II.   LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Concept of Writing

Hartley (1962: 66) stated that "writing might, that is to say, be regarded as a form of artificial memory, whose development should be accompanied by a deeper knowledge of the past and, therefore, by a greater ability to organize the present and the future."

In fact, there are some acts of writing which can be used as the basis for conceiving the meaning of writing. Those acts of writing are in line with the development of learning to write through which a student should pass.

According to Harmer (2004: 2), writing involves more than just producing words and sentences. To be able to produce a piece of writing, we should be able to write a connected series of words and sentences which are grammatically and logically linked, so that the purpose we have in our mind suit the intended readers. In this way, it is meant that the style of language used in a piece of writing designed for layman and people living in the village, for example should be different from the one designed for educated people such as students, teachers, doctors, professors, etc. Therefore, in presenting a piece of discourse we should consider the correctness of form, the appropriateness of style, and the unity of topic.

Whereas discourse, as explained by Candlin (1997: viii) is a means of talking and writing about and acting upon worlds, a means which both constructs and is constructed by asset of social practices within these worlds, and in so doing both reproduces and constructs afresh particular social-discursive practices, constrained or encouraged by more macro movements in the overarching social formation. Whether style is feature of literary composition, which belongs to form and expression rather than to the substance of the thought or matter expressed and also a manner of discourse or tone of speaking, adopted in addressing others or in ordinary conversation.

Writing should be done with the understanding from the past time in order to inform and express what had happened. It should be well-organized in order to be understandable for the readers (Harmer, 2004: 3). Just like speaking, writing is a way of communicating a message with an intended audience. It is a means of expressing thoughts, ideas, and feelings. By writing, we may flow out a burden occupying our mind offer our ideas and concepts to others, and share our knowledge and experiences.

Writing is more than just public communication; it is also a way of thinking. Writing involves a range of writer's consciousness. When we sit down, holding a pen and facing a piece of paper ready to write, apparently we are engaging in more than just one act of consciousness, such as the contents of thoughts, the style of thoughts, the organization of thoughts, the purpose of thought, and so on. These acts lead us to create a good and careful thinking, which is strongly needed when we want to produce a good writing.

2.2 Concept of Writing Skill

Writing as one of the four language skills in real world contexts. It is not an activity in its own right but one, which serves the other skills. Therefore, writing has a relation with grammar, reading, listening, and speaking. Most students found foreign language writing are difficult; they rarely needed to write in adult life, so they decreased the amount of writing. Swarbick (1994: 142) describes five stages of development that students need to go through in acquiring competence in writing, i.e.: copying, reproduction, recombination, guided writing, and free writing.

We should also consider the writing process. It is influenced by the content and the medium of the writing. The processes are planning, drafting, editing, and final draft (Harmer, 2004: 4-6). They are the steps if we want to compose a good writing. Before writing, we should plan what we are going to write about and the purposes of the writing. After that, we can start to write. We may produce a number of writing (draft) and editing in order to get the good writing – that is the final draft.

Writing involves some activities before, when we write, and after writing. The activities before we write include exploring ideas which could be building vocabulary, interviewing someone, discussion, etc; and organizing ideas which could be ordering information in a paragraph, writing topic sentences, limiting information, using a time sequence, making an idea map, categorizing and making outline, summarizing ideas, writing titles, etc. When we write, we should develop cohesion and style which includes connecting ideas, adding details, selecting the correct verb tense, selecting the correct tense, and writing the first draft.

This is not the end of writing. After we write the first draft, we should edit and revise it. It could be the content, form, organization, cohesion and style, and grammar. In order to produce a good writing we should write more than just one draft. A good writing could be the fourth or fifth draft or even more.

Hayes (1981: 368) state that in order to built a "write" or theoretical system that would reflect the process of writing, you need to at least three things :

1.   First, you need to define the major elements or sub-processes that make up the larger process of writing. Such sub-processes would include planning, retrieving information from long term memory, reviewing and so on

2.   Second, you want to show how the process interact in the total process of writing. For example, how is "knowledge" about the audience actually integrated into the moment-to-moment act of composing?

3.   And finally, since a model is primarily tool for thinking with, you want your model to speak to critical questions in the discipline. It should help you see things you didn't see before.

      Traditional conceptions of writing expertise are based on the view that good writing is regardless of audience, purpose or context (Hyland, 2002: 59)

While according Brown (2001: 346) , But as you contemplate devising a technique that has a writing goal in it, consider the various things that efficient writers do, and see if your technique includes some of these practices. For example, good writers

a.   Focus on a goal or main idea in writing.

b.   Perceptively gauge their audience.

c.   Spend some time (but not too much!) planning to write.

d.   Easily let their first ideas flow onto the paper

e.   Follow a general organizational plan as they write

f.   Solicit and utilize feedback on their writing

g.   Are not wedded to certain surface structures

h.   Revise their work willingly and efficiently

i.   Patiently make as many revisions as needed.

2.3 Concept of Grammar

Trask (1999:110) mentioned that grammar is the rules for constructing words and sentence in a particular language, or the branch of linguistics studying this. Then, Brown (2001: 362) illustrates grammar as the system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence.

The cited definitions above basically have the same meaning that grammar is defined as a system of rules that covers morphology, syntax phonology, and semantic, for example she like swimming. This sentence is ungrammatical because the verb must be *likes*. It should have morpheme –s because the sentence is in form of the simple present tense. So morphology is very important here.

Every language has a grammar; indeed, every language has a lot of grammatical rules. The function of the grammar of a language is to specify which word sequences are, and which are not, in the infinite set of its sentences. The ideal

envisioned here is that grammar is the description of a language by means of a general definition of 'sentence' in that language (Burton-Robert, 1999: 295-296).

In relation with students 'grammatical errors, Hendrikson (1979 : 7-8) suggested that errors involving general grammatical rules are more deserving of attention than errors involving lexical exceptions. It is because the errors in general grammatical rules more often create misperception than the second one.

Literally, grammar is defined as a part of language which deals with the forms and structure of words (morphology) with their customary arrangement in phrases and sentences (syntax), and now often with language sounds (phonology) and word meanings (semantics). In this research the writer focuses in syntax. Based on Chomsky (1986: 27) **,** Syntax deals with the relation of words to each other as component parts of a sentence, and with their proper arrangement to express clearly the intended meaning.

Syntax looks at the rules of a language, particularly how the various parts of sentences go together. While similar to morphology, which looks at how the smallest meaningful linguistic units, called morphemes, are formed into complete words, syntax examines how fully formed words fit together to create complete and understandable sentences. Understanding a language's syntax is important for understanding what makes a sentence grammatically correct. It may be suggested to the student that the only way to acquire correctness is to watch good usage everywhere, and imitate it.

Syntax deals with a number of elements, all of which help to facilitate being understood through language. Without rules, there would be no foundation from which to discern meaning from a bunch of words strung together; whereas these rules allow for a virtually infinite number of sentences. Perhaps the most important aspect of syntax is how the various parts of speech connect together. Another aspect of syntax covers the various parts of speech that a language uses and separates the words of the language into these groups. Each part of speech in turn has various rules that may be applied to it, and other rules that dictate when it cannot be used. Understanding linguistic rules allows speakers and writers to effectively communicate ideas to others.

However, the writer just focused on surface strategy taxonomy, because the writer would like to see the errors with more highlight on the ways surface structures are altered in systematic and specific ways.

Based on the concept above, it is clear that grammar is very essential to support the students to know the rules, word changes and to improve English skills. It can be assumed that every language has its own structure which is different so the sound system and how to combine words or phrases of any language will not be the same as other language in the world. It is clear that our aim in teaching grammar should be to ensure that students are communicatively efficient with the grammar they have at their level. Since knowledge of grammar is essential for competent users of language, it is clearly necessary for the students.

2.4 Concept of Error

Error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of native speaker, reflecting the inter language competence of the learner (Sujoko, 1989: 5). The fact that the learners do make errors

and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learners, led to a surge of study of learners' errors, called error analysis, (Sujoko, 1989: 6).

From the all explanation above, the writer concludes that errors analysis is a type a linguistic analysis that focuses on the process of identifying, and describing the learner's error in target language learning.

Corder (1973) said that errors that students make when they learn language are very common. Further, according to Dulay (1982: 138), people cannot learn without first systematically commiting errors. By making errors, students know the correct one, and those errors can motivate students to learn. We also have to realize that students' errors are the process of learning, the students can learn from their errors. So almost all students must make errors when they are learning English because it is difficult to separate errors in the process of learning English.

Errors are deviation from something that has been true that can influence the understanding and delivering message. The teacher should not see them negatively as a sign of failure but see them positively as an indication learning happen. So, if the teacher tries to prevent students' errorss, he/she never finds out what they do not know. Dullay (1982: 139) stated that an errors is caused by the lack of knowledge of the language rules, while a mistake is the result of imperfection in producting speech due to fatigue, inattention and slip factors. In other word, it can be said that errors is ungrammatical utterance which refers to the language performance.

Errors are typically produced by people who do not yet fully command some institutionalized language system (Corder, 1974: 29). The errors themselves are competence errors. According to

Corder, true errors are marker of the learners' competence (Richards, 1974). Errors are caused by deficiency in competence and a short coming in the knowledge of language learners make errors when they have not learnt something correctly.

From the linguists' opinion above, the writer concluded that mistake refers to the failures to use the language system correctly caused by some factors such as carelessness, memory lapses, and physical condition. While error, refers to the failure to use the system correctly caused by the lack of the learners' competence.

2.5 Concept of Grammatical Errors

James (1998: 255) states that students' erroneous output – their composition errors in particular – are not one remove, but two removes from the native speaker's version. We are not only correcting the errors into what learners want say but also correcting the errors into what the native speakers would have said or write.

He thus challenges Corder's claim that the data of error analysis are 'two sentences: the idiosyncratic sentence [produced by the learner] and a well-formed sentence [that which the native would have produced]'. These two sentences would then be compared. This is not the case, however. The data of error analysis comprise not two but three sentences: (i) what learner said; (ii) what they were attempting to say; and (iii) what the NSs would have said (or written) (James, 1998: 255).

Moreover Fotos (1993) did an experiment involving noticing. She hypothesized that noticing would be induced to different degrees by two sorts of teaching: teacher-formed formal instruction, and doing grammar tasks in groups. So she gave two matched groups of learners

grammar-noticing opportunities under these two conditions in order to find out which way is the more effective (James, 1998: 257).

This is why analyzing learner's grammatical errors in learning other language would be interesting. Learning other language became difficult since the target language had different system from the native language. This difference sometimes made the learners (in this case – the students) make errors especially in applying the grammar.

2.6 Types of Errors

There are four most useful and commonly used bases for the descriptive classification of errors. They are (1) linguistic based category, (2) surface strategy, (3) comparative analysis, and (4) communicate effect. From these four taxonomies, the writer takes surface strategy taxonomy in classifying error made by students in analysis students' grammatical errors in writing recount text.

According to Dullay, Burt, Krashen (1982: 155) that surface strategy taxonomy highlights the way surface structures are altered. The learners may omit necessary items or add unnecessary ones; they may misform items or misorder items. Analyzing errors from surface strategy perspective holds much promise for writers concerned with identifying cognitive process that underline that learner's reconstruction of the language. It is appropriate to be used in analyzing the learner's process ion reconstructing or arranging new language.

According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 155), there are four types of errors based on the surface strategy taxonomy, omission, addition, misformation and misordering.

a. Omission

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of items that must be present in a well-formed utterance.

Example:

1.   He is good student.
1.   She is best teacher in my school.

In utterance the students omits an indefinite article 1 for He is good student, while in utterance 2 a definite article the is omitted for She is best teacher in my school.

b.   Addition

Addition errors are the opposite of omission errors. They are characterized by the presence of an item which must not be present in a well-formed utterance. Dullay, Burt and Krashen, (1982: 156) they divide addition error into three types, they are as follows:

1.   Double Marking

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

Example:

a. They didn't went here.
b. I did not arrived on time.

In utterance, two items rather than one are marked for the same feature (tense in these examples).

2.   Regularization

Regularization error refers to an error having exceptional items of the given class that do not take a marker's form.

For example:

Incorrect   correct

- Mans   : Men (plural from man)

- Buyed   : Bought (past tense from buy)

- Childs   : Children (plural from child)

The examples above are regularization errors, in which the regular plural noun and tense markers respectively have been added to items which do not take marker.

3.   Simple Addition

Errors of simple addition refer to the addition of one element to the correct utterance.

Example:

1.   I am is a student.
2.   You can to swim in the swimming pool anytime.

In the utterance 1 the sentence I am a student incorrect sentence because add with word is. Therefore, the correct sentence is I am a student. Moreover, in the utterance 2 the sentence You can to swim in the swimming pool anytime is incorrect sentence because add with word to. Therefore, the correct sentence is You can swim in the swimming pool anytime.

c.   Misformation

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the unacceptable forms of the morpheme or structure. While in omission errors the item is not supplied at all, in misformation errors the

learner supplies something, although it is incorrect. There are three subtypes of misformation errors, they are as follows:

1) Regularization Errors

Regularization errors are errors in which regular marker are used in place of irregular ones, as in runned for ran or sheeps for sheep.

2) Archi-forms

The selection of marker of one member of a class of forms to represent other in the class is a common characteristic of all stages of second language acquisition. The form selected by the learner is called archi-forms.

 The following examples are dealing with the use of demonstrative adjective this, that, these, and those.

Example:

1. That cats.
2. This students.
3. These book.
4. Those table.

This type of misformation errors has been called archi- form. That should be followed by singular forms, while these should be followed by the plural forms, and the correct form of the examples above are as follows:

1. That cat.
2. This student.

3. These books.

4. Those tables.

3) Alternating Form

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

a.   She seen her yesterday.

b.   He would have saw them.

The utterances above have incorrect verbs seen and saw instead of saw and seen respectively.

d.   Misordering Errors

The incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance characterized misordering error. Examples:

1.   I don't know who is he.

2.   What you are thinking about?

Taking a look at both sentences above have incorrect placement of is and are. Grammatically, the utterance should be written as follows:

1.   I don't know who he is.

2.   What are you thinking about?

In addition to these creative misordering errors, the students have made written misordering errors that are word-for-word translation of native language surface structure.

2.7 Error Analysis

According to James (1998: 1), error analysis is the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language.

As a learner, making errors in language process is very common. It

involves the making of mistakes and errors. Errors help the learners to establish the closer and closer approximations to the system of the target language. Brown (1980: 163) stated, "….by gradual process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, the learner slowly and tediously succeeds in establishing closer and closer approximation to the system used by native speakers of the language."

The students get problems in learning English because there are many differences between Indonesian and English in terms of grammar, vocabulary, etc.

1.   The Practical Uses of Error Analysis

Studying learner's errors serve some benefit, particularly for the teacher. Sujoko (1989: 48) suggests the practical use of error analysis is to the teacher, they are as follows:

a.   Errors provide feedback; they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques.

b.   They show him what parts of the syllabus he has been following have been inadequately learned or taught and need further attention.

c.   They enable him to decide whether he must devote more time to the item he has been working on. This is the day- to- day valve of errors. But in term of broader planning and with new group of learners.

d.   They provide the information for designing a remedial syllabus or a program of re-teaching.

As mentioned above, the practical use of error analysis was very significant both to the teacher and the learner. The significance of the practical uses of error analysis was to the teacher. It meant that he analyzed the learner's error and corrected the error that made by the learners. For the learners the practical uses of error analysis could facilitate them in improving the English mastery.

2.8 Methodology of Error Analysis

Methodology is procedures in carrying out the research dealing with the technique of collecting and analyzing the data. The writer realized that writing such kind of paper had to use methodology.

The Methodology of Error Analysis according to S.N Sridhar (1985: 222) The first is collecting of the data (either from a free composition by students on given theme or from examination answer). The second is dentifying of errors (Labeling with varying degrees of precision depending on the linguistic sophistication brought to bear on the task, with respect to the exact nature of the deviation, dangling preposition, anomalous sequence of the tense, etc). The third is classifying into errors types. The fourth is stating of relative frequency of errors types. The fifth is identifying of the area of difficulty in the target language. The last is therapy (remedial drill, lesson, etc)

The data of error analysis was taken from students' writing of recount text. After collecting the data, the writer and the teacher identified them in what part of errors the data belong to. In the

process of identifying, the writer and the teacher used the rules of English as a target language to be the norm followed in determining the kinds of errors by the students.

Then the writer classified the errors of students' writing based on surface strategy taxonomy. The next step done by the writer was counting the errors, frequencies, deciding the lace of errors, making the percentages of the errors made by the students and finding the best terrify. After that, the writer gave the evaluation of errors that done by students and the final, the writer and the teacher corrected the data.

2.9 Concept of Recount Text

Recount text is one of the texts that recalls and reconstructs events, experiences, and achivement from the past in logical sequence. Some recounts are purely informative, while others aim to both inform and entertain.

All recounts recontruct the past, but the purpose, audience and focus are according to the form used. Many reluctant readers or writers find this text type accessible and manageable because it is generally based on fact rather than fiction.

Recounts generally follow similiar structure, but the students should be guided by the purpose for an audience of their text in their use of the following stucture.

1. Orientation

The orientation provides all the necessary background information to enable the audience to make sense of the text. To ensure that orientation is detailed and thorough, use the words (who,

what, when, where, and why). The speaker needs to give information about what happend, who or what was involved, when and where the events occured and why. An awareness of audience and purpose will assist the author in selecting the amount of detailed needed.

2. Series of events

In series of events, the speaker tells the events chronologically. In begins from the first event, followed by the second event. The sum of events depend on the creativity of the speaker.

Events should be selected carefully to add to the audience's undestanding of the topic. Students should be prepared to dicard events and details that are unimportant or uninteresting. A recount, in most cases, is more than 'shpping list' of every possible detail. Students should be guided to select only those events that are relevant and that can be expanded through the inclusion of specific details.

3. Re-orientation (optional)

The final section concludes the recount by summarizing outcomes or result, evaluating the topic's importance or offering personal comment or opinion. It can also look to the future by speculating about what might happen next. But, not all recount closed by re-orientation. It is optional.

According to Darewianka (1992), there are five types of recount text, they are

1. Personal Recount

2. Factual Recount

3. Imaginative Recount

4. Procedural Recount

5. Biographical Recount

In this research, the topics of recount text were unforgettable experience, last holiday, unforgettable birthday, so the type that was used is personal recount, because in that topic of the their own experience, the students could express their ideas, opinions, desires, emotions, and feelings more easily.

The definition of personal recount text according to Darewianka (1992), it tells about activities whereas the writer or speaker involves or do by her or himself (e.g. oral anecdote, diary entry) use first pronouns (I,we). Personal responses to the events can be included, particularly at the end. Details are often chosen to add or humor.

Language Features that are used in Recount Text are:

1.   Simple past tense is used in most recounts, but present tense may be used to create immediacy. For example in dairy or journal. Future tense is sometimes used in conclusion of an immaginative or biographical recount to predict what might happen in the future, for example,“ This great tennis player will no doubt win many more tournaments“.

2.   Subject –specific terms (larvae,topography) are used to record facts and events accurately. They also add authenticity and credibility to the tone making a recount.

3.   A range of conjunctions (because, although, while) is used to link causes within sentences.

4.   Time connectives (firstly, secondly, next, finally) are used to separate events into a cohesive whole text.

5.   Adverbs (yesterday, ouside) and advarbial phrases. For example,'In 2011, in top of hotel', are used to indicate specific times and places.

6.   Specific participants (nouns and pronouns), such as Sandy Pricillia, a Beach provide detail and credibility.

Here is the example of recount text:

Our trip to the Blue Mountain

On Friday, we went to the Blue Mountain. We stayed at David and Della's house. It has a big garden with lots of colorful flowers and tennis court. On Saturday, we saw the Three Sisters and we went on the scenic railway. It was scary. Then, Mom and I went shopping with Della. We went to some antique shops and I tried on some old hats.

On Sunday, we went on the scenic Skyway and it rocked. We saw cockatoos having shower. In the afternoon, we went home

Here is the organization of recount text:

Our trip to the Blue Mountain

Orientation

On Friday we went to the Blue Mountains. We stayed at David and Della's house. It has a big garden with lots of colourful flowers and a tennis court.

Event 1

On Saturday we saw the Three Sisters and went on the scenic railway. It was scary. Then,

Mummy and I went shopping with Della. We went to some antique shops and I tried on some old

hats.

Event 2

On Sunday we went on the Scenic Skyway and it rocked. We saw cockatoos having a shower.

Reorientation

the afternoon we went home.