CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter covers previous studies, the nature of writing, the process of writing, techniques in writing, writing a paragraph, the structure of paragraph, the element of paragraph, the descriptive paragraph, second language acquisition, the definition of grammar, the definition of grammatical error, the definition of error, the definition of error analysis, errors and mistakes, types of errors based on surface strategy taxonomy, causes of errors

A. The Previous Studies

There were some previous studies those are related to this topic as follow:

Rika Nurhayati Utami (2008) “An Analysis of Grammatical Errors In Writing Descriptive Paragraph Made By The Second semester Students of English Department at University of Muhammadiyah Malang”. The result of her study showed that were 119 errors from 18 compositions in descriptive paragraph by using simple past tense. There were 13 or 10.92% errors of omission, 13 or 10.92% errors of additions, 91 or 76.47% errors of misformations and 2 or 1.68% error of misordering. In other words, the dominant errors made by the students happened in misformation errors.⁹

Nurul Hikmah studied The Common Errors in Writing Paragraph made by the Second Semester Students of English Study Program of STAIN Palangkara

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⁹ Rika Nurhayati Utami, An Analysis of Grammatical Errors In Writing Descriptive Paragraph Made By The Third Semester Students of English Department at University of Muhammadiyah Malang: A Case Study, Malang:, 2008.
Raya 2012/2013 Academic Year. She used Oshima theory in analyzing the data. It was found that the highest errors frequency was capitalization by 36 or 21.68%, and the fewest error frequency was article by 1 or 0.60%. There were also six commons of error on the students’ paragraph writing. Those are capitalization, spelling, wrong word form, word missing, punctuation, and plural.\textsuperscript{10}

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% or total students. The factor of those errors was overgeneralization, mother tongue interference, and translation.\textsuperscript{11}

\textbf{B. The Nature of Writing}

Naturally, language students acquire a language starting from the listening activity. Afterward, they come to the speaking activity. Gradually, they move to the reading activity. When language earners write, they are engaged in an activity, which is usually at the same time both private and public. It is private because the act of composition is by its nature solitary. However, it is also public in that most

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\textsuperscript{11}Ermaya, “Errors in Writing Verbal and Nominal Sentences in Simple Past Tense made by the Tenth year students of MA Hidayatul Insan of Palangka Raya”, \textit{Thesis Stratum One}, Palangka Raya: STAIN Palangka Raya, 2011, p. v.
\end{flushright}
writing is intended for an audience. When language students write, they usually have someone in mind that will read what they wrote. They write notes, diary, memos, reports, and letters to others, here, they also have a purpose to write.

In addition, when language students start to write, they use graphic symbols to express ideas. Graphic symbols can be letters or combination of letters. They also go through a process of creating and recreating a piece of writing until they are able to express ideas clearly. In this sense, writing is a process of arranging the graphic symbols according certain convention or requirement to form words and then words will be produced into a sentence. To prepare to write, some writers make draft, sketch, and cluster related ideas or outlines.

As students write, they put ideas into draft form, they also take breaks to read the draft. They reflect on whether or not their writing reveals their intended meaning. They should also consider the purpose and audience. As they read over the draft, they may cross out paragraphs, sentences, and words. They also rearrange the way they present ideas, and jot down notes about how to revise writing. They continue to write and read and change the draft until they are satisfied with the piece of writing. Dealing with the teaching of writing, Gebhard (2000:221) states:

“The usual things associated with writing are word choice, use of appropriate grammar (such as subject-verb agreement, tense, and article use), syntax (word order), mechanics (e.g., punctuation, spelling, and handwriting), and organization of ideas into a coherence and cohesive form. However, writing also includes a focus on audience and purpose.”

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Based on the definition above, it can be stated that writing is an activity of someone to write something as like notes, diary, memos, reports, letters, etc to others. When language students start to write, they use graphic symbols to express ideas. Graphic symbols can be letters or combination of letters, they put ideas into draft form, and they also take breaks to read the draft from words become sentence.

C. The Process of Writing

Littell (1985:11) divides the process writing into four stages: prewriting. Writing a first draft, revising, and preparing the final composition. In other hand, Alice Oshima and Ana Hague (1999:3) said that there are four main stages in the writing process: planning, writing and revising drafts, and writing the final copy to hand. In addition, Gebhard (2000:226) mentions the four stages of the process writing: prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing.

Following the study, the process writing stages include

1. prewriting (including inventing and planning),
2. whilst writing (including drafting and revising), and
3. Post writing (including editing and proofreading).

In details, the three stages are presented below.

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Prewriting, which is the first stage in writing, deals with a series of strategies designed to find, gather and produce information about a certain topic in writing. According to Christenson (2002:10), prewriting involves everything the writer does before beginning the actual task of writing, including activating background knowledge, generating ideas, and making plans for approaching the writing task.\(^{16}\)

In the prewriting stage, a writer decides the interesting topic. Prewriting covers a wide variety of activities. There are numerous prewriting techniques that the writers can use to generate ideas as they begin to write, namely: listing, clustering, brainstorming, strategic questioning and free writing.

Listing is a prewriting technique in which a writer list down on a paper as many thoughts as he has and as quickly as he can. The ideas or thoughts related to topic that comes out from the mind of the writer are listed and they become the basic source of information for the writing.

These are some procedures to make listing:

1. Write down the general topic at the top of the paper.
2. Then make a list of every idea that comes into your mind that topic. Keep the ideas flowing. Try to stay on the general topic; however, write down information that is completely off the topic, don’t worry about it because it can be crossed out later.
3. Use words, phrases, or sentences, and don’t worry about spelling or grammar.\(^{17}\)

D. Techniques in Writing

\(^{16}\)Jarum and Sabarun, *Laporan Penelitian Dosen Muda Improving Students’ Writing Ability Through Cooperative Learning Strategy at the English Department of University Malang*, p.13.

a) Clustering or word mapping is a prewriting technique of making a visual map of ideas. In clustering, the writers use a key word placed in the center of a page, then, jot down all the free associations. Here, the writers’ associations are clustered together and stem off the central word Gebhard (2000:226). Clustering frees writer from following a strictly linear sequence. It may allow writers to think more creatively and make new associations.

b) Brainstorming is also a good technique to generate ideas and to get information that a writer needs. Smalley, et. al., (2001:4) explain that brainstorming is a sudden insight or connection. Brainstorming is a way to associate and stimulate thinking. It permits writers to approach a topic with an open mind. To brainstorm, a writer can ask others to recall for information of particular topic in order to give the writer plenty of ideas about the topic.

c) Strategic questioning lets the writers consider the topic through a series of question. Here, the writers answer a set of questions designed to guide the writing, such as “what do you want to write about?” “what is your goal?” “what do you need to find out?” here, writer are given chances to consider what they know and need to learn about the writing topic.

d) Free writing is writing freely without stopping, letting thoughts flow without regarding to connection and direction whether an idea makes sense or not. Free writing provides writers with chances to put ideas into writing.

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19 Jarum and Sabarun, Laporan Penelitian Dosen Muda Improving Students’ Writing Ability Through Cooperative Learning Strategy at the English Department of University Malang, p.15.
According to Calderonello and Edwards (1986:25), free writing is perfect strategy for getting started in the most literal sense. Here, a writer can write freely whatever comes to his mind. The writer can write freely, starting with a bank sheet a pen and letting thought flow without worrying about grammar and word choice. It is a way of releasing and stimulating the power of thought and imagination. These some procedures in the free writing:

1. Write the topic at the top of the paper.
2. Write as much as it can be about the topic until you run out of ideas. Include such supporting items as facts, details, and examples that come into mind about the subject.
3. After you have run out of ideas, reread your paper and circle the main idea (s) that you would like to develop.
4. Take that main idea and free write again.

The second stage is whilst writing, which includes drafting and revising. After having generated idea, a writer needs to write the first draft. Mc Crimmon (1984:10) states that drafting is a series of strategies designed to organize and develop a sustained piece of writing.

As they compose. The writer begins to determine what to include and exclude, and make initial decisions about how these ideas will be organized. While writing first draft, the writer should focus on getting meaning down on

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20Ibid, p.16.
22Jarum and Sabarun, Laporan Penelitian Dosen Muda Improving Students’ Writing Ability Through Cooperative Learning Strategy at the English Department of University Malang, p.18.
paper; but they should not be overly concerned with grammatical correctness. In the process of writing, drafting is viewed as an important strategy. Drafting is the core of writing process (Brown, 2001:384).

The next step after drafting is revising. Revising is process of rethinking and changing what is written. In addition, revision is making improvement on the original paper by arranging and reorganizing ideas, rephrasing sentences, deleting and adding completely new material (D’Angelo, 1980:460). In revising, writers rethink and rewrite the first draft forming the second draft. Sometimes ideas are added and sometimes are omitted.

The third stage is the post writing (including editing and writing the final draft). Editing an essay is the last stages in the process of writing. Editing refers to correcting grammatical errors, rewriting misspelled word, and changing punctuation) D’Angelo, 1980:461).

In this stage, the writers are required to proof-read the composition (final draft) for grammatical and sentence structure errors. Here, the writers turn their attention from the major substance of an essay to its conventional features (spelling, capitalization, and punctuation).

In addition, the writers can do proofreading activity individually or in pairs using editing guideline. Proofreading is a unique type of reading in which students

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23Ibid, p.16.
25Jarum and Sabarun, Laporan Penelitian Dosen Muda Improving Students’ Writing Ability Through Cooperative Learning Strategy at the English Department of University Malang, p.13.
26Ibid, P.15.
read slowly, word by word, hunting for error rather reading quickly for meaning. This activity takes place before the final product.

The next step is publishing, which is the time for students to prepare their final composition to be shared with audience, such as classmate, group member, or teachers. Through this stage, the students communicate with genuine audience who respond the writing in meaningful way.  

In the present study, the researcher wants to know do the students’ use those stage during the writing process, because it is important for students to get knowledge and experience from a real writing activity.

E. Writing a Paragraph

A paragraph is a series of sentence developing one topic. Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue stated that “a paragraph is a group of related statements that a writer develops about a subject”. In other hand, Jack C. Richards and Ricard Schmidt stated that “a paragraph is a unit of organization of written language in many languages, which serves to indicate how the ideas in written text are grouped”. Based on the definition above, it can be stated that a paragraph is a group of sentences dealing with a single topic or idea.

There are several kinds of paragraphs; one of them is a descriptive. To write a good descriptive paragraph, a writer should follow some steps. Following Littell (1985:162), there are three steps to write a descriptive paragraph, namely: prewriting, first draft and revision. In pre-writing, a writer selects the general

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27Ibid. P.11.  
topic and narrows it, then, organizes the details using chronological order. In the first draft, a writer refers to the pre-writing notes and uses the transitional words and phrases to help him/her recreate the flow of events. In revision, a writer goes over the rough draft several times. A writer must check the draft: “Are the details logically organized? Do any details need to be added or deleted?”

In contrast, Ezor and Lewis (1984:29) propose five steps for building the paragraph. The first is selecting the topic. The second is writing a general statement (topic sentence) about the topic. The third is jotting down possible details about the topic. The third is developing those details into supporting sentences. The third is reading the whole paragraph and make whatever changes writers feel will improve their writing.

Dealing with the paragraph writing, the first essential step is to select the topic. The second step is to write a topic sentence about the topic and provide details about the topic. The next step is to develop those details into supporting sentence using facts, evidence, example, and so on. The last step is to write the final draft and make whatever changes.

F. The Structure of Paragraph

There are three parts of paragraph, they topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentences:

1. Topic sentence

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30Jarum and Sabarun, Laporan Penelitian Dosen Muda Improving Students’ Writing Ability Through Cooperative Learning Strategy at the English Department of University Malang, p.19.

31Ibid, p.17.
Topic sentence is the most important sentence in a paragraph. Based on Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue, topic sentence has two parts: a topic and controlling idea. The topic names the subject of paragraph. The controlling idea tells what the paragraph will say about the topic. It is called the controlling idea because it controls or limits the topic to a very specific point or points. Here are examples of topic sentences with the same topic but different controlling idea:

a. Some marriages are a union of two individuals.
b. Some marriages take a place in unusual locations.

The position of topic sentence is usually in the first sentence in the paragraph. But can be in the last paragraph also. A topic sentence at the beginning of paragraph gives readers an idea of what they will read. This helps them understand the paragraph easily.

2. Supporting Sentence

Supporting sentences explain the topic by giving more information about it. Based on Regina L. Smalley states that: Support comes from the information you used to arrive at the view you have expressed in your topic sentence. Example:

“Owning a small car has several advantages. First a small car is easier to park. Second economical BBM ”.

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33 ibid, p.74.
The sentence “First a small car is easier to park. Second economical BBM” is called supporting sentence. Because it gives more information about the topic (Owning a small car has several advantages).

3. Concluding Sentence

A concluding sentence is a sentence that reminds the reader about the main idea. Based on Alice Oshima Ana Hogue states that a concluding sentence signals the end of the paragraph and reminds the reader of the main idea.34

There are some steps to write a good concluding sentence, based on Alice Oshima Ann Hogue’s book “Introduction to Academic Writing”, they are:

1. Begin with a conclusion signal. Most conclusion signals have commas after them; others do not:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Followed by a comma</th>
<th>No Comma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. All in all,</td>
<td>1. It is clear that.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. In brief,</td>
<td>2. These examples show that.......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. In conclusion,</td>
<td>3. You can see that.....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Indeed,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. In short,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6. In summary,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. To conclude,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. To summarize,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:
1. To summarize, Japanese food is both beautiful to look at and delicious to eat.
2. Indeed, many U.S cities and regions have a special food for everyone to enjoy.

Example:
1. It is clear that fad diets don’t work and may even damage a dieter’s health.

2. Remind the reader of the main idea by one of the following methods.

34Ibid, p.47.
a. Repeat the idea in the topic sentence in different words. Do not just copy the topic sentence. Example:

“Successful bidding on eBay requires patience and strategy”.

In conclusion, wait patiently and place your bid with precision timing and you will be the winning bidder every time.

b. Summarize the main points of the paragraph.

In conclusion, follow the steps I have outlined, and you will be the winning.

3. Never end the paragraph by introducing a new idea.35

G. The Element of Paragraph

In addition to the paragraph writing, a paragraph should have the elements or the qualities of a good paragraph: Unity, Coherence, Completeness, and order.

1. Unity

Unity means that the ideas of the supporting sentences are all clearly connected to the main idea. In other words, all the details are relevant to the one controlling idea. Unity in a paragraph requires consistent development of the idea that our paragraph intends to explain.

The paragraph as a whole should focus on one idea. The best way to keep the paragraph unified is to be sure of what writers intended to do. One way to make the intention clear is to begin with a topic sentence. By beginning paragraph with a topic sentence writers immediately signal to their readers the main idea that they will develop in that paragraph. All in all, the points that make

related in the writing are called unity of the paragraph. According to Susan Anker states that.

“Unity in writing means that all the points you make are related to your main point; they are unified in support of your main point. As you draft a paragraph or an essay, you may detour from your main point without even being aware of it, as the writer of the following paragraph did with the underlined sentences. The diagram after the paragraph shows what happens when readers read the paragraph.”

2. Coherence.

Coherence means, “Sticking together”. A paragraph is coherent when the sentence are woven together in such a way that our reader can move easily from one sentence to the next and read the paragraph as an integrated whole (Trimmer and Sommer, 1984:20). In other words, coherence is one important thing in writing is connected between one sentence and other. According to Susan Anker states that:

“Coherence in writing means that all of your support connects to form a whole. In other words, even when the points and details are assembled in an order that makes sense, they still need “glue” to connect them. Coherence in writing helps readers see how one point leads to another. Individual ideas should be connected to make a clear whole. A good way to improve coherence is to use transitions”.

It means that to make good paragraph coherence is so needed when we want to write the paragraph.

3. Completeness
Completeness means that writers must provide a complete explanation to make the reader understand. The information writers provide is necessary for a complete explanation of the topic sentence. How much explanation an idea requires depends on how much our reader needs (Trimmer and Sommer, 1984:201).

Here, completeness is relative. It depends on the needs of the reader.\textsuperscript{39}

4. Order

Order deals with the sequence of the sentence within a paragraph. In a well-constructed paragraph the sentences follow a consistent order. Order in paragraph is like organization in an essay. A paragraph that lacks orderly movement will not be coherent, because the reader will not see how the sentences are related, and therefore cannot go easily from one to another.

H. The Descriptive Paragraph

According to sanggam Siahaan and Kisno shinoda : Description is a written English text in which the describes an object. In this text, the object can be a concrete or abstract object. It can be a person, or an animal, or a house, or a camping. It can be about topic. Description is a text containing two components, identification and description by which a writer describes a person, or an animal, or a house, or a camping as his topic.

The identification is to identify the object to describe. The description describes parts, qualities, and characteristics of the parts of the object.\textsuperscript{40} The

\textsuperscript{39} Ibid, p.21.
\textsuperscript{40} Sanggam siahaan & Kisno shinoda, Gebneric Structure, Yogyakarta : Graha Ilmu, 2008, p.89.
The writer tries to suggest in the readers’ mind a picture similar to the picture in his own mind. In description paragraph, the writers are describing the way something look like. Thus, to describe means to show what something looks like. In order to describe something accurately, a writer just look at, observe, or learn the thing carefully and closely.

The descriptive tells how a person, place or thing is perceived by the five sense. Its purpose is to describe and reveal a particular person, place, or thing in detail. Objective description reports the sensory qualities factually whereas subjective description gives the writers’ interpretation of them. A description is a verbal picture of person, a place or object. Description evokes images and impression. It can allow a reader to experience something new, it can renew a readers’ appreciation of the familiar.

A description is a type of writing in which the ideas are arranged on the basis of spaces or location, such as in the description of a person, a landscape, a building, and so on. A good descriptive makes the reader see, hear as otherwise experience something. When we describe something, we try to give the reader a mental picture of it. To create mental picture, we often describe features connected with the five senses. Description can be found in almost any kind of writing, but it is frequently found in books of travel, history books, guide books, geography books, scientific articles, and so on.41

The following are useful adjectives for descriptive writing:

For sight

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41 Sabarun, paragraph writing II, 2008, p.13-14
Size: big, small, medium-size, huge, tiny, gigantic, tall, thick, etc.

Shape: round, square, triangular, rectangular, conical, oval, linear, dotted.

Color: red, white, brown, blue, green, orange, pink, violet, gold, silver, etc.

For other senses

Sound: loud, soft, harmonious, harsh, pleasant, unpleasant, groan.

Touch: sweet, sour, salty, bitter, delicious, tasty, tasteless, cool, warm.

Smell: strong, fragrant, scented, sharp, hard.

The description of a person

Describing a person is different from describing a place or thing. The writer’s purpose is to capture the essence of a person by going beyond physical characteristics. The important parts of a description of a person appearance, background, personality, activities, and interests. Here, we present a physical description that reveal inner qualities as well. A description of a person may almost make the readers think that they know that person. When we are describing a person, progressive arrangement is often the most useful. We can move from the most to least telling feature, or move from least to most, and progressively to the next important feature. The following are some useful words and phrases to describe a person:

Facial expressions:
Scowl, frown, smirk, worried, pained, vivacious, and peaceful.

Facial shapes:
Round, broad, narrow, hearth-shaped, moon-shaped, angular, oval.

Eyes:
Beady, smiling, snapping, flashing, empty, staring, bulging.

Voice;
Booming, rasping, squeaky, harsh, growing, deep, melodies.

Mouth:
Full-lipped, thin-lipped, sensuous.

Eyebrows:
Thick, airhead, neatly plucked.

Other expression;
Crow’s feet, knitted brow, protruding forehead.

The description of place

When we describe a place, we first focus a specific area, which may be large or small. The description must be organized that the reader can vividly imagine the place being described, a good description of a place can make a reader feel that he is present at the place.

Example;

_I want to tell about my classroom._

My classroom is next to the school library. It is big and clean classroom. It has two while doors and six brown windows. The walls are green and there are some pictures on them. There are twenty tables and forty chairs.

The following are useful words and phrases for describing a place:

Position;
Above, below, top, bottom, left, right, to, in, in the distance, in front of, to the left.
Direction:
North, south, east, west, northern, southern, western, eastern, southeast, northwest, southwest.

Distance:
Upper, lower, middle, center, border edge, near, nearby, adjacent, facing, close to.

A descriptive text has two main parts:

Identification
This part identifies a particular thing to be described.

Description
This part describes the parts and characteristics.

Language focus of descriptive text:

4. Using noun they are found of description: someone, and the parts of someone: jacket and T-shirt.
5. Using adjective and compound noun adjective (attractive and well-dressed).
6. Using verb (the verb usually used in a description are “have, has” and “to be) am, is, are. The tense is the simple present tense).

The example of a descriptive paragraph:

Our car that already lives with my family for more than five years until now is quite lovely. It is a bag and healthy cat. Its’ two front legs with big ankles always give him genteel soundless steps where ever it goes or jumps. The other two legs it has behind have slimier and round ankles reflect its’ big power to support its’ body, or to depend its’ body.

From easy rolling, or to do a sudden run or jump. It has a big and long body. Its’ chest is wide and its back is adjustable to from it’s’ body.

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42 Ibid, p.14-15
formation it likes when it stands, or walks, or sits, or lays. It has looks very suspension able. Its’ head is very handsome. It has two nice ears, which always make some patterns of shake indicating its awareness to its surrounding. The two eyes on his face are beautiful. At night the shine reflection from the two eyes look like a pair of ex ray searching for a certain object. It has a long tail. It is moveable. Every move it makes give signals of its sensitivity to its surrounding. Everybody who visits us home and happens to see our car says that it is a charming cat.  

I. Second Language Acquisition

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language. The additional language is called a second language (L2), even though it may actually be the third, fourth, or tenth to be acquired. It is also commonly called a target language (TL), which refers to any language that is the aim or goal of learning. Second language acquisition (SLA) The learning of another language after the first language has been learned. The use of this term does not differentiate among learning situations.

Second language acquisition or second language learning is the process by which people learn a second language. Second language acquisition (often abbreviated to SLA) also refers to the scientific discipline devoted to studying that process. Second language refers to any language learned in addition to a person's

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43 Siahaan Sanggam, *The Enlish Paragraph: Graha ilmu*, Pemantangsiantar, 2007, p.120


In general, SLA refers to the process of learning another language after the native language has been learned. Sometimes the term refers to the learning of a third or fourth language. The important aspect is that SLA refers to the learning of a nonnative language after the learning of the native language. The second language is commonly referred to as the L2. As with the phrase “second language,” L2 can refer to any language learned after learning the L1, regardless of whether it is the second, third, fourth, or fifth language. By this term, we mean both the acquisition of a second language in a classroom situation, as well as in more “natural” exposure situations. The word acquisition is used broadly in the sense that talk about language use (sometimes independently from actual acquisition). Some might prefer the term Second Language Studies (SLS) as it is a term that refers to anything dealing with using or acquiring a second or foreign language.\footnote{Susan M. Gass and Larry Selinker. Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course (Third Edition). Taylor & Francis. New York and London. 2008. p. 7}

**J. The Definition of Grammar**

Grammar is a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce
sentences in the language. It usually takes into account the meanings and functions these sentences have in the overall system of the language. It may or may.⁴⁹ “They walk to school”, could be a grammatical sentence according to a grammar of Standard English, but the sentence: “They walks to school” would be considered ungrammatical according to such a grammar.

K. The Definition of Grammatical Error

In generative grammar a sentence is grammatical if it follows the rules of a native speaker’s competence. For example: The teacher who the man who the children saw pointed out is a cousin of Joan’s would be a grammatical sentence because it can be generated by the rules of the grammar. However, it could be regarded as unacceptable because of its involved structure which makes it difficult for a listener to understand easily. Grammatical errors are caused by lack of knowledge in linguistic structure. Therefore, grammar deals with the structure of language. Jasperson states on Huda’s thesis that: Language consists of words, but the way in which these words modified and joined together to express thought and feeling differs from one language to another. The students tend to face difficulties in learning the correct usage of grammar when they have acquired incorrect forms and structures at the beginning. Therefore, it is necessary for students to learn the correct grammar at the beginning of the process of learning foreign language. Further Kurniawan states on Huda’s thesis also that: Grammatical errors are

problems in the form of part of speech regardless of the inflection word. It occurred when preposition, tenses, determiner, agreement, pronoun, word order, incomplete structure, or negative construction were omitted or misused. Further Mardijono states that: Grammatical errors are the problems in sentences or speech or writing that are evaluated according to its conforming go to grammatical rules.\textsuperscript{50}

Based on the definitions above, grammatical errors are the problems in sentences or speech or writing that occurred when preposition, tenses, determiner, agreement, pronoun, word order, incomplete structure, or negative construction were omitted and misused.

K. The Definition of Error

There are some definitions of errors as stated by some linguists. Dulay says errors are flawed side of learner speech or writing, they are those parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected forms of mature language performance.\textsuperscript{51} Corder defines error as language’s mistake that arise because learner’s break the language’s rule (breaches of code).\textsuperscript{52} Schuman and Stenson stated that errors are due to the rule deviance of target language in language learning.\textsuperscript{53}

\textsuperscript{50}Hj. Siti Nurul Huda, Grammatical Problems in Students' Report Text (The Case of The Eleventh Year Student of MA Muslimat NU of Palangka Raya), p. 19.
\textsuperscript{51}Heidi Dulay, Language Two, p. 277.
\textsuperscript{52}Nurhadi and Roekhan, Dimensi-Dimensi dalam Belajar bahasa kedua, Bandung: Sinar Baru, 1990, p. 56.
Based on the definition above, it can be conclude that errors are the deviations which occur in language learning because the students make deviation rules of target language. The deviations are in speech and writing.

**L. The Definition of Error Analysis**

The nature of humans’ learning process fundamentally is a process that involve error before it formed into something right. This is the important aspect of information acquisition. The definition of error can be seen through the classification of errors. The classification is very important to explain the errors in error analysis. Richards says that errors result from incomplete learning and knowledge of learners about target language system.\(^{54}\)

Norrish says that error is systematic deviation from the accepted system of the target language. Mistake is non-systematic deviation from the accepted system of a language being learned and it usually due to human limitation such as tiredness, nervousness, and fatigue.\(^{55}\) It means that errors may occure because of human factor in mastering the target language such as the limitation of memory, psychological problem and do not understand about the material of subject. In another side, the learners never recognize their errors or they never know that they have made errors.

Learning sometimes needs a process in which the success will come by profiting from their errors. From those opinions above, it can be concluded that error is a deviation that is made by the learners because they do not understand the

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\(^{54}\)Jack C. Richards, *A Non-contrastive Approach to Error Analysis*, San Fransisco, 1985, p. 96

rules of the second language and can not be corrected by themselves while they are learning.

While the diminishing of errors is an important criterion for increasing language proficiency, the ultimate goals of second language learning is the attainment of communicative fluency in a language. Error analysis is used to analyze and classify the learners’ error from which the learners learning problem can be inferred.

Brown says that the errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of study of learners’ errors, called error analysis.\textsuperscript{56}

Corder says that error analysis is the study analysis of the errors made by the second of foreign language learners to the predict the errors or the difficulties in learning foreign language.\textsuperscript{57} Error analysis may be carried out in order to:

1) Find out how well someone learns a language.

2) Find out how well someone knows language, and

3) Obtain information on common difficulties in language learning.

\textbf{1. Errors and Mistakes}

When talking about error, it 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

\textsuperscript{56}Douglas H. Brown, \textit{Principles of Language Learning and Teaching Fourth Edition}, p. 218

\textsuperscript{57}S.P Corder, \textit{Error Analysis And Inter Language}. London: Oxford University Press. 1981.
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 corrected by themselves if they are more aware of the target language system. In the table, we can see the differences between error and mistake.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Error</th>
<th>Mistake</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source</td>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristic</td>
<td>Systematic</td>
<td>Non systematic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>Long</td>
<td>Temporary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic System</td>
<td>Unmastered</td>
<td>Mastered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>Deviation</td>
<td>Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remedial</td>
<td>Corrected by the</td>
<td>Corrected by the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>teacher through</td>
<td>students’ itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>remedial</td>
<td>through</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>concentration.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the contrary, errors are produced by the students who do not known 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.
M. Types of Errors

The types of errors in this study is 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 disorder them.*

1. Omission

These types of error are characterized be 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, adjectives, adverbs. For example, in the sentence

For example: He my teacher. (Incorrect)

Revise: He is my teacher. (Correct)

2. Addition

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

He does not knows my name. (Incorrect)

He does not know my name. (Correct)

There are three kinds of addition of errors: double marking, regularization and sample addition.

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58 Heidi Dulay et al, *Language Two*, p. 150-162
59 *Ibid*, p. 154
60 *Ibid*, p. 156
a) **Double marking**

An error in which a concept is expressed twice when the language requires its expression only one. Double marking means the failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistics construction. Two items rather than one are marked for the same feature. 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 tense form for both auxiliary and verb often place the marker on both.

For example:

We did not went to the beach last week. (incorrect)

We did not go to the beach last week. (correct).

b) **Regularization**

The students tend to apply the regular rules to the regular ones. Regularization is applying the rules used to produce the regular ones to those that are irregular. 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 *go* does not become *goed*, but *went*.

The noun *child* does not become *childs*, but *children*.

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. For example in forming the verb of past tense:

- sing  - singed
- write - writed
- bring - bringed

c) **Simple Addition**

Simple addition errors are the presence of an item which should not appear in a well-formed utterance. Simple addition errors are the ”grab bag” subcategory of additions. If an addition error is not a double marking or regularization, it is called a simple addition. No particular features characterize simple additions other than those that characterize all addition errors.

For examples:

The birds doesn’t live in the water. (incorrect)

The birds don’t live in the water. (correct)

We stay in over there. (incorrect)

We stay over there. (correct)

3. **Misformation**

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure.

a) **Regularization Errors**

Regularization errors that fall under the misformation category are those in which a regular marker is used in place of an irregular one.

For example:
He bringed the book yesterday. (incorrect)
He brought the book yesterday. (correct).

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 Form

The student exchanges the form freely (that for those, he for she, saw for seen, etc).

  e.g.: - That dogs eat meat
        - Those cat eat fish
        - I seen her yesterday

4. Misordering

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or a group of morpheme in an utterance. For example: what your uncle is buying. The correct sentence is what is your uncle buying?

N. Causes of Errors
The causes of learner's errors sometimes are easy to identify. On the contrary, it was confusing because the teacher has already explained more but the learners still make the same errors. They are some of the causes of errors.

1. **Interlingual Error**

   Interlingual errors are caused by the students’ mother tongue. According to Heidi Dulay, interlingual error, as defined here, simply refer to second language errors that reflect native language structure, regardless of the internal processes or external conditions that spawned them. And interlingual errors are similar in structure to a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner’s native language. In this error, the learners make errors because they transfer the rule of first language into the second language. For examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kemaren saye pergi ke pasar</td>
<td>yesterday I go to Market (incorrect)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   It should be: “I went to market Yesterday”.

   From example above, the students may make errors in forming the verb because in Indonesian sentences, all verbs do not change for each pronoun, then in Indonesia there are no tenses as in English.

2. **Intralingual Error**

   Intralingual error is errors made by the learners’ cause of the feature of L2 itself. Errors of this are natures are frequent regardless of the learner’s language background. They are found within the structure of English itself and through
reference to the strategy by which a second language is acquired and taught. Richard defined that intralingual errors are caused by.  

a. **Over-generalization**

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. Thus, the learner may produce: *did you visited her last week?* He gives several reasons only a few of which were valid.

The learner also often mixes the rules learned previously with the present rules taught. The learner over learns of structure, which many patterns interfere with each other. For example: *the man who wears glasses walks with he is walking.* Then *man who wears glasses sings with he can sing.* Then the learner produces *he is walks and he can sings.*

b. **Ignorance of Rules 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 contact where they do not apply. The examples of this type are:

*The man who I saw, mother ask him to tell the truth.* Some of these types of errors are as a result of false analogy, especially in using preposition. The learner who uses a particular preposition with one type of verb will use the same preposition with similar verbs. For example:

- She said to me may create *She asked to me.*

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They talked about it leads to *They discussed about it.

Ask him to do it produces *Make him to do it.

c. **Incomplete Application of Rules**

It happens due to life deviation of structure that neglects the development of rules to produce the acceptable sentence. For example: in teaching foreign language, teacher often uses question as a teaching device to get the learner's responses. The learners' incomplete knowledge of the target.

Language makes them neglect the rules of the target language in answering or giving responses to the teacher's questions. Some examples are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher's questions</th>
<th>Student's response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you know her name?</td>
<td>Yes, I know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask him how much it costs</td>
<td>How much it cost?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d. **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 am, is are the sign of present activities and was, were, are the sign of past activities. As the result the learner may produce sentences as like,

- He is comes here,
• I am study English every day,

• They were played football yesterday.