**CHAPTER II**

**REVIEWED OF THE LITERATURE**

This chapter is reviewed of the literature that discusses the definition of the nature of error, error and mistake, error analysis, the sources of error, the classifications of error, definition of mechanics of writing, writing as skill, and previous study.

1. **The Nature of Error**

Language is created by human as a communication device with the other, so that between two humans are able to understand what they intended of sense. This statement is similarly pointed out by Brown (2000:5) that language is a system of arbitrary conventionalized vocal, written, or gestural symbols that enable member of a given community to communicate intelligibly with one another. Mastering of language can bring a learner to connect the people live in around the world. The learner is able to know a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling, and acting by interaction only used as it is called “language”.

Studying of the language is a necessary. However, it must find difficulties, because there are distinctions in every language for example is pattern of the language. When the student learns about language, they are going to move from the mother tongue (L1) to the target language (L2). Nevertheless, the learner of language is indirectly able to apply what they have studied about. Sometimes, the language learner makes a mistake in doing something. The linguist called it is an “*error*”. Errors are flawed side of learner speech or writing. Where the first and second language share a meaning; but express it in different ways, an error is likely to arise in the L2; because the learner will transfer the realization device from his first into second language. They are those parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance. People cannot learn language without first systematically committing error.

Even though, of course, not all the patterns or habits of the L1 are different from those of the L2. It is quite possible that means for expressing a shared meaning are the same in first and second language. For when referring to punctuation, Indonesia and English employ the same formal devices – ‘*kita sudah berencana untuk liburan selama bertahun-tahun, tapi sayangnya hujan turun setiap hari*’ is analogous with ‘*we had been looking forward to our holiday all years, but unfortunately it rained every day’*. In cases such as this, it is impossible to transfer the means used to realize are given meaning in the L1 into the L2. When this is possible, the only learning that has to take place is the discovery that the realization devices are the same in the two languages. The learner does not need to overcome new habit by mastering a different realization device.

Behaviorist learning theory predicted that transfer would take place from the first to the second language. Transfer will be negative when there is a new habit. In this case error will result. Transfer will be positive when the first and second language habits are the same. In this case no errors will occur. Thus, differences between the first and second language create learning difficulty which result in errors, while the similarities between the first and second language facilitate rapid and easy learning.

1. **Error and Mistake**

Of course, we must be confused to differ between “Error” and “Mistake”. Almost people think that those terms have similar definition. Generally, error is a mistake in doing something; then what is a mistake about? Actually, the terms of error and mistake have a different definition. In the teaching and learning process, there is a further problem how can be we sure that when a learner produces a deviant from it is not just an accidental slip of the tongue? After all, the native speakers often make slips when they are tired or under some kind of pressure to communicate.

Ellis (1997:17) stated that we needed distinguish between errors and mistakes. Errors reflected gaps in a learners’ knowledge; they occurred because the learner did not know what was correct. Mistakes reflected the occasional lapses in performance, they occurred because, in a particular instance, the learner was unable to perform what she or he knew.

Similarly, Bartram (1999:15) explained that Slip (mistake) is wrong language, including native speakers could make, caused by tiredness, carelessness, nerves, etc make. In the other hand, the kinds of error that anybody is wrong language which a learner would not usually produce, that is, something that only learners of the language produce. In addition, the terms of “error” and “mistake” absolutely are different.

1. **The Error Analysis**

Error analysis is inspired by the generative linguistics movement of the sixties which focused on the creative aspects of language learning. This focus has helped to rise of errors from unwanted forms to the relatively important status of indicators of learning and guides to teaching. Brown (2000:218) stated “The fact that learners do make errors, and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of study of learners’ errors”.

Errors analysis is defined as the process of identifying the errors made by students in learning language to improve the students’ ability or proficiency of second language learners. Error analysis has yielded insights into the L2 acquisition process that simulated major changes in teaching practices. Similarly, McDonald (2002:65) writes that error analysis can assist instruction at another level. By having students share in the process of investigating and interpreting the patterns of error in their writing, we can help them begin to see those errors as evidence of hypotheses or strategies they have formed and, as a consequence, put them in a position to change, experiment, imagine other strategies.

In the other hand, Ellis (1986:51) presented “The goals of traditional error analysis were pedagogic – errors provided information which could be used to sequence items for teaching or to devise remedial lessons”. It means that error analysis gives the information about what the most frequency of errors are committed by the language learners and then it is become the indicator of the teacher to do remedial lessons until the language learners can reach the target language achievement comprehensively.

1. **The Sources of Error**

Sometimes, the error made by students in writing is easy to identify. However, the teacher still has the difficulties to identify the error because the factors causes the errors are often different. One student may have different cause of the error made with others. There are many causes of error experienced by students as follows:

1. Interlingual Error

Interlingual error is the error happened because of the interference of the mother tongue. Brown (2000:224) states the beginning stages of learning a second language are especially vulnerable to interlingual transfer from the native language, or interference. For example; in Indonesia, the student constructs “*Langit yang biru*”, the adjective come after noun; while in English, the student constructs “*The blue sky*”, the adjective come before noun. Interlingual error means that the student constructs target language based on his/her first language; in addition, she or he constructs “*The sky blue*”. It means that there is an interference of the first language in mastering second language. As the result, if the students construct the sentence, they will make error by simplifying the second language with the first language construction.

1. Intralingual Error

Intralingual error is the error that is happened because of the features of the target language itself. Intralingual transfer error can be divided into four types:

1. Over-generalization

Richards (1974:174) states that over-generalization covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in target language. It means that the learner like to simplify the formation or the rules of target language. For example, the student have information the form of verb 2 participle by adding “*ed*” in the end of verb like “*talk*” to be “*talked*”. In fact, there is irregular verb in the form of verb 2 participle like “*run*”. In that case, we cannot add “*ed*” such “*ran*” to be “*runned*”. The learners seem to simplify the use of such rules and apply again in the other uses. Overgeneralization means that whenever learners meet a new pattern or a new rule, they think that the pattern or rule applies to all cases without exception.

1. Ignorance of rules restriction

Closely related to the generalization of deviant structures is failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, it is the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. In this case, Richards (1974:175) points out that the learners make the error because they get false *analogy*; for example, to indicate nominal sentence in past tense we said “*She was ill*”; but the student says in period now, in addition the student says “*She is ill*”. The students confused in distinguish “*to be*” past tenses and present tenses. The students often use the similar words to construct the sentence, while those words have different meaning in application or it involves the application of the rules to contexts where they do apply. In addition, the students use the misunderstanding of the analogy.

1. Incomplete application of rules

Arising when the learners fail to develop fully a certain structure required to produce acceptable sentences. On applying the rules, the language learner uses incomplete pattern to construct the utterances or sentences; for example, “*You handsome*”. Perhaps, the learners forget the required rules or they may have lack of knowledge of the rules that cause the students cannot produce the appropriate sentence in their language application. The learner should add “*to be*” if she or he construct nominal sentence. The sentence should be constructed in “*You are handsome*”

1. False concepts hypotized

The error can be caused of faulty comprehension of distinction in the target language. The students often make errors because of a misleading explanation from the teacher, faulty presentation of a structure or word in textbook, or even because of pattern that was rotely memorized in a drill but improperly contextualized.

1. **The Classifications of Error**

We have attempted to begin to fill this need by specifying the major taxonomies used, starting their purpose and defining their categories. Discussion of these descriptive taxonomies is guided by two major purposes: to present error categories which rely solely on observable characteristics for their definition; and to report the findings of the research conducted to date with the respect to error types observed. Bellows are the taxonomies as stated by Dulay (1982:146), they are:

1. Error Types Based on Linguistic Category

Many error taxonomies have been based on the linguistic item which is affected by an error. These linguistic category taxonomies classify errors according to either or both the language component or the particular linguistic constituent the error effect.

Language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style). Constituents include the elements that comprise each language component.

1. Surface Strategy Taxonomy

Surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are altered: Learner may *omit* necessary items or *add* unnecessary ones; they may *misform* items or *misorder* them. Researchers have noticed, however, that surface elements of a language are altered in specific and systematic ways which we enumerated briefly.

Analyzing errors from a surface strategy taxonomy perspective holds much promise for researchers concerned with identifying cognitive process that underline the learners’ errors are based on some logic. They are not the result of laziness or sloppy thinking, but of the learner’s of interim principles to produce a new language. In this case, Dulay divides the surface structures as follows:

1. Omission

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in well formed utterance. Omission of content language, although typical in early stages of L1 acquisition, is not as common in sequential L2 acquisition where the learner is older and more cognitively mature. If content languages are omitted in L2 speech, it is usually occasioned by lack of knowledge, and learners usually indicate their awareness of the missing constituent. 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 if one heard

*is the of the*

one couldn’t even begin to guess what the speaker might have had in mind

1. Addition

Addition errors are the opposite of omissions. They are characterized by the presence of on item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. Addition errors usually occur in the later stage of L2 acquisition, when the learner has already acquired some target language rules. In fact, addition errors result from the all-too-faithful use of certain rules.

These errors are good indicators that some basic rules have been acquired, but the refinements have not yet been made. Three types of addition errors have been observed in the speech of both L1 and L2 learners:

1. Double markings

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

*I didn’t go.*

although *go* takes a past tense marker when there is no auxiliary (such as do) on which to mark the tense, as in

 *They went to lunch an hour ago*.

The English rule for tense formation is: place the tense marker on the first verb. In simple affirmative declarative sentence, the main verb is the only verb, and thus takes the tense, as in the sentence above.

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

*He doesn’t knows my name or we didn’t went there*.

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

1. Regularization

The rule typically applies to class of linguistic items, such as the class of main verbs or the class of nouns. In the most languages, however, some members of a class are exceptions to the rule. For example, the verb *eat* does not become *eated*, but ate; the noun *sheep* is also sheep in 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.

1. Simple addition

Errors are the “grab bag” subcategory of additions. If an addition error is not a double marking nor a regularization, it is called a simple addition. No particular features characterize simple additions another than those that characterize all addition errors – the use of an item which should not appear in a well formed utterance.

1. Misformation

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

*The dog eated the chicken.*

a past tense marker was supplied by the learner; it was just not the right one.

As in the case of additions, misformations are usually not random. Thus far, three types of misformations have been frequently reported: (1) regularization; (2) archi-forms; and (3) alternating forms.

1. 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, as in *runned* for *ran* or *gooses* for *geese*. Learners also commonly make regularization errors in the comprehension of grammar.

1. 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. For example, a learner may temporarily select just one of the English demonstrative adjectives *this, that, these*, and *those*, to do the work for several of them:

*That dog*

*That dogs*

For this learner, that is the archi-demonstrative adjective representing the entire class of demonstrative adjectives.

Learner may also select one member of the class of personal pronouns to function for several others in the class. For example,

*Give me that.*

*Me hungry.*

In the production of certain complex sentences, the use of the infinitive as in an archi-form for the other complement types has also been observed:

*I finish to watch TV.*

*She suggested him to go.*

1. Alternating forms

As the learner’s vocabulary and grammar grow, the use of archi-forms often gives the way to the apparently fairly free alternation of various member of a class with each other. Thus, we see for demonstratives:

*Those dog*

*This cats*

For example in the production of verbs when the participles 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*.

1. Misordering

Misodering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of group in an utterance. For example, in the utterance

*He is all the time late*.

*All the time* is misordered.

Misordering errors occur systematically for both L2 and L1 learners in constructions that have already been acquired, specifically sample (direct) and embedded (indirect) questions. For example, as in

*What daddy is doing?*

using the declarative sentence order that had been acquired. During a later phase of acquisition, when they have acquired the simple question order

*I don’t know what is that.*

using a simple question order for *what is that*?

In addition to these creative misordering errors, student has made written misordering errors that are word-to-word translations of native language surface structures. For example include sentences like:

*I meet there some Germans*

and phrases such as:

*Another my friend*.

1. Comparative Taxonomy

The classification of errors in a comparative taxonomy is based on comparisons between the structure of L2 errors and certain other types of constructions. For example, if one were to use a comparative taxonomy to classify the errors of the English learner, one might compare the structure of the student’s errors to that of errors reported for children acquiring English as a first language. It means that the error can be analyzed by comparing the learner of second language with the native speaker of the target language. In addition, by those comparing, the teacher can find where the learner makes error and determine what the teacher should do to overcome the learner error. Because of the learners know their error, so the learner can improve their language acquisition deeply.

1. Communicative Effect Taxonomies

While the surface strategy and comparative taxonomies focus on aspects of the errors themselves, the communicative effect classification deals with errors from perspective of their effect on the listener or reader. It focuses on distinguishing between errors that seems to cause miscommunication and those that do not.

1. **Definition of Mechanics**

Mechanic is defined as a system of parts in a living thing together performs a particular function. Which the construction of language is a unity as stated by Kumaravadivelu (2006:4) “We all know that a human language is a well-organized and well-crafted instrument. That is to say, all the basic components of a language work in tandem in a coherent and systematic manner. They are certainly not a random collection of disparate units”. Including in the writing process, mechanic can be defined as a system sets the way of writing that has special function.

According to Biss *et al* (19994:162), “The mechanics of writing include rules for capitalization and punctuation”. In the other hand, Harmer (2004:44) stated that “Writing, like any other skill, has its ‘mechanical’ components. These include, spelling, punctuation, and the construction of well-formed sentences, paragraphs, and texts”. Those statements are combined to have a result that the mechanics of writing are included capitalization, punctuation, and spelling. Why is it very necessary? According to Biss *et al* (1994:162) “Mastering them can impart clarity to your writing”. Of course, mastering of mechanics of writing is going to help the students to improve their skill, because if the sentence exists without mechanic, it will be unclarity meaning of the student purpose. To know what and how the mechanics of writing use, you can see the explanation bellow:

1. Don’t Leave Capitals

Capitalization is a capital letter that acts as signal to reader. They announce the new sentences and the beginning of direct quotations. The use of capitals is much more a matter of taste than of the rules, and because of this, opinion varies about when and where they should be used. The suggested guidelines attempt to be both logical an unambiguous. Knowing when to use capital letters and when to use lower-case letters can sometimes be confusing. The following list include some general rules to observe for capitalization: *See appendix* *1*

1. Why We Punctuate

If we look the dictionary, it will present the verb form of punctuation is *to punctuate* as defined: to separate into sentence, clause, etc., by periods, commas, colons, etc.; to emphasize in some significant manner; to interrupt at intervals. In a simple way, what is punctuation and why is it used? It is the use of stops or breaks to indicate pauses and points in the flow of writing so that meaning may be clearly understood. Its basic purpose is to clarify the written word. Punctuation is the art or system of separating written words by the use of punctuation marks – the period, comma, colon, semicolon, etc. They announce that divide the writing into the sentences and phrases.

Punctuation is an essential part of writing. Without it even the best writing would be unintelligible. It is not a necessary evil, but rather a positive aid to clarify of language and, as such, should be both a pleasure and satisfaction (Mavor, 1989:8).

Punctuation is as much a matter of author’s style as his choice of words. It is an essential part of written word, whatever form this may take. Without it, our writing, no matter how much good, becomes unintelligible. Too many of us either pepper our writing with commas or leave it barren. All forms of communication – commercial, official, professional – call for considered punctuation. Remember, however, to use only enough punctuation to keep the meaning accurate and readily understandable. You should try to follow these two principles:

* Base your punctuation on the framework of the written word, nor on the need to pause for breath.
* The fewer stops or breaks used, the better – provided there is no clouding of meaning.

Try to understand the various marks of the punctuation and their uses. If you do not punctuate appropriately you will handicap your style. *See appendix 1*

1. Spell Your Word

Correct spelling is an essential requirement for accurate communication. Words are the tools we use to express our ideas. Like all tools they are valuable only when used correctly. It is not enough to add a long list of correctly spelt words to your vocabulary. They need exercise. To help make things clear, we should get our students to focus on particular variety of English (British or American English, for example) as a spelling model for them to aspire to; but we should also make them aware of other spelling varieties, drawing their attention to dictionary entries which show such differences (Harmer, 2009:324).

Knapp (2005:95) states that spelling needs to be assessed systematically and diagnostically. In other words it is not sufficient to mark spelling for incorrectly spelt words. Spelling should be also assessed on the level of difficulty of the words attempted. It is best to assess ‘spelling in writing’ at levels of difficulty.

It is true that misspelling in written word can make misunderstanding of the sentence meaning. In the other words, correct spelling is needed to make clearly the sentence. If we use misspelling word, not only the word cannot be read; but also it can make the reader confuse what the word is.

In this case, we will use correct spelling that be written according to Parrot (2000:408-412). *See appendix 1*

1. **Writing As Skill**

Murray (1995:4) defined that the writing was a product of the interaction of the global and the particular. We use a word to catch a vague idea and it becomes less vague, and so we work back and forth from the whole to part and part to whole, each influencing the other, each strand helping the writer weave a pattern and meaning. A sure way to wreck your chances of learning how to write competently is to believe that writing is a “natural gift” rather than a learned skill. People with such an attitude think that they are the only ones for whom writing is unbearably difficult. They feel that everyone else finds writing easy or at least tolerable. Such people typically say, “I’m not any good at writing” or “English was not one of my good subjects.” They imply that they simply do not have a talent for writing, while others do. The result of this attitude is that people try to avoid writing, and when they do write, they do not try their best. Their attitude becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy: their writing fails chiefly because they have brainwashed themselves into thinking that they do not have the “natural talent” needed to write. Unless their attitude changes, they probably will not learn how to write effectively.

A realistic attitude about writing must build on the idea that writing is a skill. It is skill like driving, typing, or cooking, and like any skill, it can be learned (Langan, 2005: 13).

Many people find it difficult to do the intense, active thinking that clear writing demands. It is frightening to sit down before a blank sheet of paper or a computer screen and know that an hour later, nothing on it may be worth keeping. It is frustrating to discover how much of a challenge it is to transfer thoughts and felling from one’s head into words. It is upsetting to find that an apparently simple writing subject often turns out to be complicated. However, writing is not an automatic process; we will not get something for nothing – and we should not expect to. For almost everyone, competent writing comes from plain hard work – from determination, sweat, and head-on battle. The good news is that the skill of writing can be mastered, and if you ready to work, you will learn what you need to know.

1. **Previous Study**

Absolutely, the study about error must be done repeat; because the orientation of error is wide especially in language study. In addition, this research is also built based on previous study in *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* that was published by *Academy Publisher* at May 2010 (*doi:10.4304/jltr.1.3.266-268*). The title of Journal is *A Tentative Analysis of Errors in Language Learning and Use* which was created by Yang Wenfen. The research was descriptive design using qualitative approach.

Wenfen discussed three levels of language: the levels of substance, text, and discourse. In the level of subtance, Wenfen recognized that the first one is punctuation errors, among which the most frequent are overuse of the exclamation (!) by some writers; misordering of closing inverted comas; under or overuse of capitals; over inclusion of a comma between an antecedent and a restrictive relative clause; and misselection of the colon instead of the comma after the salutation in letters. The second one is typographic errors. People who are normally good spellers might be poor typists. Their problem is in automatizing the required temporal and spatial mechanisms that underlie skilled fingering on the typewriter, or keystrokes on the word-processor. In fact, Wenfen is dealing here with mistakes rather than errors, and this probably explains why psychologists interested in skill learning have paid more attention to typing errors than applied linguists have.

Error analysis claim that learners’ errors, to a large degree, are not caused by the influence of their L1; instead, their errors reflect some common learning strategies. EA tries to find out the regular things in the process of foreign language teaching: teachers should be sensitive and then modifying their teaching materials in order to adapt the students’ need. As those reasons, need to conduct a research to check the students’ understanding in mechanics of writing. Furthermore the teacher can check if the teaching and learning process has run well or not.