

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### A. Previous Studies

In order to make a different study with the previous research, the writer had found some previous studies that are concerned with errors as follows:

Harmawati studied *An Analysis of Errors in Using of the Simple Past Tense in the Students Short Composition (a case study at the eighth grade students of smpn 3 rongga cihampelas)*. The results of this research showed that, most of students still made errors in using the simple past tense in their short composition. The results of this research showed that 66% of the students answered correctly and 33% of the students answered incorrectly. The causes of students errors made by in using the simple past tense were lack of knowledge in using “to be” related to the subject of sentence and inability to form the irregular verb correctly.<sup>1</sup>

Iswahyuni studied *Error Analysis on the Use of Simple Past Tense In Recount Texts Written by the 8th Grade Students of SMPN 3 Probolinggo*. The results showed that based on surface strategy taxonomy, there were omissions (24%), additions (7%), 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

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<sup>1</sup>Rina Harmawati, , *An Analysis of Errors in Using of the Simple Past Tense in the Students Short Composition (a case study at the eighth grade students of smpn 3 rongga cihampelas)*, From URL: <http://www.Publikasi.stikipsiliwangi.ac.id/files/2013/09/0722009-Rina-Harmawatti.pdf>, Accessed on September 1 2014, p.1

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.<sup>2</sup>

Irawan studied *An Error Analysis on Compound Sentences Made By The Twelfth Grade Students of Senior High School 3 of Pangkalan Bun*. It has been found the total errors made by the students in making compound sentences were 97 errors. Based on surface strategy taxonomy which applied in describing error phase, it was known that the students' errors were in all categories which are omission, addition, misformation, and misordering in almost all subcategories. The highest frequency errors made by the students were misformation: alternating forms by 39 errors (40.21%). The second errors were addition: simple addition by 15 errors (15.46%). The third errors were misformation: archi-forms by 15 errors (15.46%) The forth errors were omission: grammatical morphemes by 12 errors (12.37%). The fifth errors were omission: content morphemes by 9 errors (9.28%). The sixth errors were misordering by 4 errors (4.12%). The seventh errors were addition: double marking by 3 errors (3.09%). There was no students who did errors in misformation: regularization and addition: Regularization.<sup>3</sup>

Hidayah studied *Error Analysis on The Use of The Simple Tense and The Simple Past Tense in Writing Essays among TESL College Students*. From the findings, it can be seen that many students committed errors

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<sup>2</sup>Santi Iswahyuni, *analyzing students' error in writing narrative text (a case study at alyahalbasyariyah bandung)*, Unpublished Thesis, Probolinggo: Universitas Brawijaya, 2014, p. 5

<sup>3</sup>Deby Irawan, *An Error Analysis on Compound Sentences Made By The Twelfth Grade Students of Senior High School 3 of Pangkalan Bun*, Unpublished Thesis, Palangka Raya: STAIN Palangka Raya, 2013, p.

involving grammatical items, such as subject-verb agreement, tenses, parts of speech and vocabularies. Types of errors committed by the students with regard to Error Analysis Method are due to omission, addition, misinformation and misordering. Some factors have been identified to contribute to the problem such as: lack of knowledge and competence of the English grammar, influence of the mother tongue, loan words and lack of exposure of the English language.<sup>4</sup>

Ermaya studied Errors in Writing Verbal and Nominal Sentences in Simple Past Tense made by the Tenth year students of MA Hidayatul Insan of Palangka Raya. It was found that the students' highest error frequency in making verbal sentence in past tense was misformations by 53.85% of total students. The fewest error was misordering by 1.54% of total students. Meanwhile, the students' highest error frequency in making nominal sentence in past tense frequency was misformation by 81.17% of total students. The fewest error was omission by 7.79% of total students. The factor of those errors was overgeneralization, mother tongue interference, and translation.<sup>5</sup>

Hidayat studied about analyzing students' error in writing narrative text (a case study at al-yahlabasyariyah bandung). In relation to the error analysis, the reason why the students made error in misformation (as the highest percentage of the errors based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy)

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<sup>4</sup>Ahmad Taufik Hidayah, *Error Analysis on The Use of The Simple Tense and The Simple Past Tense in Writing Essays among TESL College Students*, International Journal of Education and Research, Vol. 1 No. 12 December 2013, p.1

<sup>5</sup>Ermaya, *Errors on Writing Verbal and Nominal Sentences in Simple Past Tense Made by the Tenth Year Students of Ma Hidayatul Insan of Palangka Raya*, Unpublished Thesis, Palangka Raya: STAIN Palangka Raya, 2011, p.102

because of the lack of students in grammar and tense. Similarly, for omission because of their lack in grammar and tense too, such as omission of morpheme – ed, and omission of the article ‘a’ and ‘the’. For addition, the factor that caused errors was overgeneralization of English grammar such as adding – ed to every verb to make it into past sentence. Finally, for misordering is caused the different language rules between Indonesian and English made the students.<sup>6</sup>

Herawati studied about a study of error analysis of second class of sma muhammadiyah 2 pucang surabaya in paragraph writing. While, the data were the errors found in the students’ narrative writing and the result of students’ interviewing. The data were analyzed by identifying and describing the students’ errors on the use of grammar, classifying the students’ errors into types I.e.; Omission, Addition, Misformation, and Misordering, Transitional Signal, Punctuation, and Capitalization and describing the possible causes of students’ errors. The causes of the students’ errors were analyzed from the point of intralinguage causes of errors recommended by Richard, i, e.; Over Generalization, Ignorance of Rules Restrictions, Incomplete Application of Rules, and False Concepts Hypothesized.<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>6</sup>Sarif Hidayat, *Analyzing Students’ Error in Writing Narrative Text” (A Case Study at Alyah Albasyariah Bandung)*, accessed on mei 10 2013, from <http://www.Publikasi.stikipsiliwangi.ac.id/files/2012/10/0722009-Sarif Hidayat.pdf>

<sup>7</sup>Anisa Herawati, *A Study of Error Analysis of Second Class of Sma Muhammadiyah 2 Pucang Surabaya in Paragraph Writing*, Unpublished Thesis, Surabaya: IAIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya, 2009.

In this study, the writer has different focus of the study. In Harmawati studied, she collected the data by using writing test. The result of her study showed the students answered correctly and incorrectly. The method in her research was qualitative. In Iswahyuni studied, she collected the data by using writing test. To analyze the data, she used types of error based on Dulay's theory and source of error based on Lott's theory. The method in her research was qualitative.

In Irawan studied, he collected the data by using written test. The fundamental theory of his study is based on Dulai's Theory, and the analysis steps are based on Ellis's theory. The method in his study was quantitative. In Hidayah studied, he collected the data by using written essay. The method in his study was descriptive. In Ermaya studied, she collected the data by using interview and documentation. The method in her study was descriptive qualitative. In Hidayah studied, he collected the data by using writing test and interview. The method in his study was qualitative.

In Herawati studied, she collected the data by using writing test and interview. The method in her study was triangulation. The writer's study is about An Error Analysis of Narrative Text Made by the Ninth Year Students of MTs Darul Amin Palangka Raya. The fundamental theory of this study is based on Dulai's Theory.

## **B. Writing**

### **1. The Nature of Writing**

Writing is a skill which must be taught and practised. 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.<sup>8</sup>

The physical act of writing is sometimes thought of as mainly the result of cognitive effort on the part of an individual writer. However, it is important to view writing not solely as the product of an individual, but as a social and cultural act.

Writing is also social because it is a social artefact and is carried out in a social setting. What we write, how we write, and who write to is shaped by social convention and by our history of social interaction. The genres in which we write were invented by other writers and the phrases we write often reflect phrases earlier writers have written.<sup>9</sup>

### **2. The Elements of Paragraph**

A paragraph is defined as a group of sentences that develops one main idea; in other words, paragraph develops a topic. A paragraph has five elements: topic, controlling idea, support, unity and coherence.

#### **a. Topic of Paragraph**

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<sup>8</sup>M.F.Patel and Praveen M. Jain *English Language Teaching (Method, Tools & Techniques)*, Jaipur: Sunrise Publisher & distributor, 2008, p.125

<sup>9</sup>Sara Cushing Weigle, *Assessing Writing* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002, p.19

A topic is the subject of the paragraph; it is what the paragraph is about.

b. Topic Sentence

The topic of paragraph is usually introduced in a sentence; this sentence is called the sentence. However, the topic sentence can do more than introduce the subject of the paragraph.

c. Controlling Idea

The controlling idea tells what the paragraph will say about the topic. It is called controlling idea because it controls or limits the topic to a very specific point or points.

d. Support

Supporting sentence explain the topic by giving more information about it.

e. 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.

f. Coherence

We have seen that a paragraph must have a topic and controlling idea, support, and unity. Another element that a paragraph

needs is coherence. A coherent paragraph contains sentences that are logically arranged and that flow smoothly.<sup>10</sup>

### 3. Micro skill and Macro skill of Teaching Writing

According to Brown, there are six Micro skills for writing skill, they are:

- a. Produce graphemes and orthographic pattern of English.
- b. Produce writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose.
- c. Produce an acceptable core of words and use appropriate word order patterns.
- d. Use acceptable grammatical systems (e.g., tense, agreement, and pluralization), patterns, and rules.
- e. Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.
- f. Use cohesive devices in written discourse.<sup>11</sup>

There are six Macro skills for writing skill, they are:

- a. Use the rhetorical forms and conventions of written discourse.
- b. Appropriately accomplish the communicative functions of written texts according to form and purpose.
- c. Convey links and connections between events, and communicative such relation as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
- d. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings of writing.

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<sup>10</sup>Regina L.Smalley, Mary K. Ruetten and Joann Rishel Kozyrev , *Refining Composition Skills*, Boston:Thomson learning ,2001, p.30

<sup>11</sup>H. Douglas Brown, *Teaching by Principles*, San Francisco: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc., 2001, p.342.



- e. Correctly convey culturally specific references in the context of the written text.
- f. Develop and use a battery of writing strategies, such as accurately assessing audience's interpretation, using prewriting devices, writing with fluency in first drafts, using paraphrases and synonyms, soliciting peer and instructor feedback, and using feedback for revising and editing.<sup>12</sup>

#### 4. Receptive and Productive Skill

Penny in Arifah states that the process of teaching a foreign language is a complex one. Learning a language is not only learning its grammatical form or structure. There are productive skill and receptive skill in learning language that should we master. Receptive skill are the ability to understand the spoken language (listening) and the ability to understand the written language (reading) while productive skills involve speaking and writing.

Writing as productive skill must be taught in teaching learning. More over, the real goal of language learning is communication. Teaching of writing should give special attention to the development at writing ability. Both teacher and students should be aware of the powerful role of writing ability for their success in language learning. Writing is different

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<sup>12</sup>Yuanita Damayanti, *Micro and Macro skills of Writing Found in The Writing Exercises of The Bridge English Competence for SMP Grade VIII*, accessed on 26 June 2013, from academia, edu/ 1139509/ micro\_ and\_ macro\_ skills \_of \_writing\_ found\_ in\_ the \_writing \_exercises \_of \_the\_ bridge\_ english\_ competence\_ for\_ smp\_ grade\_ VIII.

from other skills. In language teaching process, writing is an effort to increase students' language ability.<sup>13</sup>

### C. Narrative Text

#### 1. The Nature of Narrative Text

Narrative text is a story to present the sequence of events in a story in chronological order in the past time.<sup>14</sup> A narrative presents the sequence of event in a story chronological order.<sup>15</sup> Narration usually refers to the telling of a story, the term is used to describe the relating of an experience.

A *narrative* is a meaningful sequence of events told in words. It is sequential in that the events are ordered, not merely random. Sequence always involves an arrangement in time (and usually other arrangements as well). A straightforward movement from the first event to the last constitutes the simplest chronology. However, chronology is sometimes complicated by presenting the events in another order: for example, a story may open with the final episode and then flash back to all that preceded it.<sup>16</sup>

#### 2. Generic Structure of Narrative Text

A narrative text usually has three main parts: orientation, complication, and resolution.<sup>17</sup>

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<sup>13</sup>Arifah, *The Use of Picture to Write Narrative in Teaching Writing*, (Unpublish S-1 ) Thesis, Surabaya : IAIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya, 2009,p.18.

<sup>14</sup>Furaidah, *Advance Writing*, Jakarta: Universitas terbuka, 2002, p.6.

<sup>15</sup>Regina L.Smalley , Mary K. Ruetten and Joann Rishel Kozyrev , *Refining Composition Skills*, Boston:Thomson learning , 2000 , p. 53

<sup>16</sup>Thomas S.Kane, *Essential Guide to Writing*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1987,p.366

<sup>17</sup>Mukarto Sujatmiko, Josephine S.M and Widya Kiswara,*English on Sky*, Jakarta: Erlangga, 2006, p.123

- a. Orientation : orientation is tell about the setting in time and place, and characters.
- b. Complication: this part tells about problems to be solved by characters.
- c. Resolution: it describes the solution to the complications and gives an ending to the story.

Let's look at the example below (fable)

- Title : The mouse deer and the crocodile
- Orientation : The mouse deer was very tricky animal but he had enemies. One of his enemies was a crocodile. The crocodile lived in a river near a forest.
- Once day, the mouse deer went to the river. It was a very hot day, and he was very thirsty and dirty. He wanted something to drink from the river and then water.
- Complication : Suddenly the crocodile saw the mouse deer.” Hmmm...a nice meal.” he thought. Then, he silently crawled behind the mouse deer and grabbed him. He caught the mouse deer's legs.
- The mouse deer was startled and terrified as well. Then, he had an idea. He saw a twig floating near him. He picked it up and said, 'you stupid fool! So you think you've got me. You're biting a twig-not my leg, you, stupid crocodile! Here's my leg.'
- Resolution : And with that, he showed the crocodile the twig. The crocodile could not see very well. He was very stupid creature, too. He believed the cunning mouse deer. He freed the mouse deer's leg and snapped upon the twig. The mouse deer ran out of the water immediately. 'Ha...ha...ha...', he laughed. 'I tricked you!'

Language features

- 1) Specific participants or characters. e.g.: the mouse deer and crocodile
- 2) The use of past tense. e.g.: the mouse deer was startled and terrified as well.
- 3) A lot of action verbs. e.g.: grabbed, terrified.
- 4) Some relational verbs to describe the characters and setting. e.g.: the mouse deer was a very tricky animal but he had many enemies.

#### Grammar Review

The following sections are designed to coordinate with the narrative:

##### a) Adverbial of Time and Sequence

These adverbial phrases indicate time or sequence. Adverbial expressions fall into two groups. The first group consists of time expressions of more than one word. They generally introduce a sentence and are followed by a comma. Here is a list of the most common ones:<sup>18</sup>

##### By + time

*By nine o'clock, the avenue is lined with people*

##### At + time

*At around ten o'clock, the excitement mounts.*

##### After + time

*After eleventh o'clock, the people go home*

##### Before + time

*Everyone gets there before nine o'clock*

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<sup>18</sup>Regina L. Smalley, Mary K. Ruetten and Joann Rishel Kozyrev, *Refining Composition Skills*, Boston: Thomson Learning, 2000, p.306

After + noun

*After about an hour, the parade passes by*

Before + noun

*Before the parade, everyone is excited*

During + noun

*During the morning, the people have a good time*

The second group of adverbial expressions consists of one word expressions of sequence. These generally introduce a sentence and are followed by a comma. Here is a list of the most common ones:

*First*, there is the welcome sound of sirens

*Next*, the masked men arrive on horseback

*Second*, they wave and crowd waves back

*Then*, a band usually marches by

*Last*, the big floats come

*Finally*, the parade is over

#### b) Preposition in Time Expression

Since expressions indicating time sequence are important in achieving coherence and clarity, it is vital to use the correct preposition in time expressions. The following prepositions in time expressions are:

- *At* indicate a time of day:

Most Americans eat lunch *at noon*

- *In* indicates a part of the day, month, year, or season:

I like get up early *in the morning*

Final exams take place *in June*

- *On* indicate a day:

My brother was born *on May 5, 1970*

- *By* indicates up to but not later than a point in time:

They always try to arrive home *by noon*

- *During* indicates an amount of time (followed by noun phrase):

I sometimes fall asleep *during the biology lecture*.

- *Until* indicates time up to a point, but not limited to that point in time:

I like to sleep *until noon*, and sometimes I sleep later.

Special Time Expressions: *on time* and *in time*

Special time *on time* indicates the completion of an act at a designated time. It indicates the correct or exact time. If class begins at eight o'clock and you arrive at eight o'clock, you are *on time*. The expression *in time* indicates the completion of an act during a length of time that has a final limit. If class begins at eight o'clock, and you come any time before eight o'clock, you are *in time*.<sup>19</sup>

#### a) The Pattern of Simple Past

The simple past tense indicates that an action occurred or a situation existed at a known moment in the past or during a period of time in the past. Another definition of simple past is given by Betty states that the simple past indicates that an activity or situation *began and ended at a particular time in the past*.

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<sup>19</sup>Regina L.Smalley , Mary K. Ruetten and Joann Rishel Kozyrev, *Refining Composition Skills*, Boston:Thomson learning , 2000, p.308

Examples : I *walked* to school yesterday.

He *lived* in Paris for ten years, but now he is living in Rome.

I *bought* a new car three days ago

If a sentence contains *when* and has the simple past in both clauses, the action in the '*when* clause' happens first. In (d): 1st: The rain began. 2nd: I stood under a tree.<sup>20</sup>

Examples : I *stood* under a tree *when it began* to rain.

*When I dropped my cup*, the coffee *spilled* on my tap.

We form the past simple of regular verbs by adding *-ed* to the basic verb. Here are some spelling rules for regular verbs:<sup>21</sup>

**Table 2.1**  
**Grammar Pit Stop: The Simple Past Forms Of Regular Verbs**

|    |  |                |          |
|----|--|----------------|----------|
| 1. | Most regular verbs:<br>Add - ed  | Work > worked  | Bekerja  |
| 2. | Verbs ending in -e:<br>Add -d  | Hope > hoped   | Berharap |
| 3. | Short verbs ending in consonant + vowel + consonant:<br>Double the consonant and add -ed | Stop > stopped | Berhenti |
| 4. | Verbs ending in consonant + y:   | Cry > cried    | Menangis |

<sup>20</sup>Betty Schramper Azar, *Understanding and using English grammar*, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents, 1989, p.24.

<sup>21</sup>Mukarto Sujatmiko, Josephine S.M and Widya Kiswara, *English on Sky*, Jakarta: Erlangga, 2006, p. 87.

|  |                                    |  |  |
|--|------------------------------------|--|--|
|  | Change y to <i>i</i><br>And add-ed |  |  |
|--|------------------------------------|--|--|

a) The use of *was* and *were*

*Was* and *were* are the past tense forms of *be*. Use *was* with first and third person singular, *were* with the other persons.<sup>22</sup>

Examples : I *was* busy

You *were* busy

He *was* busy

b) The past tense form of the verbs.

Verbs other than *be* have one form in the past tense, that is, one form for all persons. for most verbs, an *-ed* ending is used to indicate the past tense.<sup>23</sup>

Examples : I *studied* English yesterday

John *studied* English yesterday

c) The use *did* in questions.

In the question pattern, use *did* in place of *do* or *does* to indicate the past tense. The main verb appears in simple form after *did*.<sup>24</sup>

Examples : John *worked* here yesterday

*Did* John work here yesterday.

c) **Kinds of Narrative Text**

There are than many kind of narrative text, they are:

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<sup>22</sup>Robert Krohn, *English Sentence Structure* , Jakarta Barat: Binarupa Aksara, 1990, p.23.

<sup>23</sup>*Ibid*, p.26

<sup>24</sup>Robert Krohn, *English Sentence Structure* , Jakarta Barat: Binarupa Aksara, 1990, p.27



## 1. Stories

A story is an account of some happening or group of happening. Story applies to any such an account true or made up, long or short.<sup>25</sup>

Example:

Orientation : once there was a monkey who in the big fruit tree.

Complication : one day the shark said to the monkey to come with him to his house.

Resolution : finally, the monkey knew what a friendship meant.

## 2. Myths.

Myths are an ancient traditional story about gods, magic, and heroes.

Example:

Batara Kala was an evil giant. He always killed a people, especially children. His hair was made from fire. Everybody was frightened of him.

One day, Batara guru the chief god invited all the gods and goddesses to drink sacred water in Paradise. The water was called Tirta Amertasari. It means “The water of Immortality”.

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<sup>25</sup>Wachyu Sundaya , *English in Context*, Bandung: Grafindo Media Pratama, 2005,p.33.

Because anyone who drinks this water, he or she will live forever. He or she will never die.

Batara kala was not invited because he was evil. Then secretly, he flew into Paradise and stole some of the water. Batara Surya, the god of Sun and Batari Chandra, the goddess of Moon knew what he did. Immediately both of them reported to Batara Vishnu, the keeper god of the universe.

Then Batara Vishnu took his fatal weapon, Cakra and shot it at Batara Kala.

### 3. Fables.

Stories that point out lessons are called fables. Fables entertain, but they also tell important truths about the way people act. Some writers of fables state the lesson, or the moral at the end of the story.

### 4. Folk tales

A folktale is a traditional story has been passed down orally from one generation to the next until someone finally writes it down.<sup>26</sup>

Example:

A long time ago, the people of Wanakerta Kingdom were very worried because Queen Dewi Kalasekti had suffered from a strange illness for a long time. Doctors and

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<sup>26</sup>Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue, *Introduction to Academic Writing*, New York: Pearson Education, 2007, p.29.

shamans were ordered to cure the Queen, but she was not healed.

Meanwhile, the high priest of the kingdom was praying to God, when he heard a voice echoing. “The Queen can be cured by the stone flower. This flower has no leaves or stem. It is white. It grows on a stone hill in same direction of the sunset.”

Well, the Queen then ordered Tumenggung Arungbinang to search for the flower. Tumenggung Arungbinang was a brave, honest, and loyal nobleman.

#### 5. Tall tales.

Tall tales is a story that exaggerates / (makes events thing seem larger, better, or worse than they actually were).<sup>27</sup>

Example:

Once there was an Indian who had a pet fish named Tommy, which he kept in a barrel. But the fish got pretty big and the Indian had to change the water a good deal to keep him water.

He began by taking Tommy out of the barrel for a few minutes at a time, pretty often, and then he took him out more often and kept him out longer. After sometime Tommy could stay out a good while if he was in some wet grass.

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<sup>27</sup>Th.M.Sudarwati, *Look Ahead*, Jakarta: Erlangga, 2006, p.34.

Then the Indian found he could leave him in the wet grass all night and pretty soon that fish could live in the shade whether the grass was follow the Indian around a good deal. When the Indian went out to dig worms to eat, Tommy went along too and got some for him self. The Indian thought of everything for that fish, until Tommy didn't need any water at all. He could go anywhere down a dusty road and stay all day out in the hot sun.

#### **d. Significance Feature of Narrative Text**

Narrative text tells a story with a beginning, middle and end by using the elements of setting, characterization, plot and theme. By using narrative text in the classroom, teachers can design lessons for students to apply higher-level thinking skills. Students can read age-appropriate literature and learn to infer meaning that is not explicitly stated and predict outcomes based on information. They become skilled at analyzing literature in terms of the elements of narrative text.

##### **1. Understanding Setting**

The setting of a narrative text enhances the other aspects of the story. Setting tells where and when the story takes place. For example, in the story of Cinderella, the protagonist or main character lives long ago in a land far away. Cinderella starts out scrubbing floors in her stepmother's house,

and in the end, rides off to the magnificent castle with Prince Charming. The contrast between where she started out and where she ended up is so strong we often refer to successful people as having lived a "Cinderella story." Students can compare and contrast the settings of different stories.

## **2. Analyzing Characters**

Students learn to analyze characters by studying narrative text. In stories, there are many details that give clues to the personality, socioeconomic standing and emotional state of the character. Teachers instruct students to look at words and images describing the character's clothing and facial expressions. Students examine what the character says and how he reacts to others to draw conclusions. The character's actions while solving problems in the story are powerful clues about his personality.

## **3. Narrative Plot**

By studying the plot of a narrative text, students can learn how to predict outcomes that make sense according to what has already happened. They learn how an author uses exposition to set the stage for plot developments and builds excitement with rising action until the climax or high point forces a plot resolution. As the plot unfurls, the reader learns about the characters and their qualities. In the case of

Cinderella, her sweet and uncomplaining nature is rewarded at the end of the story, while the wicked stepmother gets what she deserves.

#### **4. Identifying the Theme**

After learning about the setting, characters and plot, students generally are led in a discussion about the underlying message of the story, or theme. There are themes that recur in literature, like loss of innocence, which is often called a coming-of-age story. Another popular theme is the capriciousness of fate. Cinderella has this type of theme. It is a reversal-of-fortune story with a happy ending. To extend the lessons of narrative text, teachers can ask their students how the Cinderella story might give people hope and inspiration in their lives.<sup>28</sup>

### **D. Error Analysis**

#### **1. Definition of Error Analysis**

Error is a thing done wrongly.<sup>29</sup> 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

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<sup>28</sup>Penn Sharon, *The Advantages of Narrative Text in Classrooms*, accessed on June 5 2013, from [http://www.ehow.com/info\\_8657248\\_advantages-narrative-text-classrooms.html](http://www.ehow.com/info_8657248_advantages-narrative-text-classrooms.html)

<sup>29</sup>Hornby, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1995, p.390.

errors have come to realize that making error is an available part of learning. People cannot learn language without first systematically committing error.<sup>30</sup>

Error analysis is the study and analysis of the errors made by second and foreign language.<sup>31</sup> Error analysis has yielded insight into the L<sub>2</sub> acquisition process that have 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.

## 2. Classification of Errors

When we talk about error, we may also think about mistake. Error and mistake are not the same, it is crucial to make distinction between error and mistake and most of people still misunderstand about the definition of both. In relation to the classification of errors, Corder in Dulay classifies error in two terms. They are mistake and error. Mistake refers to performance and error refers to systematic competence inadequacies. The error of performance will characteristically be unsystematic and error competence systematic.

Generally, mistake is caused by the students' weaknesses in remembering linguistic system of language being learnt. It usually can be

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<sup>30</sup>Heidi Dulay, *Language two*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1982,p.138

<sup>31</sup>Jack C Richard, *Error Analysis: Perspective on Second Language Acquisition*. London: Longman Group Limited,1973,p.96.

corrected by them selves if they are more aware of the target language system. In the table, we can see the differences between error and mistake.

**Table 2.2**  
**The Differences between Error and Mistake**

| Category          | Error                                     | Mistake   |
|-------------------|---|---|
| Source            | Competence                                | Performance   |
| Characteristic    | Systematic                                | Non systematic  |
| Duration          | Long                                      | Temporary   |
| Linguistic system | Unmastered                                | Mastered  |
| Result            | Deviation                                 | Deviation   |
| Remedial          | Corrected by the teacher through remedial | Corrected by the students' It self through concentration. |

On the contrary, errors are produced by the students who do not know yet the target language system. And of course, they do not master the rule of the target language. Actually these occur consistently, systematic and take a long time until corrected by the teacher through remedial teaching or additional practice.

### **3. Types of Error**

The types of errors in this study are based on surface strategy taxonomy. Dulay states *a surface strategy taxonomy highlight the ways surface structured is alerted: learners may omit necessary items or add unnecessary ones; they may misform items or misorder them.* The types of error above is explained as follows:



## 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.<sup>32</sup> Content morphemes carry the bulk of the referential meaning of a sentence: nouns, verbs, adjective, and adverb. 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.

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 L<sub>2</sub> 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 (*looks, eats*).

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<sup>32</sup>Heidi Dulai, *Language Two*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1982, p. 154.

Omission errors are found in most sentences and in many types of morphemes during the first stages of L<sub>2</sub> 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.

## 2. Addition

Addition errors are the opposite of omissions. They are characterized by the presence of an item, which not appears in well-formed utterance. Addition errors usually occur in the later L<sub>2</sub> acquisition, when the learner has already known some target language rules.

Three types of addition errors have been observed in the speech of both L<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> acquisition: learners: double markings, regularizations, and simple additions. These errors are good indicators that some basic rules have been acquired, but that the refinements have not yet been made.

### a. Double Markings

In a sentence where an auxiliary is required in addition to the main verb, the auxiliary, not the main verb, takes the tense. Learner who have acquired the tensed form for both auxiliary and verb often place the marker on both.

For examples:

We did not went there. (Incorrect)

We did not go there. (Correct)

Because two items rather than one are marked for the same feature (tense, these example), this type of addition error has been called *double marking*.

b. Regularization

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

For examples:

The verb eat does not become eated, but ate.

The noun sheep is also sheep in the plural, not sheeps

Whenever there are both regular and irregular forms and constructions in a language, learners apply the rules used to produce the regular ones to those that are irregular, resulting in errors of regularization.

Regularization errors that fall under the addition category are those in which a marker that is typically added to linguistic item is erroneously added to exceptional items of given class that do not take a marker. For example, *sheeps* and *putted* are both regularizations in which the regular plural and past tense markers *-s* and *-ed*, respectively, have been added to items which do not take markers.

### c. Simple Addition

Simple additions errors are the “grab bag” subcategory of additions. If an addition errors is neither a double marking nor regularization, it is called asimple addition.

For examples:

I doesn't know how, (Incorrect)

It should be;

I don't know how. (Correct)

## 3. Misformation

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of wrong form of the morpheme or structure. While in omission errors the item is notsupplied at all, in malformation errors learner supplies something, although it is incorrect.

For examples:

The dog eated the chicken.(Incorrect)

The dog eats the chicken. (Correct)

There were three types have been frequently reported in the literature. They are as follow:

### a. Regularization Error

Regularizations errors that face under the malformation category are those in which a regular make is used in place of an irregular one.

For examples;

I falled. (Incorrect)

I fell. (Correct)

b. Archi-Form

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

For example; that dog → that dogs<sup>33</sup>

c. Alternating Form

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

For example, those dog → this dogs

#### 4. Misordering

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or groups of morpheme in an utterance. Misordering errors occur systematically for both L<sub>2</sub> and L<sub>1</sub> learners in constructing that have already been acquired, especially simple (direct) and embedded (indirect) questions.

For example;

He is all the time late (Incorrect)

He is late all the time (Correct)

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<sup>33</sup>Heidi Dulai, *Language Two*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1982, p. 160.

#### 4. Comparative Taxonomy Classification

The classification of errors in a comparative taxonomy is based on comparisons between the structure of L<sub>2</sub> errors and certain other types of constructions.<sup>34</sup> This taxonomy classified the learners' error into developmental errors, interlingual errors, ambiguous errors, and other errors.

##### 1. Developmental Errors

Developmental errors are errors that similar to the errors made by children learning the target language as their first language. For example:

She beautiful (error)

She *is* beautiful (correct)

The omission of the article and the past time 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 errors those similar in structure to a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner's native language.

For example:

She is a woman beautiful (error)

Produced by Indonesian speaker reflect the word order of Indonesian adjective phrase.

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<sup>34</sup>Heidi Dulay, New York: Oxford University Press, 1982, p. 163.

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.

### 3. Ambiguous Errors

Ambiguous errors are those that could be classified equally well as developmental or interlingual errors.<sup>35</sup> 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 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.<sup>36</sup> For example :

She do hungry.

The speaker used neither the native Indonesian structure, nor an L<sub>2</sub> developmental form such as *She hungry* where the auxiliary is omitted altogether. Such an error would go into the Other category.

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<sup>35</sup>Heidi Dulai, New York: Oxford University Press, 1982, p. 172.