

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter covers the previous studies, the nature of narrative text, the types of narrative text, time order, the main aspect used in writing narrative text, example of narrative text, the text analysis, second language acquisition, definition of error, type of error, and error analysis.

#### A. Previous Studies

There were some studies those are concerned about error analysis previously. The studies were identifying the error of the students in a specific focus. Those are:

Ajah Saputra studied error in using adjective clause. His study took place in SMAN 1 Cempaga in year 2011. He found that the students' highest error frequency was misordering 80, 95 % of total students. And the fewest error was addition 1,90% of total students.<sup>1</sup> The differences of this research with the writer research are placed on the subject and the object of the research. The similarities is Ajah's research used Dulay's theory to describe type of errors.

Sarip Hidayat studied error in writing narrative text" (A Case Study At Aliyah Al-basya'riah Bandung). He identified kinds of error made by students when writing narrative text and he identified the factors why the

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<sup>1</sup>Ajah Saputra, "Error in Using Adjective Clause", *Thesis Stratum One*, STAIN Palangkaraya, 2011.

students made errors when writing narrative text. The results of his research showed that based on the surface strategy taxonomy, the students tended to make errors in the form of misformation (376 errors = 55.86%), in the form of omission (207 errors = 30.75%), in the form of addition (73 errors = 10.84%) and the students tended to make error in the form of misordering (17 errors = 2.52%) out of total errors (673 errors). There are reasons why they made errors because the student lacked English grammatical rules mastery and different language rules between Indonesian and English languages.<sup>2</sup> The differences of this research with the writer research are placed on the subject and the object of the research. The similarities is Sarip's research used Dulay's theory to describe type of errors, he also used quantitative approach.

Tazkiyatun Nafs El-Hawa studied An analysis of using transitional signals on expository essay constructed by fourth semester students of English study program of STAIN Palangka Raya academic year 2012/2013. The study was aimed at analyzing the students' texts and the kinds of errors related with transitional signals in writing the expository essays. There were 13 texts produced by the students. There were 6 types of transitional signals used by the students in writing expository essays. They were transitional signals (1) to introduce an example, such as: *especially, for example, for instance, in this case, one example of this is, to illustrate, for last example*; (2) to contrast or compare, such as: *however, different from, but, on the other hand* ; (3) to indicate time, such as: *then*; (4) to indicate sequence or order, such as: *the first, second, the next, first,*

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<sup>2</sup>Sarip Hidayat, "Analyzing Students' Error in Writing Narrative Text (A Case Study At Alyah Albasyariyah Bandung)", 2007.

*second, finally, third, first of all, finally, fourth, the fifth, and the last;* (5) to introduce an additional idea, such as: *and then, and, also, afterwards, in additional;* (6) to summarize or conclude, such as: *in summary, to conclude, in conclusion.* She found some errors produced by the students' in the expository essay texts, such as: redundancy, wrong word, missing word, capitalization, fragment, punctuation, run-on, and spelling. The errors indicated there was a language transfer from L1 to L2 when the students wrote an essay. According to the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis, L2 learners' productive and receptive skills are influenced by their L1 patterns and that similarities and differences between L1 and L2 are important predictors of ease and difficulty of L2 learning. If a structure in the first language is similar to a structure in the second language, there will be no errors because a "positive transfer" will occur. If a structure in the second language is different from or does not exist in the first language, errors will occur because of "negative transfer."<sup>3</sup> The differences of this research with the writer research are placed on the subject and the object of the research, the research emphasizes on the use of transitional signals and the kinds of errors related with transitional signals made by the students in writing expository essays written by the fourth semester students of English study program of STAIN Palangka Raya academic year 2012/2013.

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<sup>3</sup> Tazkiyatun Nafh El-Hawa, "An Analysis of Using Transitional Signals on Expository Essay Constructed by Fourth Semester Students of English Study Program of STAIN Palangka Raya Academic Year 2012/2013", *Thesis Stratum One*, STAIN Palangkaraya, 2013.

## B. The Nature of Narrative Text

Narrative text is a kind of text that tells a story. Alice said that narration is story writing; it is a kind of writing which report events in order that they happened.<sup>4</sup> Narrative is conversation or writing with the purpose tells about action or human experience based on the development of time. Then according to Keraf, he states that “Narrative as a story tells or describes an action in the past time clearly, so narrative is tried to answer the question: what had happened?”<sup>5</sup>

Narrative is as a story, so it should have the element that makes the story more interesting to the reader such as a conflict and conclusion of the story. Barbara states that narrative involved relating events in chronological order from the first event that happened to the last event that happened.<sup>6</sup> Furaidah *et al* state that narrative paragraph might be a present story it is about a typical events or experience with take place repeatedly, as a habit or individuals or groups of society such as our daily activities, or a past one such as our unforgettable experience and all other events happening in the past.<sup>7</sup>

The story is to educate or inform about the experience of the writer. In the other case, the experience of someone else is more importance to develop the imagination of the reader. The writer can write whatever their narrative

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<sup>4</sup>Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue, *Introduction to Academic Writing*, p.24.

<sup>5</sup>Gorys Keraf, *Argumentasi dan Narasi*, Jakarta: PT. Gramadia, 1987, p. 136.

<sup>6</sup>Barbara Harris Leonhard, *Discoveries in Academic Writing*, Colombia: University of Missouri, 2002, p. 132.

<sup>7</sup>Furaidah, Utami Widiati, Rahayu Dwi Riyanti, Darminah, and M. Adnan Latif, *Advanced Writing*, p. 1.26.

experience even it is their present or past story to the reader. Here they can share their experience with audience freely.

### C. The Types of Narrative Text

Narration tells a story about a series of events or actions. The events may be real or nonfiction as in histories, biographies, and newspaper stories or imagery or fiction, as in short stories, novels and plays.<sup>8</sup>

There are many types of narrative. They can be imaginary, factual or a combination of both. They may include [fairy stories](#), [mysteries](#), [science fiction](#), [romances](#), [horror stories](#), [adventure stories](#), [fables](#), [myths and legends](#), [historical narratives](#), [ballads](#), [slice of life](#), [personal experience](#).<sup>9</sup>

### D. Time Order

The series of events in narration are generally arranged by time order or chronological order. This means that the story begins with what happened first, then moves on to what happened next and ends with what happened last.<sup>10</sup> For example, we want to tell about our terrible day. We would probably have a series of events to tell, such as:

- 1) I came to school late

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<sup>8</sup>*Ibid.*,

<sup>9</sup>Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia, *Text Type*, <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Texttypes>, (Online), ( Accessed on July, 16th 2013)

<sup>10</sup>Furaidah Utami Widiati, Rahayu Dwi Riyanti, Darminah, and M. Adnan Latif, *Advanced Writing*. p.1.26.

- 2) I got up late.
- 3) I didn't have any breakfast.
- 4) I took a bath hurriedly.
- 5) I missed my first class because my teacher did not let me in.
- 6) After school, I went home and took a nap.
- 7) I broke my leg while playing football.
- 8) When I just started my nap my friends came and instead on playing football.

The series events above are not yet arranged in chronological order, so that we need to arrange them chronologically, or based on logical time sequence, as follows:

- 1) I got up late.
- 2) I took a bath hurriedly.
- 3) I didn't have any breakfast.
- 4) I came to school late
- 5) I missed my first class because my teacher did not let me in.
- 6) After school, I went home and took a nap.
- 7) When I just started my nap my friends came and instead on playing football.
- 8) I broke my leg while playing football.

Based on the above chronological order of events, we might write narrative paragraph, for example, like this:

I have a terrible day today. I got up late and I had to hurry. Then I rushed to the bathroom, I took a bath hurriedly. Although I was hungry I didn't have any breakfast and then left for school. Unluckily, anyhow; I came to school late and missed my first class because my teacher did not let me in. After school, I went home and took a nap. When I just started my nap my friends came and instead of playing football. And I broke my leg during the match.

#### **E. The Main Aspect Used in Writing Narrative Text**

A paragraph should be coherent and unified. Therefore, when writing a narrative paragraph, we should consider several things that can help make the paragraph coherent and unified. For this purpose, Furaidah *et al* states that there are three things we need to write a narrative text. *First of all*, using time relationship between sentence and ideas, because present narration tells a story or describe a sequence of events. *Second*, using adverb of frequency, especially narrative paragraph about sequence of events or experiences that happen repeatedly. And the *third*, using tenses to organize time order.<sup>11</sup>

The details of main aspect that needed to take into account we write narrative text are:

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<sup>11</sup>*Ibid.*, p.1.30.

## 1. Present Narrative

### a. The use of Transitional signals

Transitional signals are connecting words or phrases that act like bridges between parts of the writing. It link the sentences and paragraphs together smoothly so that there are no abrupt jumps or breaks between ideas. Transition signals act like sign post so indicate to the reader the order and flow of the writing and ideas. It streng then the internal cohesion of your writing.Using transitions makes it easier for the reader to follow the ideas. It help carry over althught from one sentence to another, from one paragraph to another,orfrom one idea to another.<sup>12</sup> In this case the present narrative use signal words that indicate time and sequence. Here is the following signal word that used in writing narrative paragraph:

#### 1) To indicate Time Expression

The following words are commonly used when expressing thoughts in chronological order. This expression will help us express the events in our narration in logical order of time.

#### a) To illustrate Time Sequence

At the beginning of the story, we can use:

*At the beginning*

*At first*

*At the start*

*First of all*

*First*

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<sup>12</sup>Jollee.*The Writing Centre SOC and Effective Writing Programs Students Development Centre*,p.1-3.

For example: *First of all*, we spent a few days in Bali.

In the middle of the story, we can use:

<i>Second, third, and so on</i>	<i>Next</i>
<i>Following</i>	<i>Then</i>
<i>Meanwhile</i>	<i>Afterwards</i>

For example: *Then* we drove down to the Lombok for a week.

At the end of the story, we can use:

Last	At Last
Finally	Eventually
In conclusion	

For example: *Finally*, we went back to Jakarta to visit our grandfather.

b) To illustrate Time Relationship

<i>At the same time</i>	<i>When, while</i>
<i>During</i>	<i>As</i>
<i>As soon as</i>	<i>Before</i>
<i>After</i>	<i>Afterward, after that</i>
<i>Until</i>	<i>The minute that</i>

The expressions illustrating time relationships above are used in sub-clauses of complex sentence. When the sub clause is at the beginning of the sentence, it is separated by comma from the main clause. When it is at the end of the

sentence, there is no comma separating it from the main clause.

For example:

a) *Before the show was over, I went home. (Sub-clause at the beginning)*

b) *I went home before the show was over. (Sub-clause at the end)*

## 2) Language Points to Point Out Specific Moments in Time

To indicate points of time, we use prepositional phrases of time:

On + date (e.g. on April 21, 1997)

On + day of the week (e.g. on Monday)

At + exact moment in time (e.g. at 5.30 AM)

At + noon, night, or midnight

In + year (e.g. in 1997)

In + month (e.g. in January)

In + parts of day (e.g. in the morning, in the afternoon, or in the evening)

In + season (e.g. in the winter, summer, fall, or spring)

In + period of time (e.g. in the first semester, etc.)

By + time ( e.g. by nine o'clock)

Before + time (e.g. before nine o'clock)

After + time ( e.g. after two PM,).

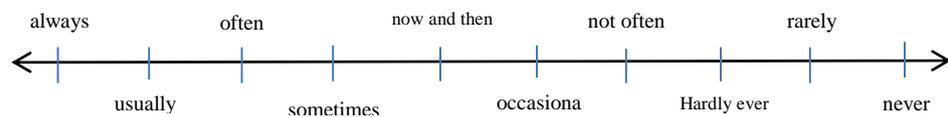
Before + noun (e.g. before the game)

After + noun (e.g. after an hour)

During + noun ( e.g. during the presentation)<sup>13</sup>

## b. Adverbs of Frequency

Adverbs of frequency tell how often something is done and how often someone does something.



Single-word adverbs of frequency include:

*Always*      *usually*      *frequently*      *sometimes*      *rarely*  
*Ever*      *generally*      *often*      *occasionally*      *seldom*  
*Almost never*      *never*

The place of these adverbs in a sentence is described as follows:

1) In affirmative statements with be: they go after the verb be.

For example: *He is usually out of bed and dressed by 5.30.*

2) In affirmative statements with full verb: they come before the verb.

For example: *She generally puts her youngest child on her back.*

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<sup>13</sup>Furaidah Utami Widiati, Rahayu Dwi Riyanti, Darminah, and M. Adnan Latif, *Advanced Writing*, p. 1.30-1.31.

3) In negative statements:

- a) The adverb always must follow the negative auxiliary.

For example: *I do not always have breakfast before going to school.*

- b) The adverbs frequently, sometimes, and occasionally must come before the negative auxiliary.

For example: *We sometimes are not ready to come on time.*

- c) The adverb usually, generally, and often can be placed either before or after the negative auxiliary but the sentence has slightly different meaning.

For example: *He usually doesn't take a nap.*

*He doesn't usually take a nap.*

- d) In questions: they follow the subject.

For example: *Are you often sleepy in class?*

*Does she always get the best mark in English?*

- e) For emphasis or variety: Adverb of frequency other than always may be placed at the beginning or at the end of a sentence.

For example: *Sometimes I miss my childhood.*

*I watch the news in the morning occasionally.*<sup>14</sup>

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<sup>14</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 1.32-1.33

### c. Verb Tenses Used

Present narration mostly uses simple present tense. Although, in fact, simple present tense predominates present narration, present progressive tense is also used occasionally.

- 1) The simple present tense is used to describe repeated, habitual, or characteristic actions. The adverbs of frequency, not always present thought, will help by signaling the use of this tense.

For example: *Cigarettes contain an addicting substance.*

- 2) Some verb which belong to stative verb, are always used in the simple present form never in present progressive, when they are not describing the past. These verbs do not describe any actions but relate sensory perceptions, conditions, judgments, conclusions, emotional states, or state of being. Some examples are the words sound appear, think, understand, be, etc.

For example: *He never understands my position.*

*The experiment sound promoting.*

- 3) A few verbs are used in the simple present tense even though they describe future actions. Luckily, not many verbs belong to this group. These verbs generally describe acts of arriving and departing, and beginning and ending.

For example:

*The train leaves for Jakarta in two hours, and it arrives there ten hours later.*

*The show begins in a few minutes and ends two hours later.*

- 4) The present progressive is used to describe a single action that is in progress at the moment of speaking or writing.

For example: *The participants are listening seriously to the speaker's argument.*

- 5) The present progressive might also be used to describe an action in progress over a long period of time, though not necessarily takes at the moment of speaking or writing.

For example: *Susi is attending Indonesian University. (She is not necessarily at campus at the moment of speaking or writing).*

- 6) The present progressive can be used to express a future action, especially when that action is in the near future. Usually the use of adverbials of time is needed to clarify that this tense is suggesting future time.

For example: *Next week I am going abroad.*

- 7) The present progressive can also express the beginning, progression, or end of an action in the present time.

For example: *He is beginning to be absent minded.*

*The weather is getting hot*

*The strike is ending at last.*<sup>15</sup>

## 2. Past Narrative

Past Narration is similar to present narration in that they both describe a series of event chronologically. So, just as present narration, past narration also frequently needs the use of different kinds of time expressions. On the other hand, unlike present narration, that often uses adverbials of frequency, past narration hardly does. And the main difference between them is in the time of the event to take place. Consequently, they differ mainly in the tenses used.

While present narration mostly uses simple present and present progressive tense, past narration uses simple past, past progressive, and past perfect tense. Although these tenses are not the only tenses which might appear in past narration, they are the most dominant ones.

- a. Use simple past tense to describe an action or an event which occurred at a definite moment in the past.

Example: *In that expedition, we arrived at the forest early in the morning.*

- b. Use past progressive tense to describe an action or an event which began and continued over a period of time in the past-in progress.

Example: *Every body was sleeping that night.*

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<sup>15</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 1.33-1.34.

- c. To describe two definite actions or events happening simultaneously in the past, combine the two simple past sentences into a complex sentence using subordinator when.

Example: *I went to the drugstore when she arrived.*

- d. To describe a definite event and a continuous event happening simultaneously, combine simple past sentence and past progressive sentence into a complex sentence using subordinate when or while.

Example: *I was still crying when my mother arrived.*

*While I was crying, my mother arrived.*

- e. To describe two continuous events happening simultaneously, combine the two past progressive sentences into one complex sentence using subordinator when or while. For example:

*While I was doing the homework, my roommate was sleeping.*

*When I was doing the homework, my roommate was sleeping.*

- f. To describe two events happening successively in the past, we can use:

- 1) Two simple past sentences combined into a complex sentence using prepositional of time after, before, and the like.

Example: *After we put on our hiking boots, we set off down the trail.*

- 2) Past perfect tense, for the earlier events, combined with simple past tense, for the later event, to form a complex sentence using subordinator when.

Example: *It had just begun to rain when we got out of the car.*<sup>16</sup>

## **F. Example of Narrative Text**

### **Earthquake!**

An unforgettable experience in my life was a magnitude 6.9 earthquake. I was at home with my older sister and younger brother. Suddenly, our apartment started shaking. At first, none of us realized what was happening. Then my sister yelled, “Earthquake! Get under something!” I half rolled and half crawled across the room to get under dining table. My sister also yelled at my little brother to get under his desk. Meanwhile, my sister was on the kitchen floor holding her arms over her head to protect it from falling dishes. The earthquake lasted less than a minute, but it seemed like a year to us. At last the shaking stopped. For a minute or two, we were too scared to move. Then we tried to call our parents at work, but even our cell phone didn’t work. Next, we checked the apartment for damage. We felt very lucky for nothing was broken except a few dishes. However, our first earthquake was an experience that none of us will ever forget.<sup>17</sup>

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<sup>16</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 1.35-1.36

<sup>17</sup>Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue, *Introduction to Academic Writing*, p.24.

## G. The Text Analysis

The writer tries to analyze the main aspect that used in narrative text above.

**Table 2.1**

### **The Analysis of main aspect used in narrative text**

Main Aspect	Examples
Using time relationship between sentence and ideas, include language points for time expression and points to specific moments in time	At first, then, at last, next, however, for a minute or two, meanwhile
Using adverb of frequency.	-
Verb tenses use.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. An unforgettable experience in my life was a magnitude 6.9 earthquake. (Simple past tense)</li><li>2. I was at home with my older sister and younger brother. (Simple past tense)</li><li>3. Suddenly, our apartment started shaking. (Past progressive tense)</li><li>4. At first, none of us realized what</li></ol>

	<p>was happening. (simple past tense)</p> <p>5. Then my sister yelled. (simple past tense)</p> <p>6. I half rolled and half crawled across the room to get under dining table.(simple past tense)</p> <p>7. My sister also yelled at my little brother to get under his desk.(simple past tense)</p> <p>8. My sister was on the kitchen floor holding her arms over her head to protect it from falling dishes. (Past progressive tense)</p> <p>9. The earthquake lasted less than a minute.(simple past tense)</p> <p>10. But it seemed like a year to us.(simple past tense)</p> <p>11. At last the shaking stopped. (simple past tense)</p> <p>12. For a minute or two, we were too scared to move. (simple past tense)</p> <p>13. Then we tried to call our parents at work, but even our cell phone didn't</p>
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	<p>work. (simple past tense)</p> <p>14. Next, we checked the apartment for damage. (simple past tense)</p> <p>15. We felt very lucky for nothing was broken except a few dishes. (simple past tense)</p>
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## H. 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 the aim or goal of learning.<sup>18</sup> To understanding how the learner's cognitive and affective processes relate to linguistic system and to formulate an integrated understanding of the process of second language acquisition we can try to identify sources the error. The sources and causes of error are:

### 1. Interlingual Transfer: Mother-Tongue Interference

Interlingual transfer is a significant source of error for all learners. The beginning stages of learning a second language are especially vulnerable to interlingual transfer from the native language, or

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<sup>18</sup> Saville Muriel, *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006, p. 2.

interference. In these early stages, before the system of the second language is familiar, the native language is the only previous linguistic system upon which the learner can draw. We have all heard English learner say “*sheep*” for “*ship*”, or “*the book of Jack*” instead of “*Jack’s book*”. All these errors are attributable to negative interlingual transfer. While it is not always clear that an error is the result of transfer from the native language, many such error are detectable in learner speech.

Interlingual transfer or interlanguage is the kind of language that has aspects that are borrowed, transferred, and generalized from the mother tongue and the target language (TL).

## 2. Intralingual Transfer: Target Language Causes

One of the major contributions of learner language research has been its recognition of sources of error that extend beyond interlingual errors in learning a second language. It is now clear that intralingualtransfer (within the target language itself) is a major factor in second language learning. overgeneralization is the negative counterpart of intralingual transfer.

As learners progress in the second language, their previous experience and their exiting subsumes begin to include structures within the target language itself.

Negative intralingual transfer, or overgeneralization, has already been illustrated in such utterances as “*Does John can sing?*” other examples abound-utterances like “*He goed*”, and “*I don’t know what*

*time is it*". The teacher or researcher cannot always be certain of the source of an apparent intralingual error, but repeated systematic observations of a learner's speech data will often remove the ambiguity of a single observation of an error.

### 3. Context of Learning

A third major source of error, although it overlaps both types of transfer, is the context of learning. "Context" refers, for example, to the classroom with its teacher and its material in the case of school learning or the social situation in the case of untutored second language learning.

Students often make errors because of a misleading explanation from the teacher, faulty presentation of a structure or word in a textbook, or even because of a pattern that was rottenly memorized in drill but improperly contextualized. Two vocabulary items presented contiguously, for example, "*point at*" and "*point out*" might in later recall be confused simply because of the contiguity of presentation. Or a teacher may provide incorrect information not an uncommon occurrence by way of a misleading definition, word, or grammatical generalization.

### 4. Communication Strategies

Communication strategies were defined and related to learning styles. Learners obviously use production strategies in order to enhance getting their message across, but at times these techniques can themselves become a source of error. Once an ESL learner said, "Let us work for the well-done of our country". While it exhibited a nice little twist of humor,

the sentence had an incorrect approximation of the word welfare. Likewise, word coinage, circumlocution, false cognates, and prefabricated patterns can all be sources of error.<sup>19</sup>

## I. Definition of Error

By etymology, the term error is defined as: (1) a mistake (2) the state of being wrong. By linguistics terminology, error is an incompetence of language learners to master the system of language [eg. Grammar]. 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.<sup>20</sup> Corder defines error as language's mistake that arise because learner's break the language's rule (breaches of code).<sup>21</sup> Error represents the deviation having the character of *ajek*, systematic, and depicts the interest learner at certain level.<sup>22</sup> Error made when a learners does not master yet the language grammar and language system. While mistake made by learners that have mastered the language grammar and language system.

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<sup>19</sup>Iwan Fauzi, *Error Analysis "The Significance to Language Learners"*, p. 45-53.

<sup>20</sup>Heidi Dulay, Marina Burt, and Stephen Krashen, *Language Two*, p.138.

<sup>21</sup> Nurhadi and Roekhan, *Dimensi-dimensi dalam Belajar Bahasa kedua*, Bandung: sinar Baru, 1990, p. 56.

<sup>22</sup>Suwarna Prindawidagda, *strategi Pembelajaran Bahasa*, Yogyakarta: Adicita Karya Nusa, 2002, p.161.

There are six points of the differentiation of mistake and error:

**Table 2.2**

**The Differences between Error and Mistakes**

No	Point of view	Mistake	Error
1	Source	Performance	Competence
2	Characteristic	Unsystematic	Systematic
3	Duration	Temporary	Long Period
4	Linguistic system	Mastered	Not mastered yet
5	Result	Deviation	Deviation
6	Improvement	Corrected by the students' him/her self through concentration	Corrected by the teacher through training, remedial teaching. <sup>23</sup>

**J. Type of Error**

The classification of error types base on surface strategy taxonomy are:

**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

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<sup>23</sup>Henry Guntur Tarigan and Djago Tarigan, *Pengajaran Analisis Kesalahan Berbahasa*. p.76.

morpheme are omitted than others. For example: “*He hit car.*”, the learner ommit the article, the accurate sentence is: “*He hit a car.*”

## 2. Addition

Additional errors are the opposite of omission. They are characterized by the presence of an item (in the second language learning), which must not appear in a well-formed utterance (of native language).

For example:

*The fishes swim in the aquarium.* (Incorrect)

*The fish swim in the aquarium.* (Correct)

Dulay and friends give three subtypes of addition error, they are:

### a. Double Marking

Double marking is a subtype of additional error. It defined as the failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic constructions but not in others.

Example:

*He didn't went to the library* (Incorrect)

*He didn't go to the library* (Correct)

### b. Regulazation

Regulazation is the second subtype of addition error that typically apply to the class of linguistic items, such as the class of main verbs or the class of noun. in most language, however, some members of a class are exceptions to the rule. Such as the verb “*fall*” doesn't became *falled*, but *fallen*. For example, *I falled*, where the regular

tense +ed has been extended to verb which in native English is an irregular verb.

c. Simple Addition

Simple addition error is another subtype of addition errors. If an addition error is not a double marking or regularization, it is called a simple addition.

For example:

*Rina is in listening pop music (Incorrect)*

*Rina is listening pop music (Correct)*

**3. Missformation**

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

For example:

*I seen her yesterday (Incorrect)*

*I saw her yesterday (Correct)*

Dulay, Burt and Krashen also define three other subtypes in this category that had been frequently reported in the literature, they are:

a. Regularization Errors

Regularization error that fall under the malformation category are those in which a regular marker is used in place of an irregular one, as in *runned* for *ran* or *gooses* for *geese*.

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. We have called the form selected by the learner an *archi-form*. For example, a learner may temporarily select just one of the English demonstrative adjectives *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*.

Example: *That dog*

*That dogs*

Learners may also select one member of the class of personal pronouns to function for several others in the class.

For example: *Give that*

*Me hungry*

In the production of certain complex sentences, the use of the infinitive as an archi-form for the other complement types (e.g. gerunds and that-clauses) has also been observed:

For example: *I finish to watch TV.*

*She suggested him to go.*

c. Alternating Forms

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. Thus, we see for demonstratives: *Those cat*

*This cows*

We have observed that in the production of verbs when the participle form (-en, as in taken) is being acquired, it may be alternated with the past irregular, as in:

*I seen her yesterday.*

*He would have saw them.*

#### **4. Misordering**

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

For example, in the utterance: *He is all the time late.*

Misordering errors occur systematically for both L2 and L1 learners in constructing that have already been acquired, especially simple (direct) and embedded (indirect) questions.

For example: *What Daddy is doing?*<sup>24</sup>

#### **K. 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>25</sup> This taxonomy classified the learners' error into developmental errors, interlingual errors, ambiguous errors, and other errors.

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<sup>24</sup>Heidi Dulay, Marina Burt, and Stephen Krashen, *Language Two*, p.154-162.

<sup>25</sup>Heidi Dulay, *Language*, p. 163.

## 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.<sup>26</sup>

## 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.

To identify an interlingual error, researchers usually translate the grammatical form of the learner's phrase of sentence into the learner's first language to see if similarities exist.<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>26</sup>Heidi Dulai, *Language*, p. 165.

<sup>27</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 171.

### 3. Ambiguous Errors

Ambiguous errors are those that could be classified equally well as developmental or interlingual errors.<sup>28</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 is also characteristic of the speech of children learning English as their first language.

### 4. Other Errors

Some taxonomic errors may not have any place to fit any other category.<sup>29</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>28</sup>Heidi Dulai, *Language*, p. 172.

<sup>29</sup>*Ibid.*

## L. Error Analysis

Realizing that it is not easy to analyze the student's errors without reading theories of error analysis here are some theories about errors analysis.

Error analysis is the study and evaluation of uncertainty in measurement.<sup>30</sup> Fauzi state, Error analysis assumes that errors indicate learning difficulties and that the frequency of a particular error is evidence of the difficulty learners have in learning the particular form.<sup>31</sup>

Richards states that,

“Error analysis is the study and analysis of the errors made by the second and foreign language learners. Error analysis may be carried out in order to (a) find out how well someone knows a language (b) find out how a person learns a language (c) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials, error analysis may be used as well as or instead of contrastive analysis”.<sup>32</sup>

There are stages in error analysis to identify and analyze students' error, the stages are identification, description, explanation, and evaluation.

### 1. Identifying Errors

To identify errors we have to compare the sentences learners produce with what seem to be normal or correct sentences in the target language which correspond with them.

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<sup>30</sup> John R. Taylor, *An Introduction to Error Analysis, Second Edition*, Sausalito: University Science Books, 1997. Chapter I.

<sup>31</sup> Iwan Fauzi, Error Analysis “*The Significance to Language Learners*”, p.21.

<sup>32</sup> J. C. Richards, *Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*, London: Longman Group Limited, 1985, p.96.

## 2. Describing Errors

After all the errors have been identified, they can be described and classified into the types. There are several ways to do this, that is to classify errors into grammatical categories. Another way might be to try to identify general ways in which the learner's utterance differ from the reconstructed target language utterance.

## 3. Explaining Errors

The identification and description of error are preliminaries to the much more interesting task of trying to explain what they occur. Error are systematic to a large extent and predictable to a certain extent. The mother tongue language sometimes uses another word instead of a distinct word. In this step we can explain the source of the errors.

## 4. Error Evaluation

Evaluating errors determine whether the error is global errors or local errors. The errors classification may determine whether it is a serious error or not.<sup>33</sup>

## **M. Content Analysis**

Content or document analysis is a research method applied to written or visual materials for the purpose of identifying specified characteristics of the material. The materials analyzed can be texts, newspapers, or any of a host of other types of documents. Content analysis is widely used in education.

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<sup>33</sup>Rod Ellis, *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1986, p. 15.

The following are some of the purposes of content analysis in educational research.

1. To identify bias, prejudice, or propaganda in text books. For example, a researcher might analyze high school history texts in a particular school district to determine how often women are mentioned and how much discussion is given in each mention.
2. To analyze types of errors in students' writings. For example, a researcher could look at students' written work to classify spelling or grammatical errors and their nature and frequency.
3. To describe prevailing practices. For example, a researcher could identify the entrance requirements of Big Ten universities by analyzing their bulletins.
4. To discover the relative importance of, or interest in, certain topics. For example, a researcher might analyze popular educational research textbooks to see the coverage given to qualitative research and changes in that coverage over time.<sup>34</sup>

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<sup>34</sup>Donald Ary, *Introduction to Research in Education*, Canada: Nelson Education Ltd, 2010, p.457