CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, there are three subchapters, the first is a concept of theory, review of previous studies and the last is research model.

2.1 Theory

The theory presented here deals with error analysis. The detail discussion is shown below.

2.1.1 Errors

In this subtopic, the writer discusses views on error, the definition of error, types of error and causes of error. They are presented in detail below.

2.1.1.1 Views on Errors

Many linguistics defined differently what an error is based on their own concept. In learning English as a foreign language, someone is inevitable to make errors whether in speech or writing. Talking about an error, some experts have the different point of view regarding it.

Dulay (1982: 138-139) argues that the studying the learners' errors clearly indicates which part of the target language the students consider most difficult to be produced correctly and which types of errors detract most from the learners ability to communicate effectively. He defines errors as any deviation from a selected norm of language performance.

Steven (1969: 62) states that errors should be viewed as problems to be overcome, but rather as normal and inevitable features indicating the strategies that learners use to acquire the language being learned.

2.1.1.2 Definition of Errors

Carl James (1988: 1) defines Error Analysis as "the process of determining the incidence or occurrence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language learning". Later he goes on explaining that error analysis "involves first independently or objectively describing the learners, followed by a comparison of the two, so as to locate mismatches".

James (1998: 62-63) also refers to Error Analysis as the study of linguistic ignorance which investigates "what people do not know and how they attempt with their ignorance". The fact that learners find ways how to cope with their ignorance makes a connection between Error Analysis and learner strategies, which we divide into learning strategies and communication strategies.

Corder (in James, 1998: 3) suggests that Error Analysis can be distinguished from performance analysis in that sense performance analysis is the study of the whole performance data from individual learners, whereas the term Error Analysis is reserved for the study of erroneous utterances produced by groups of learners.

Error analysis is a branch of applied linguistics which concerned with compilation, study, and analysis of errors made by second language learners and aims at investigating aspects of second language acquisition.

2.1.1.3 Classification of Errors

According to Dulay et al (1982), the most commonly used taxonomies are based on linguistic category taxonomy, surface strategy taxonomy, comparative taxonomy, and communicative effect taxonomy. They are discussed in detail below.

2.1.1.3.1 Linguistic Category Taxonomy

The linguistic category taxonomy classifies errors according to the language component or the particular linguistic constituent the errors affect. Language component includes phonology, syntax, morphology, semantics, and lexicon component. The linguistic category taxonomy classifies error into a noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), verb construction and transformation.

1. Noun Phrase

Errors in noun phrase cover the following.

1) The use of pronouns: omission of the subject pronoun

E.g. (*He*) *pinches the man*

2) The use of preposition: omission of the preposition

E.g. *He came (to) the water.*

3) The use of determiners: omission of the article

E.g. *He no go in (a) hole*.

4) The use of nominalization: simple verbs use to instead of-*ing*.

E.g. *by to cook it.*

5) The use of number: substitution of singulars for plural.

E.g. *He got some leaf.*

2. Verb Phrase

Errors in verb phrase cover the following:

1) Omission of verb: omission of to be

E.g. *He (in) in the water.*

2) The use of progressive tense: omission of be

E.g. *He (is) going.*

2.1.1.3.2   Surface Strategy Taxonomy

Surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are altered. Learners may omit items or add unnecessary ones: they may misform items or misorder them.

1. Omission

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance. It occurs on lexicons, phrases, even a sentence. E.g. *He listening to the radio now.* "The" to be present tense is omitted.

2. Addition

Addition errors are the opposite of omission. They are characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. There are three types of addition errors, as shown below.

1) Double Marking

Two items rather than one are marked for the same feature.

E.g. *They didn't went to the party*

The sentence should be: *They didn't go to the party*

2) Regularization

A rule is typically applied to a class of linguistic item such as the class of main verbs of the class of noun. In most languages, however, some members of a class are exceptions to the rule. For example, the verb "eat" doesn't become "eated" but "ate". The noun "sheep" in the plural is not "sheeps" but sheep.

3) Simple Addition

If an addition error is not a double marking or regularization, is called a simple addition. No particular features characterize simple addition other than those that characterize all addition errors- the use of an item which should not appear in a well formed utterance.

E.g. *I go with family to watched movie in theater.*

The sentence should be *I go with family to watch movie in theater.*

4) Misformation

Misformation refers to "the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure" (Dulay et al. 1982:158).

1) Archi-form is the selection of one member of a class of forms to represent others in the class. For example in the sentence: ―*I've many questions to ask him*‖.

2) Alternating form As the learner's vocabulary and grammar grow, the use of archi-forms often gives way to the apparently fairly free alternation of various members of a class with each other. It means that the more grammar that the learners get, the high frequency of error that the learner made. For example: ―*I like he*‖. This sentence is an example of errors in using a pronoun.

5) Misordering

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of morpheme or group of a morpheme in an utterance. For example: ―*what daddy is doing?*‖ the correct one is ―*What is daddy doing?"*

2.1.1.3.3 Comparative Taxonomy

The classification of errors in a comparative taxonomy is based on a comparison between the structure of second language error and certain types of construction. For example, if one were to use a comparative taxonomy to classify the errors of Korean students learning English, one might compare the structure of the students' errors to that of errors reported for children acquiring. English as a first language.

In this research literature, second language errors have most frequently been compared to errors made by children learning the target language as their first language and to equivalent phrases or sentences in the learner's mother tongue. These comparisons have yielded the two major errors categories in this taxonomy: Developmental errors and Interlingual errors. Two other categories that have been used in comparatives analysis taxonomies are derived from the first

two: ambiguous error, which is classifiable as either developmental or interlingual.

There are four kinds of error that belong to comparative taxonomy: developmental error, interlingual error, ambiguous error, and other errors.

1. Developmental Errors

Developmental errors are those made by children learning the target language as developmental because there are also found in the speech of children learning English as their first language. For example: *Dog eat it.* The omission of the article and the past tense marker may be classified as developmental because there are also found in the speech of children learning English as their language.

2. Interlingual Errors

As Dulay et al. (1982: 171) argue, "similar in structure to semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner's native language", e.g. *the man skinny* said by an Indonesia speaker of English reflects the word order of the Indonesian equivalent phrase laki-laki kurus. To identify an interlingual error, researches usually translate the grammatical form of the learner's phrase or sentence into the learner's first language to see if similarities exist.

E.g. She goes to Bandung this morning (Dia pergi ke Bandung pagi ini) She gone this morning. When did she go? She go last night (dia pergi tadi malam). She went last night.

3. Ambiguous Errors

Could be classified as both developmental and interlingual errors. Such erroneous utterances usually reflect the learner's L1 and, at the same time, are

similar to errors produced by children during their L1 acquisition (Dulay et al. 1982: 172). E.g. *I have no car.* The negative construction reflects the learner's native Indonesia and is also characteristic of the speech of children learning English as their first language.

4. Other Errors

Are those which simply do not fit in any of the above-mentioned categories of this taxonomy (Dulay et al. 1982: 172). Other errors are classifiable as neither developmental nor interlingual or errors that do not fit into any other category. For example: in utterance;

She do hungry. The speaker used neither her native Spanish structure (the use of *have* for is in *she have hungry*) nor second language developmental from such as she hungry where the auxiliary is ommited altogether.

2.1.1.3.4 Communicative Effect Taxonomy

This taxonomy focuses on the effect the errors have on the listener or reader. Dulay et al (1982: 189) argue that "errors that affect the overall organization of the sentence hinder successful communication, while errors that affect a single element of the sentence usually not hinder communication'. They call the former (1) global error and (2) local errors. The detail of the two follows.

1. Global Error

Global errors are errors that affect overall sentence organization that significantly hinder communication because of the wide syntatic scope of such errors. Burt and Kiparsky labeled this category' global'. The most systematic global errors include the following.

1) Wrong order of major constituents

E.g. *English language uses many people.*

2) Missing, Wrong, or misplaced sentence connectors

E.g. (*if*) not take this bus, we late for school.

He will be rich until he marry (when).

3) *He started to go to school since has studied very hard.* Missing to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rules.

E.g. *the student's proposal (was) looked into (by) the principal*

4) Regularization of pervasive syntactic rules to exceptions (in transformational terms, not observing selection restriction on certain lexical items). E.g. we amused that movie very much (that movie amused us very much).

E.g. *English language uses many people.*

2. Local Error

Local error is errors that affect single elements (constituent) in a sentence. It does not usually hinder communication significantly. These include errors in noun and verb inflections, article, auxiliaries and the formation of quantifiers.

According to Dulay et al. (1982: 191-192) errors that effect single elements (constituent) in a sentence do not usually hinder communication significantly.

These included errors in noun verbal inflections, articles, auxiliary and the formation of quantifiers.

E.g.   Why like we each other?

Why we like each other?

2.1.1.4 Cause of Error

An attempt has been made to describe at least some of the many possible causes of language learners' errors.

1. Mother Tongue

Although young children appear to be able to learn a foreign language quite easily and to reproduce new sounds very effectively, order learners experience considerable difficulty. The sound system (phonology) and the grammar of the first language impose themselves on the new language and this leads to a foreign pronunciation, faulty grammatical patterns and occasionally to the wrong choice of vocabulary (Hubbard, 1983: 140).

2. Overgeneralization

As Richard's points out this type of error can be regarded as a blend of two structures in the standard version of the language. The error might be made as a result of blending structures learned early in the learning sequence.

3. Errors encouraged by teaching material or method

Errors have any positive contribution to make the learning of any skill, such as language. Error is evidence of failure or ineffective teaching or lack of control. If the material is well chosen, graded and presented with meticulous care, there should never be an error. It is fairly easy to accept this in the early stages of language learning when controls are applied in the shape of substitution tables,

conversation exercise of mechanical nature and guided sentences patterns, but more difficult at later stages. However, it might be salutary for us to bear in mind the possibility of some of our student's error being due to our own teaching (Hubbard, 1983; 42)

2.1.2   Writing

In this subchapter, the writer discusses the definition of writing and types of writing. They are presented in detail below.

2.1.2.1 Definition of Writing

Writing has several meaning. The activity or occupation of writing eg books, stories of articles is writing (Oxford Dictionary 1995: 1383).

According to Wilga M.Rever (1980: 27) defined writing or composition "as the expression of the ideas in a consecutive way; according to the graphic convention of the language; the ultimate aims of a written at this stage is to be able to express himself in a polished literary form which requires the utilization of a special vocabulary and a certain refinement of a structure.

2.1.2.2 Types of Writing

There are seven types of writing text according to Gerald Grow; they are narrative, expository, definitive, descriptive, comparative, process analysis, and persuasive text.

1.   Narrative Text

Narrative is a type of writing. This type of text tells a story. There's a sequence of action or there's a clear beginning, middle, and end to the text. Paragraphs written as a narration is a chronological presentation of events that add up to a story. Paragraphs of this type contain characters, setting, conflict, and resolution.

2. Expository Text

The expository text is this type of writing text explains something or provides instruction. It could also describe a process and move the reader step by step through a method. This type of writing text often requires research, but it,s possible that the writer is able to rely in his or her own knowledge and expertise.

Expository texts are explanatory in nature. They could be an important part of a description or narration. Credibility should be added in an expository text, by citing authorities that have good credentials. This type of text could also be a justifier that explains why something is important.

3. Definitive Text

The definitive text is a writing text that giving exact meaning of a story in a text. Definition type of text, provide the meaning, using events and happenings. A strong effort should be made to clearly explain what something is, and not what it is not.

4. Descriptive Text

Descriptive text is a type of writing text describes something and shows the reader what a thing or a person is like. The words chosen in the description often appeal to the five senses of touch, smell, sight, sound, and taste. Descriptive

text can be artistic and may deviate from grammatical norms. Descriptive types of texts are written in such a way that the reader is able to imagine the scene, object, person, etc. Series of detailed observations are recorded, using sensory language. Description is like narrative texts, with visual characteristics unfolding in a dramatic way. The main objective of a description is to move the story ahead.

- **Generic Structure of Descriptive Text**

  When writing descriptive text, there are some generic structures (actually not mandatory) for our writing to be true. The arrangement is:

  ➢ Identification : (contains about the introduction of a person, place, animal, or object will be described).

  ➢ Description : contains a description of something such as animal, things, place or person by describing it's features, forms, colors, or anything related to what the writer describe.

- **Purpose of Descriptive Text**

  ➢ To describe person, thing or place in specific

  ➢ To describe a particular person, thing or place.

- **Language Feature of Descriptive Text**

  ➢ Specific participant : has a certain object, is not common and unique (only one).

  ➢ The use of the adjective (an adjective) to clarify the noun.

  ➢ The use of simple present tense: the sentence pattern used is simple present because it tells the fact of the object described.

  ➢ Action verb: verbs that show an activity.

5. Comparative Text

Comparative text is type of a text which compared something. The objective of text written in comparison style is to compare, two or more objects, characters, events, etc. A chart can be prepared before writing a comparison text. This chart could include the names of the items compared and the criteria by which they are compared.

6. Process Analysis Text

This type of text refers to an analysis of the event. A process analysis text describes how a process happens, through a series of actions. The actions are put in a sequence. These types of texts are usually followed by illustration, as they help in understanding the process better.

7. Persuasive Text

The persuasive text is a type of writing text tries to get the reader to accept a particular point of view or understand the writer's position. This is the type of text that many teachers focus on because it's useful when building an argument. It often requires the collection of facts and research. This type of text is used in editorials and columns. A direct approach is the best in writing a persuasive text. The objective of a persuasive text is to persuade people to change their minds, or take action. Persuasive texts help people formulate an opinion and deepen it, by adding conviction.

2.1.3 Grammar

A language has a standard of rule (Lee, 2006: 90). It is same like English which has a different rule with other languages. In this subchapter, the writer discusses adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, verb, and noun in English.

1. The Adjective

The adjective expresses the property of an entity. In the sentence, the adjective performs the functions of an attribute (an adjunct) and a predictive. Of the two, the more typical function is that of an attribute since the function of predictive can also be performed by other parts of speech, ICF. The young man vs. The man is young. In the latter example, the adjective is syntactically the complement of the verb be, but semantically they both constitute the predicate. As a lexeme, be has little meaning; it performs the functions of predicatively; it expresses the verbal categories of person, number, tense, etc. The combination of be + adjective is then compared to a verb with its own lexical content. Cf. The man was dead. Vs. The man died. Typically, adjectives denote states, usually permanent ones; although there are also adjectives which can denote temporary states (e.g. John is being clever). A state can also be denoted by verbs (e.g. know, understand, like, etc.). However, the more typical meaning of the verb is a dynamic process. Derivationally, adjectives are related either to nouns or verbs. Suffixes changing nouns adjectives are: - (i) al, -ar, -ary or –ery, -ed, -en, -esque, -ful,, -ic(al), -ish, -istic, -less, -ike, -ly, -ous, -ward, -wide, -y. E.g. monument-monumental, family-familiar, element-elementary, talent-talented, picture-picturesque, hope-hopeful, history-historic(al), style – stylish, character – characteristic, use – useless, life – lifelike, friend- friendly, fame- famous, back-

backward, world- world-wide, wind- windy. Suffixes changing verbs to adjectives are: -able, or –ible, -ent or –ant, -ed, -ing, -ive, - (at)ory. E.g. to navigate- navigatable, to sense- sensible, to depend- dependent, to frustate- frustated, to bore- boring, to attract- attractive, to congratulate- congratulatory. All the adjectives can be divided into two large groups: gradable and non- gradable. Gradable (also called descriptive, or qualitative) adjectives denote.

2. The Adverb

The adverb is one of the parts of speech established in antiquity. In the grammar of English and other Indo-European languages, the adverb is a word denoting a non-substantive property, a feature which sets the adverb apart from the adjective which, as already known, denotes a substantive property, e.g. He wrote it badly, where badly denotes a property of the process expressed by wrote. As to their structure, adverbs may be non-derived, ore simple (e.g. slowly, slideways, clockwise, homewards, away, ahead, apart, across). We can also distinguish composite forms and phrasal forms of the adverb: sometimes, nowhere, anyway; at least, at most, at last, to and for, upside down. A prolific source of the adverb is the adjective: many- ly adverbs are transformationally related to respective adjectives.

Consider:

He liked Mary considerably.
-   He liked Mary to a considerable extent.
He spoke to John sharply
-   He spoke to John in a sharp manner.
He wrote frequently.
-   He wrote on frequent occasions. Politically, it is a bad decision.

From a political point of view, it is a bad decision. The suffix – ly is a typical marker of the adverb. However, many adverbs related to adjectives may not be necessarily used with the suffix –ly, e.g. fast, late, hard, high, clean, clear, close, loud, tight, firm, quick, right, sharp, slow, wide, etc. Consider:

John drives fast.

He came late. Vs. Have you been to the cinema lately?

Father works hard. Vs. I hardly know her.

Open your mouth wide. vs. He travels widely.

I clean forgot to ask him about it.Vs. The top of the ornament broke cleanly off.

3. The Pronoun

As already indicated, words are classified into parts of speech by taking into consideration their meaning, form and syntactic function. The peculiarity of pronouns as a class of words is that they are not united by any of the said features. What unites them is the way they denote reality: they denote it indirectly. Take, for instance, the pronoun he. He devotes a male human not directly but through a noun: *a male human→John→he or he→John→ a male human.* In view of this, pronouns are not notional words in the true meaning of the word; they are function words, their interpretation derives from the antecedent or the situation so that they need contain little descriptive information themselves. Their number is strictly limited and their meanings are acquired from the context. Pronouns are said to 'deputize' for other parts of speech: nouns (he, she, it and they); adjectives (his, her, its, and their; this/these, that/those); numerals (many, much, few,

several, and some), and adverbs (here, there, thus). Traditionally, pronouns are divided into: 1) personal (I, you, he, she, it; we, they); 2) possessive (my, your, his, her, it's; our, their – mine, yours, his, hers, its; ours theirs); 3) reflexive (myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself; ourselves, yourselves, themselves)1; 4) demonstrative (this/these, that/those, here, there, now, then, the same, such); 5) interrogative relative (who, what which, when, where, how, that); 6) reciprocal (one another, each other); 7) indefinite-negative (some, somebody, any, anybody, anyone, anything, another, other –no, no-one, none, nobody, nothing); 8) generalizing (all, each, every, everything, either, both); 9) quantitative (much, many, few, several, some). Etymologically, the word pronoun means "a word used instead of a noun". That is why many English grammarians (J.C. Nesfield, 1924; G. Curme, 1963; A. M. Clark; 1965) define the pronoun as a word used instead of a noun only. Thus, word such as my, your, etc., which are used in the function of an adjective, are not pronouns but adjectives; the words this/these, that/those may be either a pronoun (e.g. who is this?) or an adjective (e.g. this man). This is a purely functional view of the problem. If we apply the same principle to other pronouns , we shall have to admit that to the class of pronouns we shall not be able to attribute many of the above-mentioned words. Being aware of such a situation, other linguistics have defined the pronoun as a word used instead of a noun, an adjective, a numeral, and an adverb. The word used should not be taken in its literal sense: here it means functioning as. In present–day traditional grammar, personal pronouns include personal pronouns proper, possessive and reflexive pronouns.

Some linguistics use the term substitute saying that pronouns substitute for or can replace other parts of speech. This is true in general, but there are pronouns which do not act as 'deputies' for other parts of speech. Consider, for example, the pronouns I, you, we. What nouns can they substitute for? Semantically, I mean the speaker; you, the addressee, and we, the speaker and the addressee. It is only in such sentences as I, John Smith, was born in 1970 that we can speak of substitution. However, it is a different kind substitution – a substitution where by the pronoun is substituted for by a noun. Can we say that this in this book substitutes for an adjective? There is no such adjective which could be replaced by this? Nor can we say that the pronouns my, your, our are substitutes for adjectives. The same can be said about many other pronouns. Yet, the term substitute should not be rejected, for there are many pronouns (e.g. he, she, it: this/these, that/those; here, there; the same, such) which can be used as substitutes proper.

4.   The Preposition

The preposition is traditionally defined as a word expressing relations between words in the sentence, e.g. Mary sent her photograph to John. The preposition to, as used in the sentence, relates John, the Recipient, to the verb send. The weakness of the traditional definition is that it does not allow us to distinguish prepositions from subordinating conjunctions. Cf. She never saw him after the concert. Vs. She never saw him after he left town. In traditional analysis, the preposition is used with the noun phrase, not with the verb phrase. Such being the case, after in the first sentence is a preposition, while before in the second

sentence is a conjunction. In other words, the status of after is determined by the linguistic status of the following phrase. Accepting, this approach, we shall have to treat the two uses of after as homonyms. A new approach to prepositions and subordinating conjunctions is to treat the two traditional categories as prepositions (Geoffrey K. Pullum and Rodney Huddelston, 2002: 600). The said scholars include in the preposition category all of the subordinating conjunctions of traditional grammar with the exception.

Despite tradition, the said adverbs and adverbial structures can be attributed to the class of adverbial pronouns for the simple reason that their semantic structure includes the feature [This]: nowadays [in these days], today [this day], yesterday [the day before this day], the other day [a few days before this day], tomorrow [the day after after this day], next year [the year after this year], of whether and that: when, until, although, before, after, since, etc.. Prepositions are taken as heads of phrases and are comparable to verbs, nouns, and adverbs which also function as heads.

5. The Verb

The verb is a part of speech that denotes a process in the wide meaning of the word. The processual meaning is embedded in all the verbs. We can distinguish the following types of process: 1) processes of doing, or material processes, e.g.Mary is writing a letter; 2) processes of happening , e.g. The old man is dying; 3) verbal, e.g. She told me the truth; 4) mental, e.g. The student did odid not feel the pain; 5) relational, e.g. John is clever; Mary is at home; John has a new car; 6) existential, e.g. There is a dog under the table. Semantically, they

said process-types are expressed by two types of the verb; 1) bounded and 2) unbounded. Unbounded verbs are verbs that have no endpoint built in. Such verbs denote processes that go on without reaching a limit, i.e., there is nothing in them that can stop them; they can only be stopped from the outside.

6. The Noun

The noun is one of the most important parts of speech: its arrangement with the verb helps to express a prediction, the core of the sentence. As already indicated, the categorical meaning of the noun is 'substance' or 'thingness'. As a part of speech, the noun is characterized by a set of formal features or markers. a) word-buliding affixes such as- ment, -tion, -sion, -age, -al, -ance/-ence, (e)ry,-ure, etc. E.g. engagement, destruction, marriage, arrival, allowance, persistence, bribery, enclosure; b) the categories of number, case, gender, and determination (restriction). It is also characterized by the syntactic functions it performs in the sentence. Nouns may function not only in the core of the sentence, i.e. as subject, but also outside the core of the sentence – as objective and subjective Complements and Adjuncts. Consider: the old woman is resting (subject). Please give that man some money (Objective complement). Washington was the first president of United States (Subjective Non-circumstantial Complement). Mary lives in London (Subjective Circumstantial Complement). Mary is working in London (Circumstantial Adjunct). The use of nouns as adjuncts of nouns is peculiar to English; most such adjuncts are singular in form, but some may be plural, e.g. student activities (not students activities), women doctors. Many such structures are merely set phrases that have been established by usage. New

adjunct structures are constantly being created because of the increasing need for the names for new entities. Such structures are very common in technical, academic, and newspaper, writing (Marcella Frank, 1972:11). As pointed out by M.Blokh (1983: 50-51), the status of the structure has presented a big problem for many scholars: are they compounds or free word-combinations? This is a problem of English a language in which compounds may not differ formally from free word-combinations. Cf. Bathroom (a compound). Vs. Garbage dump (a compound or a free word-combinations) 1. To solve the problem, M.Blokh suggests applying the so-called solubility test. If the structure cannot be transformed into the corresponding prepositional structure, it is a compound, e.g. bathroom

- A room for a bath. But: a stone wall

A wall of stone (a free word combination). Another test is the addition of a modifier: as the most essential feature of the compound is its indivisibility, the added modifier restricts the structure as a whole not one or the other part. E.g. a big department store, not a big department store. In the speech, compounds and free word-combinations are distinguished by stress: compounds have even while free word-combinations have uneven stress (O. Jespersen, 1922; 313; E.Kruisinga, 1932; 5, e.g. a ' department store vs. A 'stone' wall.

2.2 Review of Related Studies

Related studies are the studies related to the present study in terms of being the same topic and the same theory applied. Some previous studies that are reviewed included the following.

Ardian (2013) conducted a study entitled "A Study on the Students Grammatical Errors in Writing Descriptive Text of the Tenth Grade Students of SMA Kristen 1 Kupang in the School Year 2013/2014". The writer wanted to find out what errors made by the students used surface strategy taxonomy. The writer sad that students' errors in writing descriptive text consist of some kinds and the total number of errors is 69. Most of the students made errors in omission with the total number of 30 made by 15 students. In addition, the total number of errors is 8 made by 6 students, in misordering the total number of errors is 4 made by 3 students and in misformation, the total number of errors is 27 made by 11 students. It means that most of the students should improve their knowledge about grammar especially in writing descriptive text to build the good sentences because they lack knowledge and ability in grammar especially tenses and subject-verb agreement.

Elphia (2008) conducted a study with the title "The analysis of errors committed in writing a composition of the first year students of SMAN 1 Kupang Timur in the school year 2008/2009". The purpose of this study was to analyze the errors in writing composition. In analyzing the student's grammatical errors the writer used the surface strategy taxonomy. She found that there are 142 numbers of errors made by the students. All students committed errors in grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics. The total number in grammar is 85, errors

in vocabulary were 13, and errors in mechanics were 44. So the conclusion is the students have big trouble in grammar.

Ndelo (2008) conducted a study entitled "Error analysis in writing of SMPK Giovanni Kupang in the school year 2008/2009". The writer wanted to find out what errors made by the students. The writer said that all of the students made an error in grammar with the total number of errors was 124, in misordering total numbers of errors were 23, in addition, the total numbers of errors were 16, errors of vocabulary were 13, and errors of fluency were 3.

2.3 Research Model

This study belongs to language skill. Language skill covers basic skill and sub skills. Basic skills cover listening, speaking, reading and writing. Sub-skills consist of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and spelling. This study focusses on basic skills, specifically writing. There are four kinds of writing; they descriptive writing, narrative writing, expository writing, and argumentative writing. This study concentrates on descriptive writing.

In descriptive writing, the writer wants to analyze the errors in the aspect of grammar encountered by the students. There are four taxonomies applied in analyzing errors. Such taxonomies include linguistic category taxonomy, surface taxonomy, comparative taxonomy, and communicative taxonomy. The writer applies the surface taxonomy in analyzing the errors committed by the eleventh grade students of SMK Kencana Sakti Kupang in writing descriptive text. This taxonomy classifies errors into omission, addition, misformation and misordering.

Here the writer would like to present the conceptual framework which guides the writer in conducting the study. It is presented in the chart below:

Research Model