective, verb, preposition are lumped together as adverbs.

6. Writing an Essay

An essay is a group of paragraphs between 500 and 600 words in length about one topic. Carino (1991: 69) states that an essay is a short piece of writing in which the writer purposely presents ideas and information to audience on a single topic. It has three main parts; an introductory paragraph, a body, and a concluding paragraph (Ozagac, 2004: 5). The introduction introduces the topic of the essay and arouses the readers' interest. It always contains one sentence that clearly states the main idea of the whole essay. This sentence is called the thesis statement. The body of an essay is made up of one or more paragraphs. Each body paragraph explains or develops one part of the essay topic. The body paragraphs are arranged according to a pattern of organization such as time order or comparison and contrast. The conclusion is the last paragraph. It summarizes the main points of the essay.

There are four patterns of organization in writing essays in English: chronological order, logical division/ order of importance, cause and effect, and comparison contrast as ways of sequencing ideas. With each pattern, use special transition signals and structure words help readers to understand ideas of the essays.

C. METHOD

This was a descriptive qualitative research. The purpose of this research was to gain information about phenomena in order to describe existed condition in the field. The data were obtained through test that is writing essays based on five topics: *Global Warming, How to be a Good Teacher, Polygamy, Student Activist,* and *Using Media in Teaching English.* The student chose one topic which attracted her/ him and then developed it into an essay 500-600 words in length in 80 minutes either by chronological order, comparison and contrast order, cause and effect order, or order or importance. Then, the research collected and selected 15 essays of the first semester English graduate students of State University Padang registered in 2008/ 2009 academic year to represent that class who firstly took the course, not repeaters.

The researcher described the errors of morphosyntax of the grammatical categories made by the first semester English graduate students in writing their essays by applying the error analysis method as

proposed by James (1998). The first is **identification of errors**. The researcher took note sentences containing the errors and underlined or highlighted the words/ phrases/ clauses/ sentences which show the errors. Next, the researcher **defined and classified the errors**. The researcher stated the errors, e.g. grammatical categories: noun, verb, adjective, and adverb and then classified error types, e.g. omission, addition (double marking, regulari-zation, and simple addition), mis-formation, and misordering types.

Then, the researcher explain-ed the rule such as misformation as in 'I *am waiting here since three o'clock'*. It can be analyzed that speaker has selected the wrong tense: non-perfective in place of perfective. It means that he has not yet mastered the tense system of English. It should be '*I have been waiting here since three o'clock'*.

Finally, it needed to specify the grammatical system that the error affects: tense, number, voice, mode, etc. For example, the class of noun is manifest at different ranks: as word noun, as noun phrase, as noun clause. As an example, consider the follo-wing error:

We *use to/√¢ go swimming every morning*

The learner is attempting to use *used to* (indicating habitual behavior) in the present tense. So, it is a grammar level error involving the word class verb, and the system of tense.

Having identified, classified and specified the errors into their groups, the researcher made lists of errors in percentage on the table. The data were presented in percentage in order to know the major error that was in the students' essays. The formula was used as follows:

The percentage of error (FS) = $\frac{\text{the total number of errors in each item (S)}}{\text{the total number of all the errors (N)}} \times 100\%$

(Arikunto, 1991:246)

D. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Generally, the researcher could say that all students who were observed could elaborate their essays well. On the other hand, morpho-syntactically, they committed many errors or deviations. The errors occurred in all aspects of morpho-syntax of grammatical categories. They mostly made errors in the morphosyntax of verbs. The second one is errors of nouns, and then adjectives, finally adverbs. In conclusion, errors of grammatical categories can be depicted by the following table:

No	Type of Error	Frequency	%
1.	**NOUNS**		
a.	Nouns serving as **heads** of noun phrases.	16	12.60
b.	Nouns serving as **subjects** of clauses.	11	8.66
c.	Nouns serving as **object** of clauses/ sentences which can fit in the frame sentence: *They must bring* _____.	4	3.15
d.	Nouns exhibiting agreement between noun and pronoun	3	2.36
e.	Nouns exhibiting agreement between subject and its object	2	1.57

	particularly when the object is a reflexive or reciprocal pronoun.		
f.	Nouns exhibiting agreement between noun/ pronoun-possessive adjective.	7	5.51
g.	Nouns exhibiting agreement between noun/ pronoun-possessive pronoun	1	0.79
h.	Nouns exhibiting **gender** marking.	9	7.09
i.	Nouns indicated by **suffixes** added to verb: *{-age}, {-ance}, {-ence},{-er}, {-ee}, {-ment}, {-ing}, {-sion/ -tion}.*	1	0.79
j.	Nouns indicated by **suffixes** added to adjectives:*{-ce},{-cy}, {-ity}, {-ness}, {-ster},{-ty}.*	5	3.94
k.	Nouns indicated by **suffixes** added to other nouns: *{-cy}, {-er}, {-ian}, {-ism}, {-ist}, {-ship},{-ster}.*	2	1.57
l.	Nouns exhibiting **number** marking; **plural** morphemes.	57	44.88
m.	Nouns exhibiting **case** marking; Nouns show possession which occur with the **possessive** morphemes {-*'s}*, or {-s'}	9	7.09
Total		**127**	**100**
2.	**VERBS**		
a.	Verbs serving as heads of verb phrases.	40	18.51
b.	Verbs serving as predicates of clauses.	39	18.05
c.	Verbs exhibiting agreement between subject and verb.	58	26.85
d.	Verbs exhibiting tense.	29	13.42
e.	Verbs exhibiting aspect.	4	1.85
f.	Verbs exhibiting status.	16	7.40
g.	Verbs exhibiting mode marking.	10	4.63
h.	Verbs exhibiting voice occurring with past-participle *{be + past participle/ have/ s/ d + past participle}.*	14	6.48
i.	Verbs having verb-marking morphemes/ derivational affixes	6	2.78
Total		**216**	**100**
3.	**ADJECTIVE**		
a.	Adjectives expressing value (*good, bad*)	7	21.21
b.	Adjectives expressing physical characteristics (*hard, heavy,* etc).	2	3.03
c.	Adjectives expressing shape (*round, square*).	1	3.03
d.	Adjectives exhibiting attributive function to introduce new participants into the discourse. e.g. *the ugly painting*	2	6.06
e.	Adjectives exhibiting predicative function which have adjective-making morpheme such as *–able, -ful, ish, ous, -al,- ic, -less –y,* etc. e.g. *the painting is ugly*	13	36.36
f.	Adjectives taking comparative or superlative morphemes, such as soft*er*, soft*est,* etc.	3	3.03
g.	Adjectives compared by using *more* or *most.*	1	3.03
h.	Adjectives connecting two sentences	4	
TOTAL		**33**	**100**
4.	**ADVERBS**		
a.	Adverbs modifying verbs fitting in the frame sentence: *The man told his story*_____, indicated by the morphemes *–ly, -ward, -wise,* etc.	19	95
b.	Adverbs compared by using more or most.	1	5
Total		**20**	**100**

Table 1: Errors of Grammatical Categories

Based on the findings, the errors of morphosyntax mostly occurred in verbs. Why mostly in verbs? Verbs become indispensable element in language. It has essential role to indicate actions or events in language. The students committed errors of verbs presumably caused by the complexity of their properties. English verbs exhibit many pro-perties which often confuse students in terms of their inflected forms and uses. It is in line with what Payne (1998) says that English verbs have twelve tenses so they arouse errors unfortunately for students of English. For them, time and tense do not always match.

Firstly, errors of verbs, mostly errors of verbs occurred in exhibiting subject-verb agreement. This finding is in line with what Yasin (1978) had found in his research that errors committed by the students in producing English sentences were omission of *–s/ -es* as the plural indicator (subject-verb concord). Verbs must agree with their subjects in number (singular or plural) and person (I, you, we, they, he, she, and so on). A singular subject (one person or thing) has a singular verb. A plural subject (two or more people or things) has a plural verb. Many subject-verb agreement errors happen when the subject is third- person singular (he, she or it). Based on students' essays, many of them committed errors on subject-verb agreement. They did errors on subject-verb agreement by omitting where –s/ -es verb-inflected forms must be present there. The following data show errors that they executed:

(1) The teacher **make** a lesson plan. (S1)
(2) A child **relate** a husband and a wife each other. (S2)
(3) Teacher is a profession which **are** regarded the best profession. (S3)
(4) When the people still **was** children, they have dream wants to be success. (S8)

There should be agreements between subject *the teacher* and verbs *makes,* between subject *a child* and verb *relates*, between subject *a profession* and *is,* and between subject *the people* and to be *were.*

Here, the students committed errors of subject and verb agreement where the subject is third-singular person. Verb forms consisting of base form + {-s} inflection are in the third-singular person. The third-singular person is used whenever a simple verb is the head-verb in a predicate whose subject is one of the following: (1) A noun to which *he, she*, or *it* may be substituted, (2) One of the pronouns *he, she*, or *it*. (3) The function-nouns this or that. (4) A structure of modification of which one of the above is head. (5) Any other part of speech beside a noun, or structure of modification or comple-mentation with such part of speech as head or verbal element. (6) One of certain special structures of predication: the included clause and the infinitive clause. (7) A structure of coordination in which the coordinator is or, nor, (n)either… (n)or or not only…but also.

In addition, about errors of verbs, Payne (1997) discusses the major parts of speech in terms of

distributional and structural properties (morphological and syntactic studies). For example, in the case of verbs, Payne notes that their structural properties have to do with internal structure of the verb itself. According to him, errors of English verbs mostly occurred in confusing situation. The learners are difficult to use correct verb to indicate agreement with its subject. At first, the learners get confused with so many tenses in English which do not exist in their mother tongue.

According to Baker (2003) perhaps the most obvious difference between verbs and other grammatical categories is that only verbs can be inflected for tense and related notions, such as aspect and mode. This is clearly true in English which has walked, walks, and walking but not catted, cats, or catting. This is why one needs a verbal copula in nonverbal predications in English. Exactly which tenses, aspects, and subject agreement require auxiliaries and which varies in English.

Based on Chomsky's (1957) classic analysis of the English auxiliary system says tense counts as the head of the clause, takes the lexical predication as its comple-

ment. Now if a particular tense is specified as being an affix (like past in English as opposed to future), it will attract another head to itself so it can attach to that head morphologically. The question, then, is why in many languages this host must be a verb and not a noun or adjective.

Recall, that English tense/ mood/ aspect/ agreement marking distinguish verbs from other categories. If a language has no tense affixes at all, tense inflection per se obviously does not distinguish one category from another; may be there will be no errors happened for the learners.

Secondly, errors of nouns mostly occurred where nouns exhibiting number which can occur with the plural morphemes. It is in line with errors of verbs showing subject-verb agreement with number of subject. The students omitted –s where there needs to add –s, conversely they added –s to singular noun where there is no need to add. Beside that, they did misformation of using singular noun for plural one and vice versa. The errors of nouns occurring with the plural morphemes can be seen in the following data:

No.	Type of errors	Data
1.	Singular noun instead of plural form	5. She desires to have many **thing** without care about her husband condition. (S2)
2.	Misformation of plural form	6. When we teach the low academic level students we can give the easy method, motivation for study hard, support the students to do **exercise exercise** which fun. (S8)
3.	Adding –s to singular form	7. The second step that teacher must dominate is having **a good personalities.** (S11)

4.	Plural noun instead of singular noun	8. The last important **things** to be a good teacher is patient. (S12)

Table 2: Nouns Occurring with the Plural Morphemes

The English number system constitutes a two-term contrast: singular which denotes *one* and plural which denotes *more than one.* Each noun phrase is either singular or plural, and its number is determined by its head, which is typically a noun.

Generally, to show plurality of nouns is used –s / -es morphemes. There are other ways in forming plurals. (a) regular plural nouns called overt morphemes, adding –s, such as book-books, and adding –es nouns ending in –f, -o, –s, -sh, -ch, -x, -y, or –z, such as Williams-Williamses, wash-washes, etc., (b) irregular plural nouns called zero morphemes such as man-men, person-people, child-children, sheep-sheep, etc.

Based on the data above, there are several errors that students committed. The errors occurred in the forms of using singular noun instead of plural form (data 5), misformation of plural form (data 6), adding –s to singular form (data 7) and using plural form of noun instead of singular noun. *Many thing* needs plural form of adding *–s* to *many things*; plurality of *exercise* is made by repetition, so it causes error; and misformation of the plural for singular and vice versa produce errors as well. The words *many, several, a lot of, all of, some, most of,* etc. need plural noun after that. Here are the corrections:

(5a) She desires to have many **thing**s without caring about her husband's condition. (S2)

(6a) When we teach the low academic level students, we can give the easy method, the motivation for study hard, and the support to students to do **exercises** which are fun. (S8)

(7a) The second step that teacher must dominate is having **a good personality.** (S11)

(8a) The last important **thing** to be a good teacher is patience. (S12)

These errors probably might be caused by the plural marker which does not exist in their mother tongue. So errors of plural marking are unavoidable. It is in line with what Yunita (2008) found that many students made mistakes in nouns and the less ones were in prepositions. Most students had confusion in identifying the countable and uncountable nouns where they have to be able to differentiate between singular and plural forms.

The errors of nouns exhibiting number have significant effect, because English verbs need agreement with the number of subject, in this case subject is mostly noun. The students have to know these subjects are always singular, these pronouns are always singular, and these subjects are always plural. If these become confusing situations in other word they are not able to

distinguish them, they will commit errors every time.

However, they tried to make plural form but there was an interference of their mother tongue. Indonesian has its own way to form plurality that is by reduplication. The student did it in writing their essay by saying *exercise-exercise* where there is only adding suffix –s to exercise to form plurality.

The third, the students committed errors of adjective in their essays. Mostly errors of adjectives occurred in exhibiting predicative function. They can function as subject complement or as object complement. For example; *the painting is ugly, he thought the painting ugly.* For students, *ugly* in this case as adjective functioning as predicate is always misformed. They could not differentiate suffixes indicating nouns, verbs and suffixes indicating adjectives so they omitted them. Suffix –able, -ing- ied, -ful, and the word adjective do not match, for example noun *success* for adjective *successful* and verb *suit* for adjective *suitable.*

As stated previously, by looking at some suffixes it can be determined whether it is an adjective or not. However, many common adjectives have no identifying form, e.g. *good, hot, little, young, fat,* etc. Because of that, there were errors committed by the learners. The following data exhibit errors:

(9) If they feel **interesting** with the topic and the material, automatically they more easier understand about the material. (S1)

(10) It may make student itself **frustration** and give disappointment to their parents. (S7)

(11) If the teacher has good habit or attitudes every where, ø make the student **impression** with the teacher. (S10)

(12) Using media makes the situation of class will be **relax**. (S10)

(13) The students will be not **boring** into the subjects. (S10)

Quirk (1979) says that there are four criteria for establishing adjective classes: attributive use, predicate use after the copula *seem,* premodification by very, and comparison.

Based on the data 9-13, the words in bold are the errors of adjectives occurring in predicative function. There are many adjectives that have the same suffixes as participles in *–ing* or *–ed.* These will be called participial adjectives. For *interesting, frustration, impression, relax,* and *boring,* predicative use needs *–ed* participle that has no corresponding verbs. So, the errors above can be corrected into:

(9a) If they feel **interested** with the topic and the material, automatically they more easier understand about the material. (S1)

(10a) It may make a student herself/ himself **frustrated** and give disappointment to their parents. (S7)

(11a) If the teacher has good habits or attitudes every where, she/

he makes the student **impress-sed** with the teacher. (S8)

(12a) Using media makes the situation of class will be **relaxed**. (S10)

(13a) The students will not be **bored** with the subjects. (S10)

To prove whether these corrections are correct, Quirk (1979) says that there are four criteria for establishing adjective classes: attributive use, predicate use after the copula *seem,* premodification by very, and comparison. To make attributive use, (9) becomes *interested students,* (10) *frustrated student*, (11) *impressed student*, (12) *relaxed class*, (13) *bored students*; to make predicative use after the copula *seem,* (9) becomes *they seem interested,* (10) *they seem frustrated*, (11) *they seem impressed*, (12) *they seem relaxed*, (13) *they seem bored.* Next, to use *very* as premodification, (9) becomes *they seem very interested,* (10) *they seem very, frustrated*, (11) *they seem very impressed*, (12) *they seem very relaxed*, (13) *they seem very bored.* Last one to make comparison, (9) becomes *they seem more interested,* (10) *they seem more frustrated*, (11) *they seem more impressed*, (12) *they seem more relaxed*, (13) *they seem more bored.* In conclusion, all of these are central adjectives because they can satisfy all four criteria.

Moreover, adjectives can be detected through suffix used. Here, the learners omitted suffix indicating adjective. The errors can be looked at the following data:

(14) Teaching learning process will be **success.** (S1)

(15) In addition, make your class-room **peace, enjoy** and not **bored.** (S3)

(16) The teacher must ø **ability** to apply material as effective and clear in teaching English. (S7)

(17) The policy of government is not **suit** to society. (S7)

(18) We not only asked to give some knowledge and skills to our students, but also try to make them **comfort.** (S12)

The errors of adjectives committed were still dealing with predicative function where the suffixes marking adjectives were omitted. Here are the corrections of data above:

(14a) Teaching learning process will be **successful.** (S1)

(15a) In addition, make your class-room **peaceful, enjoy-able** and not **boring.** (S3)

(16a) The teacher must be **able** to apply material effectively and clearly in teaching English. (S7)

(17a) The policy of government is not **suitable** with society. (S7)

(18a) We are not only asked to give some knowledge and skills to our students, but also try to make them **comfortable.** (S12)

To test whether these correction is true, all words in bold fulfill all four criteria. To make attributive use, predicate use after the copula *seem,* premodification by very, and comparison, (14) becomes *successful teaching learning process,* ***very** successful,* ***more** successful,* (15) *peaceful, enjoyable* and *not*

boring classroom, **very peaceful,** *enjoyable* and *not boring classroom,* **more** *peaceful, enjoyable* and *not boring,* (16) *able teacher,* **very able,** **more** *able,* (17) *suitable policy,* **very** *suitable,* **more** *suitable,* and (18) *comfortable atmosphere,* **very com-fortable,** **more** *comfortable.*

The error of adjective functionning as predicate committed by the students was probably caused by lack of language competence especially about derivational affixes which can change class of word or grammatical category to another that depends on what is needed in the sentence frame. The students did not know how to change that. It is in line with what Chomsky says in Dulay (1982) that learner made errors because an EFL learner is lacking in knowledge of the rule of the language and it is called a competence error. These are not the result of laziness or sloppy thinking, but that of the learner's use of interim principles to produce a new language.

Finally, errors of adverbs modifying verbs fitting in the frame sentence *The man told his story_____,* indicated by the morphemes *–ly,* were encountered in the students' essays. For students, adverbs are simply the elsewhere case in the world of grammatical categories because they appear wherever no more specialized category will do.

The suffix –ly is usually thought as a category-changing derivational affix that creates adverbs out of adjectives. This often is disobeyed by the students in writing so they omit it. In fact, it is essential that the students write it as an indicator of adverb. Yet, placing adverbs correctly in a sentence can be troublesome because adverbs can move around in a sentence more than any other kinds of word in English. Here are some errors of adverbs committed by the students:

(19) If they feel interesting with the topic and the material, auto-matically they **more easier** understand about the material. (S1)

(20) Teachers can find the students need, students' problem and then solve them **with create-vity.** (S3)

(21) They should explain to people **with clear, effective** about the language in teaching English. (S6)

(22) The teacher should know to use media **appropriate**. (S6)

More easier, with creativity, with clear, effective, and *appropriate* are not adverbs. The students committed errors modifying verbs by omitting the suffix –ly indicating the adverb. Suffix –ly is a must in order to show how manner of action is committed. So, here are the corrections:

(19a) If they feel interested with the topic and the material, auto-matically they understand **more easily** about the material.(S1)

(20a) Teachers can find the students' need, students' problem and then solve them **creatively**. (S3)

(21a) They should explain to people **clearly, effectively** about the

language in teaching English. (S6)

(22a) The teacher should know to use media **appropriately**. (S6)

This error presumably might be caused by students' doubtness. First, -ly is otherwise used in English as derivational affix that creates adjectives, as in word friendly, manly, and daily. Second, there are many morphosyntactic affinities between adverbs and adjectives that can be used to justify them to be members of a single grammatical category, for example adverbs appear with the same degree heads as adjectives: *Chris entered the house as quietly as amuse, so quietly that no one notices, too quietly to be heard,* etc.

It is in line with what Hogue (2003) says that placing adverbs correctly in a sentence can be a troublesome because adverbs can move around in a sentence more than any other kind of word in English. For example adverbs that modify verbs can go at the beginning of their clause, at the end of their clause, before a verb that is only one word and after the first helping verb when the verb has one or more helping verbs.

E. CONCLUSIONS

Firstly, the researcher encountered that students who were observed made errors in morpho-syntax of nouns. There were several errors committed toward criteria of distributional and structural proper-ties (morphological and syntactic studies) of nouns. Mostly the students committed errors of nouns

in the aspect of their ability to exhibit number namely taking singular and plural markers. The errors occurred by omission, addition and mis-formation of plural morphemes. The second aspect of nouns which is disobeyed is in their ability to serve as head of noun phrase.

Secondly, errors of morpho-syntax of verbs made by the students were misformation of agreement with subjects and omission of verbs as predicates of sentences. Mostly, they did omission of inflected morphemes *–s/ -es* of verb for subjects of the third person singular (*he, she,* and *it*).

Thirdly, the students commit-ted errors of adjectives in the structural and distributional proper-ties (morphological and syntactic studies) exhibiting predicative function which have adjective-making morphemes *-able/ -ible, -al, -ant, ent, -y, -ful* and *-ish.* They did misformation of adjective-making morphemes in forming adjectives.

Finally, errors of morpho-syntax of adverbs occurred in the aspect of their ability to fit in the frame sentence: *The man told his story _____* as indicated by suffix *–ly.* The students omitted suffix *–ly* in forming adverbs in the sentences.

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Students' Writing
Student 1 (S1)

How to be A Good Teacher

As you know that, the teacher is a kind of job who spend their time in teaching learning process. Actually, it is not easy to be a good a teacher. The teacher has much obligation in teaching learning process at school. They should remember that they must get success in their teaching so make the students understand and satisfied about the lesson. How to be a good teacher? I have four steps about it; the teacher make a lesson plan, the teacher read and understanding the lesson before teaching, using media while teaching and give the chance for students to ask questions about the material.

How to be a good teacher? The first step is the teacher make a lesson plan. Lesson plan is a plan of teaching. it means that the teacher should know what are the material before teaching in the classroom. Many things that he/ she will do in teaching and learning process, it will be written in a lesson plan. in a lesson plan consist of three points; pre-teaching consist of greeting, while teaching consist of what are the material will be teach in that time, and concluding consist of the summary of the material and question and answer from the teacher and students. all of three points should be written in the lesson plan.

The next step is the teacher read and understanding the lesson before teaching. That is an important role for teaching, because we can't imagine what will happen in teaching learning process if the teacher do not master the material before he/ she teach in the classroom. May be there not connecting between the teacher and students. So it will be better for teacher to read, learn and understand about the lesson before she/ he give it to their's students.

Then, the third step to be a good teacher is using media while teaching. What media means here is a tool to help the students more understand about the material and they can describe what topic will be presents from the teacher. The example of media, such as: pictures, cassette, video, and so on. These media also can improve the students' interest with the material and they way out form the boring classroom. If they feel interesting with the topic and the material, automatically they more easier understand about the material. So, teaching learning process will be success.

The last step is the teacher give the chance for students to asks question about the material. I thing it is not completely if there is no chance for students to asks question. If there is no chance for asks question, the students will be difficult to more understand about the teacher's material. This means that there is a discussion in the classroom.

Finally, based on the fourth steps we know that, it is not easy to be a good teacher because we must think and do the four steps above. If we can do all, we can be a good teacher. A good teacher means a teacher who is get success in teaching learning process. And also if they get a good teacher, they will be a favorite teacher. So now, if you are a teacher please think and do all the steps then practice it in each teaching. Don't be a lazy men, and don't be a killer teacher. In addition, make your classroom in teaching learning process peace, enjoy, and not bored. If you do all, it means you can be a good teacher.