

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Previous Studies

Based on research finding of Iswahyuni the result showed that based on surface strategy taxonomy, there were omissions (24%), additions (7%), and misformations (65%) and misordering (4%). Misformation was the highest type of error occurred. The sources of those errors were overextension of analogy error (1%), transfer of structure errors (94%), and interlingual/intralingual errors (5%). Even though the students have good score in their English, they still make a lot of errors and tend to apply the rules of their first language when they do not know the rules of the second language.¹

The result of Ermaya study showed the types of errors made by the tenth year students of MA Hidayatul Insan of Palangka Raya on writing verbal sentence in simple past tense classified into four categories. The highest errors were misformation with percentage 53.85%. The second errors were omission with percentage 29.23%. The third errors were addition with percentage 15.39%. The lowest errors were misordering with percentage 1.54%. Meanwhile, the result of the study for errors on writing nominal sentence in simple past tense classified into three categories. The highest errors were misformation with percentage 81.17%. The second errors were addition with percentage 11.04%. The lowest

¹Santi Iswahyuni, *Error Analysis on The Use of Simple Past Tense in Recount Texts Written by The 8th Grade Students of SMPN 3 Probolinggo*, (Unpublish S-1) Thesis, Probolinggo: Universitas Brawijaya, 2014, p.v.

errors were omission with percentage 7.79%. Based on the interview done, the causes of errors on writing verbal and nominal sentences in simple past tense classified into three causes. They are overgeneralization, mother tongue interference and translation.²

Research finding of Saputra study about Errors in using adjective clauses, He found that the total frequency of students' error in using adjective clauses was 105. Based on the surface strategy taxonomy, it was obtained that the types of error made by the students in using adjective clauses were, omission, addition, misformation, and misordering. The highest error made by the students was misordering with frequency 85 (80.95 %). The second error made by the students was Omission with frequency 9 (8.57 %). The third error made by the students was misformation with frequency 9 (8.57 %). The fewest error made by the students was Addition with frequency 2 (1.90 %). This result showed that the teaching of adjective clauses has not been reached fully.³

Three of previous studies above discussed about the Errors in applying past tense and adjective. But in this study, the researcher wants to know the students' errors of simple past tense in writing recount text and the causes of the students' errors. The researcher also takes different place. This study conducts in MTs Islamiyah Palangkaraya.

²Ermaya, *Errors on Writing Verbal and Nominal Sentences in Simple Past Tense Made by the Tenth Year Students of MA Hidayatul Insan of Palangka Raya*, (Unpublish S-1) Thesis, Palangka Raya: STAIN Palangka Raya, 2011, p.103.

³Ajah Saputra, *Errors in using adjective clauses*, (Unpublish S-1) Thesis, Palangka Raya: STAIN Palangka Raya, 2011, p.61.

B. Writing

Writing is the most efficiently acquired when practice in writing parallels practice in other skills. Writing provides an excellent consolidating activity. Writing is also useful for setting homework exercises and for some class text.⁴

1. The Nature of Writing

The nature of writing ability from several perspectives: first, in comparison with the other so-called productive skill of speaking, next as a social and cultural phenomenon, then as a cognitive activity.⁵

The relationship between writing and speaking is important for language testing, among other reasons, because of the question to what extent writing represents a distinctly different ability from speaking, drawing on many of the same linguistic resources but also rallying on distinctly different mental processes.⁶

Writing is both a social and a cultural activity, in that acts of writing cannot be looked at in isolation but must be seen in their social and cultural contexts. The implication for the testing of writing is that writing ability cannot be validly abstracted from the contexts in which writing take place. To some extent, the ability to write indicates the ability to function as a literate member of a particular segment of society or discourse community, or to use language to demonstrate one's membership in that community.⁷

⁴M.F. Patel and Praveen M. Jain, *English Language Teaching (Methods, Tools and Techniques)*, p.125.

⁵Sara Cushing Weigle, *Assessing Writing*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002, p.14.

⁶*Ibid.*, p.15.

⁷*Ibid.*, p.22.

Writing is a skill which must be taught and practiced. Writing is essential features of learning a language because it provides a very good means for fixing the vocabulary, spelling, and sentence pattern. It becomes an important aspect of students' expression at higher stage.⁸

2. The Element of Writing Paragraph

A paragraph is a group of sentences and that the first sentence of this group is indented; that is, it begins a little bit more to the right of the margin than the rest of the sentences in this group.⁹

A paragraph must have a topic and controlling idea, support, and unity. Another element that a paragraph needs is coherence.¹⁰

a. The topic of a paragraph

A paragraph is defined as a group of sentences that develops one main idea; in other words, a paragraph develops a topic. A topic is the subject of the paragraph; it is what the paragraph is about.

b. The topic sentence

The topic of a paragraph is usually introduced in a sentence; this sentence is called the topic sentence. However, the topic sentence can do more than introduce the subject of the paragraph. A good topic sentence also serves to state an idea or an attitude about the topic. This idea or attitude about the topic is called the controlling idea; it controls what the

⁸M.F. Patel and Praveen M. Jain, *English Language Teaching (Methods, Tools and Techniques)*, p.125.

⁹Regina L. Smalley et al, *Refining Composition Skills*, Boston: Thomson Learning, 2001, p.13.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p.30.

sentences in the paragraph will discuss. All sentences in the paragraph should relate to and develop the controlling idea.¹¹

A topic sentence introduces the topic and the controlling idea about the topic. However, it is not enough merely to have a topic and a controlling idea. The controlling idea should be clear and focused on a particular aspect. For example, consider the following topic sentence:

Drinking coffee is bad.

This sentence has a topic—drinking coffee—and a controlling idea—bad—but they are vague. In what way is coffee bad? For whom or what is it bad? Is drinking only a little coffee bad, or is drinking a lot of coffee bad? As you can see, this topic sentence leaves a lot of questions that probably cannot be answered effectively in one paragraph. The sentence needs more focus, and that focus, and that focus can come from the controlling idea:

Drinking over four cups of coffee a day can be harmful to pregnant women.

In this version, the topic itself is narrowed down some more, and the controlling idea is more precise.¹²

c. Support

Most often we use factual detail to support a point. Such detail may include facts from resource material, such as magazines, journals, and books, or details about things you or others have observed. Basically,

¹¹*Ibid.*, p.17.

¹²*Ibid.*, p.19-20.

support comes from the information you used to arrive at the view you have expressed in your topic sentence.

d. Unity

Each sentence within a paragraph should relate to the topic and develop the controlling idea. If any sentence does not relate to or develop that area, it is irrelevant and should be omitted from the paragraph. A paragraph that has sentences that do not relate to or discuss the controlling idea lacks *unity*.¹³

e. Coherence

A coherent paragraph contains sentences that are logically arranged and that flow smoothly. Logical arrangement refers to the order of your sentences, which varies depending on your purpose. For example, if you want to describe what happens in a movie (that is, the plot), your sentences would follow the sequence of the action in the movie, from beginning to end—in that order. If, on the other hand, you want to describe the most exciting moments in the movie, you would select a few moments and decide on a logical order for discussion—perhaps presenting the least exciting moment first and the most exciting last to create suspense.¹⁴

A paragraph can be incoherent even when the principle for ordering the ideas is logical. Sometimes, as students are writing, they remember

¹³*Ibid.*, p.28.

¹⁴*Ibid.*, p.30.

something that they wanted to say earlier and include it as they write.

Unfortunately, this sentence often ends up out of place.¹⁵

C. Recount Text

1. Definition of Recount text

Often you will want to tell other people about something that has happened in your life. You might want to tell about what you did at the weekend it might be about exciting things that happened when you were on holidays last year. Speaking or writing about past events is called a recount.¹⁶

2. Generic Structure of Recount Text

The recount text type retells past event, usually in the order in which they happened. The steps for constructing a written recount are:

- a. A first paragraph that gives background information about who, what, where and when (called an orientation).
- b. A series of paragraphs that retell the events in the order in which they happened.
- c. A concluding paragraph (not always necessary).¹⁷

3. Language Features of Recount Text

The language features usually found in a recount are:

- a. Proper nouns to identify those involved in the text.
- b. Descriptive words to give details about who, what, when, where and how

¹⁵*Ibid.*

¹⁶Mark Anderson and Kathy Anderson, *Text Type 1 in English*, South Yarra: Macmillan Education Australia PTY LTD, 1998, p. 48.

¹⁷*Ibid.*, p. 50.

- c. The use of the past tense to retell the events
- d. Words that show the order of events (for example, first, next, then)¹⁸

4. Personal Recount

A personal recount usually retells an experience in which the writer was personally involved. It lists and describes past experiences by retelling events. It presents the events chronologically (in the order in which they happened). The purposes of a personal recount are to inform, entertain the audience (listeners or readers), or both.

The text consists of:

- Title (*optional*)

It usually summarizes the text and informs specific participants.

(e.g.: I, my friends, my family)

- Part 1: Setting or orientation

It provides the background information. It answers the questions: Who? When? Where? Why? What experience?

- Part 2: List of events

It presents events: What people do? It tells the event chronologically. It uses conjunctions or connectives like: first, next, then, finally and so on. They show the sequence of events.

- Part 3: Reorientation

It presents the concluding comments. It expresses the author's personal opinion regarding the events described.¹⁹

¹⁸*Ibid.*

Let's look at the example below.

Title (optional)

Setting or orientation This morning my friend and I went to EOS studio.

It's not very far from our school, so we just rode our bicycles.

Lists of events First, we met Shanti and Riko outside of the studio.

Then, they took us into the studio and showed us around. After that, we had lunch at EOS canteen.

The food was delicious. Before we went home, we took some photograph with Santi and Riko.

Reorientation It was tiring but we were very happy.

Language features personal recount:

1. A personal recount uses past tenses.

Example: This morning my friend and I went to EOS studio.

2. A personal recount also uses connectors to put the events in order.

Example: First, we went to arts studio.

3. A personal recount describes events. So there are many verbs or action words used.

4. Personal recount use mainly 1st person pronoun (I or we).

¹⁹Mukarto et al, *EOS English on the Sky 2*, Jakarta: Erlangga, 2007, p.62.

D. Tense

1. Simple Past Tense

Tense is the time that action takes place in the text. Recounts use past tense (already happened).²⁰

Here are some examples:

Tense	To be	To have	To go
Past	I was	I Had	I went
	You were	You Had	You went
	He was	He Had	He went
	We were	We Had	We went
	They were	They Had	They went

2. Form of Simple Past Tense

Verbs that show the past tense usually end in *ed*, or example:

Present tense	Past tense
I jump	I jumped
I walk	I walked
I look	I looked

²⁰Mark Anderson and Kathy Anderson, *Text Type 3 in English*, South Yarra: Macmillan Education Australia PTY LTD, 1998, p.54.

We form the past simple of regular verbs by adding –ed to the basic verb.

I	Worked	this morning.
You		yesterday.
He/She/It		last
We		night/week/month/Monday.
They		two days ago.
		in 1992.

In English there are regular verbs and irregular verbs. We cannot add –ed to the basic verbs of irregular verbs.²¹

Present	Past
Make	Made
Put	Put
Read	Read
Run	Ran
Say	Said
See	Saw
Sing	Sang
Sit	Sat
Sleep	Slept
Swim	Swam
Tell	Told
Write	Wrote

Present	Past
Blow	Blew
Bring	Brought
Buy	Bought
Come	Came
Cut	Cut
Do	Did
Feed	Fed
Find	Found
Give	Gave
Go	Went
Have	Had
Leave	Left

²¹Mukarto et al, *EOS English on the Sky 2*, p.59.

3. Uses of Simple Past Tense

We use *was* and *were* as the past form of 'be'. We use past tense when we talk about past.

Past

I was happy.	I was not sad.	Was I happy?
You were happy.	You were not sad.	Were you happy?
She was happy.	She was not sad.	Was she happy?
He was happy.	He was not sad.	Was he happy?
We were happy.	We were not sad.	Were we happy?
They were happy.	They were not sad.	Were they happy?

We can put a noun; adjective or adverb after *was* and *were*.

I was	a students.	Noun
You were	students.	
She was	happy.	Adjective
He was	sad.	
We were	at home.	Adverb
They were	at school.	

We often use the following adverbs of time to talk about past event:
yesterday, last night, last Monday, last week, two days ago, and in 1992.

We can put them at the front or the end of a sentence.

Examples: Yesterday I was at home.

They were here two day ago.²²

E. Error

1. Definition of Error

Error is a thing done wrongly.²³ According to Dulay error are the flawed side of learner speech or writing. They are those parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance. Teachers and mothers who have waged long and patient battles against their students' or children's language errors have come to realize that making error is an available part of learning. People cannot learn language without first systematically committing error.²⁴

2. Categories of Error

Dulay classify errors into 4 categories, they are:

a. Linguistic category

Linguistic category taxonomy classifies errors according to either or both the language component and the particular linguistics on the error effect or both. The language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantic and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary). Constituent include the elements that comprise each language component.

²²Mukarto et al, *EOS English on the Sky 2*, p.57.

²³A S Hornby, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, p.390.

²⁴Heidi Dulay, *Language two*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1982, p.138.

b. Surface strategy

A surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are altered: learners may *omit* necessary items or *misorder* them. Analyzing errors from a surface strategy perspective holds much promise for researchers concerned with identifying cognitive processes that underlie the learner's reconstruction of the new language.²⁵

1) Omission

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance. Although any morpheme or word in a sentence is a potential candidate for omission, some types of morphemes are omitted more than others. Content morphemes carry the bulk of the referential meaning of a sentence: nouns, verbs, adjective, and adverb.²⁶ For example, in the sentence:

Mary is the president of the new company.

The words: Mary, president, new and company are the content morphemes that carry the burden of meaning. If one heard:

Mary president new company

One could deduce a meaningful sentence, while one heard:

Is, the, of, the.

One could not even begin to guess what the speaker might have had in mind.

²⁵*Ibid.*, p.150.

²⁶*Ibid.*, p.154.

Language learners omit grammatical morphemes much more frequently than content words. Within the set of grammatical morphemes, however, some are like to be omitted for a much longer time than others are. For example, it has been observed for child L₂ learners that copula (*is, are*) and the *-ing* marker are used earlier in the English acquisition process than are simple past tense and third person markers (*lookes, eats*).

Omission errors are found in most sentences and in many types of morphemes during the first stages of L₂ acquisition. In intermediate stages, when learners have been exposed to more of the language, Misformation, Misordering, or overuse of grammatical morphemes is more likely to occur.²⁷

2) Addition

Addition errors are the opposite of omission. Three types of additions errors have been observed in the speech of both L1 and L2 learners: double markings, regularizations and simple additions.²⁸

a) Double marking

Many addition errors are more accurately described as the failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic constructions, but not in others.

For example, in most English sentences some semantic features such as tense may be marked syntactically only once.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p.155.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p.156.

- *We did not went to the beach last week.* (incorrect)
- *We did not go to the beach last week.* (Correct).

b) Regularization

A rule typically applies to a class of linguistic items, such as the class of main verbs or the class nouns. In most languages, however, some members of a class are exceptions to the rule.

For example, the verb *eat* does not become *eated*, but *ate*.

c) Simple Addition Error

If an addition error is not double marking nor a regularization, it is called a simple addition. Examples:

- *We stay in over there.* (incorrect)
- *We stay over there.* (correct)²⁹

3) Misformation

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure. While in omission errors the item is not supplied at all, in Misformation errors the learner supplies something, although it is incorrect.

Misformation has been frequently reported in the literature:

a) regularization errors

It refers to the use regular marker for an irregular one.

e.g.: *He bringed the book yesterday.* (incorrect)

He brought the book yesterday. (correct).

²⁹*Ibid.*, p.156-158.

b) archi-forms

The selection of one member of a class of forms to represent others in the class is a common characteristic of all stages of second language acquisition. The form selected by the learners is called an archi-form. For example, a learner may temporarily select just one of the English demonstrative adjectives *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*.

For examples:

that dog

that dogs

c) Alternating forms.

As the learner's vocabulary and grammar grow, the use of archi-forms often gives way to the apparently fairly free alternation of various member of a class with each other.

For examples:

Those dog

*This cats*³⁰

4) Misordering

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

For example:

The baby not did cry this morning. (incorrect)

The baby did not cry this morning. (correct).³¹

³⁰*Ibid.*, p.158-161.

c. Comparative taxonomy

The classification of errors in a comparative taxonomy is based on comparisons between the structure of L2 errors and certain other types of constructions. In the research literature, L2 errors have most frequently been compared to errors made by children learning the target language as their first language and to equivalent phrases or sentences in the learner's mother tongue. These comparisons have yielded the two major error categories in this taxonomy: developmental errors and interlingual errors.

1) Developmental Errors

Developmental errors are errors similar to those made by children learning the target language as their first language. For example, the following utterance made by a Spanish child learning English:

Dog eat it.

The omission of the article the past tense marker may be classified as developmental because these are also found in the speech of children learning English as their first language.

2) Interlingual errors

Interlingual errors are similar in structure to a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner's native language. For example:

*The man skinny*³²

³¹*Ibid.*, p.162.

³²*Ibid.*, p.171.

3) Ambiguous Errors

Ambiguous errors are those that could be classified equally well as developmental or interlingual errors.³³ That is because these errors reflect the learner's native language structure, and at the same time, the errors also reflect the error pattern that is found in the speech of children acquiring a first language. For example:

I no have a car (error)

The negative construction reflects the learner's native Indonesian and is also characteristic of the speech of children learning English as their first language.

4) Other Errors

Some taxonomic errors may not have any place to fit any other category.³⁴ For example:

She do hungry.

The speaker used neither the native Indonesian structure, nor an L₂ developmental form such as *She hungry* where the auxiliary is omitted altogether. Such an error would go into the other category.

d. Communicative effect

While the surface strategy and communicative taxonomies focus on aspects of the errors themselves, the communicative effect classification deals with errors from the perspective of their effect on the listener or

³³ *Ibid.*, p.172.

reader. It focuses on distinguishing between errors that seem to cause miscommunication and those that don't.³⁵

1) Global Errors

Errors that effect *overall sentences organization* significantly hinder communication. Because of the wide syntactic scope such errors, Burt and Kiparsky labeled this category “global.”

The most systematic global errors include:

Wrong order of major constituents

e.g. *English language use many people.*

Missing, wrong, or misplaced sentence connectors

e.g. ^(if) *not take this bus, we late for school.*

He will be rich until he marry.

^(when)
He started to go to school since he studied very hard.

Missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rules

e.g. *The student's proposal* ^(was) *looked into* ^(by) *the principal.*

Regularization of pervasive syntactic rule to exceptions

(In transformational terms, not observing selectional restrictions on certain lexical items)

e.g. *We amused that movie very much.*

*(That movie amused us very much.)*³⁶

³⁵*Ibid.*, p.189.

³⁶*Ibid.*, p.191.

2) Local Errors

Errors that effect *single elements (constituents) in a sentence* do not usually hinder communication significantly. These include errors in noun and verb inflection, articles, auxiliaries and the formation of quantifiers. Since these errors are limited to a single part of the sentence, Burt and Kiparsky labeled them “local.” Local errors are clearly illustrated in the example discussed. The global/local distinction can be extended to the classification of errors in terms of those that sound more “un-English” to a listener or reader than others.

For example, compare:

Why like we each other?

And

*Why we like each other?*³⁷

3) Psychological predicate

Many predicates (both verbs and adjectives) describe how a person feels about something or someone. They describe psychological states or reactions.

She loves that dish.

We're glad you're here.

Psychological verbs always require (1) the animate being who experiences the feeling, called the *experiencer*, and (2) the thing or person that causes the feeling to come about, called the *stimulus*.³⁸

³⁷*Ibid.*, p.191-192.

4) Choosing Complement Types

A second global area of English syntax is the complement system. Complements, or subordinate clauses, usually take one of three forms in English: *that*-clauses (*No he believes that we will survive this*); infinitives (*I want to sleep*); and gerunds (*He avoids working late*). The improper selection of these complement types can lead to errors that seriously impede communication.³⁹

3. Causes of Error

They are some of the causes of errors.

a. Interlingual Error

Interlingual errors are similar in structure to a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner's native language. For example: *the man skinny*.

To identify an interlingual error, researchers usually translate the grammatical form of the learner's phrase or sentence into the learner's first language to see if similarities exist. For example, if the learners produced *Dog eat it*. The researcher would translate the grammatical form *The Dog ate it* then compare both sentences to see if the learner's L¹ structure is discernible in the L².⁴⁰

³⁸*Ibid.*, p.193.

³⁹*Ibid.*, p.194.

⁴⁰*Ibid.*, p.171.

b. Intralingual error

Intralingual error is errors made by the learners' cause of the feature of L2 itself. Richard defined that intralingual errors are caused by:⁴¹

1) Overgeneralization

The learner has tendency to simplify the formations or the rules of the target language. It seems that the learner tends to use the simple rules to generalize the other uses. In the past tense, for instance, we should add-ed to the regular verb.

2) Ignorance of Rule Restrictions.

It is still closely related to over-generalization. In this case the learner violates the restriction of existing structure that is the application of rules to context where they do not apply.

3) Incomplete Application of Rules

It happens due to life deviation of structure that neglects the development of rules to produce the acceptable sentence.

4) False Concepts Hypothesized

It happens due to misconception of the difference in the target language. The low teaching techniques sometimes create this error comprehension. For instance, in the teaching of present tense the teacher usually starts with the teaching of to be am, is, are, then teaching the verbs. It is also often found in the teaching of past tense. When the teacher presents the items poorly, the learner may have a false assumption. Such as

⁴¹Jack C Richard, *Error Analysis: Perspective on Second Language Acquisition*, p.174.

am, is are the sign of present activities and was, were, are the sign of past activities.

4. Error Analysis

The fact that learners do make errors, and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of study of learner's errors, called error analysis. Error analysis became distinguished from contrastive analysis by its examination of errors attributable to all possible sources, not just those resulting from negative transfer of the native language. Error analysis easily superseded contrastive analysis, as we discovered that only *some* of the errors a learner makes are attributable to the mother tongue, that learners do not actually make all the errors that contrastive analysis predicted they should, and that learners from disparate language backgrounds tend to make similar errors in learning one target language.⁴²

Error analysis has yielded insight into the L₂ acquisition process that has stimulated major changes in teaching practices. Perhaps its most controversial contribution has been the discovery that the majority of grammatical errors second language learners make do not reflect the learner's mother tongue but are very much like those young children make as they learn a first language.⁴³

⁴²Heidi Dulay, *Teaching by Principle*, p.216.

⁴³*Ibid.*, p.138.