

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### A. Error Analysis

Error analysis is the study of the learner's error, which can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner.<sup>13</sup> Brown claims that it can keep too closely focused on specific languages rather than viewing universal aspects of language.

By establishing error analysis in learning process, teachers are able to examine students' problem and the process of acquiring a foreign language in language learning.

According to Johansson, an analysis of the learners' error gives the teacher evidence of the learners' competence in the foreign language.<sup>14</sup> The teacher will also gain information's concerning learner's difficulties at different levels. For instance, it is important for teacher to design lesson plan and the construction of teaching materials.

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<sup>13</sup> H. Douglas Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (U.S. : Longman, 2007), 260

<sup>14</sup> David Johansson and Roger T, "*Learning Together Alone, Cooperation, Competition, and Individualization*". (New jersey: Practice Hall. Inc, 1975), 248

## 1. The Differences between Error and Mistake

The terms of *error* and *mistake* have identical meaning in teaching and learning process. However, those have different meaning and function. Brown defines *Error* as a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker that reflects the competence of the learner<sup>15</sup>. Meanwhile, *Mistake* refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a slip in that it is a failure to use a know system correctly. All people make mistakes, in both native and second language situations. Native speakers are normally capable of recognizing and correcting such "lapses" or mistakes, which are not the result of a deficiency in competence but the result of some temporary breakdown or imperfection in the process of producing speech. Error can be self-corrected while mistake cannot be self-corrected if the deviation is pointed out to the speaker.

It can be concluded that errors are caused by lack of understanding and knowledge in target language while mistakes are caused by temporary lapses of memory, confusion, and carelessness in expressing target language either in spoken or written form.

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<sup>15</sup> H. Douglas Brown, *Principle of.....*258

## 2. Types of Error

Dulay describes the types of errors into four classifications. They are 1) linguistic category; surface strategy taxonomy; 3) comparative analysis; and 4) communicative effect. Discussion of these descriptive taxonomies is guided by two major purposes; first, to present error categories which rely solely on observable characteristics for their definition. Second, to report the findings of research conducted to date with respect to error types observed.<sup>16</sup> However, the writer only focuses on surface strategy taxonomy and comparative analysis because those two types of errors give more contributions to this research than other types of errors.

### a. Surface Strategy Taxonomy

Surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are altered. Learners may *omit* necessary items or *add* unnecessary one. They may *misform* items or *misorder* them. Analyzing errors from a surface strategy perspective holds much promise for researcher concerned with identifying cognitive processes that underlie learner's reconstruction of the new language. It also make aware that learner's error are some logic. The types these categories are:

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<sup>16</sup> Dulay, Heidi – Marina Burt – Stephen Krashen, *Language Two*. (New York: Oxford University Press: 1982).146

### 1) Omission

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in well-formed utterances. Content morphemes carry the referential meaning of a sentence (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs).

Example: once upon a time, there lived a girl named snow white.

She lived with her aunt and uncle because parents died.

(Omission of possessive adjective “her” before parents died)

### 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. It usually occurs in the later stages of second language acquisition.

For example: that is the man who I saw *him*.

(addition of object *him*)

### 3) Misformation

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

Example: one day, an invitation to the ball *comed*.

(the main verb *comed* should be *came*)

#### 4) Misordering

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

Example: so, after the school, Pinocchio decided to go to the city.

He asked someone the ingredients to bake a cake. During his walk, Pinocchio met *there* a little boy.

(The placement of adverbial demonstrative “*there*” should be Pinocchio met a little boy *there*)

#### b. Comparative Taxonomy

The classification of comparative taxonomy is based on the comparison between the structure of second language error and certain other types of construction. There are two types of comparative taxonomy:

##### 1) Developmental Error

Developmental errors are the errors similar to those made by children learning the target language as their first language.

Example: prince give shoes glass pretty

(The prince gave a pair of pretty glass shoes)

##### 2) Interlingua Error

Interlingua errors are similar in structure to a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner’s native language. The

error identification is traced back by translating the words into the learner's mother tongue.

Example: the man skinny

(The skinny man)

### **3. Procedure of Error Analysis**

In this study, the writer uses Ellis's theory for analyzing students' error in using cohesive devices in writing narrative text. Ellis classifies the errors through explaining three steps of analyzing the errors. They are identifying errors, describing errors, and explaining errors.<sup>17</sup>

The first step is identifying errors. In this step, the researcher reads each of students' narrative text. To identify the errors, the researcher writes down and underlines the errors to differentiate each error based on surface strategy taxonomy and comparative taxonomy.

The second step is describing errors. In this step, the researcher lists the errors of cohesive devices in form of table, which consists of the example of sentence errors in using cohesive devices in context of narrative text. Moreover, the error sentences will be identified into its types of errors based on surface strategy taxonomy and comparative taxonomy. In addition, the errors will be calculated into the percentage of errors to identify the frequency of errors.

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<sup>17</sup> Rod Ellis, "Second Language acquisition", (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1997), 15-19

The last step is explaining errors. In this last step, after analyzing error sentence in the table, the researcher explains the result of error sentences more complex and classifies the dominant errors occur in students' narrative text. Therefore, the reader can comprehend the error sentences clearly by themselves.

## **B. Cohesion**

Cohesion is the resources within language that provide continuity in a text, over and above that provide by clause structures and clause complexes. Halliday and Hasan assert that cohesion refers to relation of meaning that exists within the text, and that defines a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by resources to it<sup>18</sup>.

### **1. Cohesive Devices**

According to Yanti as cited in Scrifin, she explains cohesive devices as clue used by speakers and hearers to find the meanings which underlie surface utterances. It is as formal links to create relationship between sentences and clauses. These formal links enable the writer to hang stretches of language together and to create unity. It is used to tie pieces of text together in a specific way.

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<sup>18</sup> M.A.K. Halliday – Ruqaiyah Hasan, *Cohesion in English* (London: Longman, 1976),4

## 2. Types of Cohesive Devices

### a. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical Cohesion identifies the grammatical rules of a text or utterance. It refers to the various grammatical devices that can be used to make relations among sentences more explicit.

#### 1) Reference

Reference is a semantic relation in which a meaning is specified through the identification of a referent, the source of identification is the situation. So that, the relation of referent is basically an exophoric one.<sup>19</sup>

There are three types of reference: personal, demonstrative, and comparative.

##### a) Personal Reference

Personal Reference is reference by means of function in speech situation through the category of person.

There are three types of personal reference:

- (1) Personal pronoun: I, me, you, we, us, they, them, she, her, he, him, it.
- (2) Possessive pronoun: mine, yours, ours, theirs, his, hers, its.
- (3) Possessive adjectives: my, your, our, his, her, their, its.

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<sup>19</sup> M.A.K. Halliday – Ruqaiyah Hasan, *Cohesion*..... 308



They refer to individuals and objects that are mentioned in some other parts of a text.

Example:

One day, a *mama Ostrich* returned home from gathering food for *her* two dear chicks.

(The possessive adjective *her* refers to *mama Ostrich*).

b) Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative Reference is reference by means of locations on a scale of proximity. It is a form of verbal pointing. The speaker identifies the referent by locating it on scale of proximity. There are two types of demonstrative reference:

(1) Adverbial Demonstrative refers to the location in of process in a space or time. The function is as adjunct in the clause not as element within the nominal group, and the secondary function as qualifier. Adverbial demonstrative includes *here, there then*.

(2) Nominal demonstrative refers to the location of something, typically some entity, person, or object that is participating in the process. They occur as element within nominal group. It includes *this, these, that, those, the*.

Example:

Finally, mama lion could not escape from *the anthill* and had to stay *there* for a long time.

(The adverbial demonstrative” *there*” refers to *anthill*)

c) Comparative Reference

Comparative Reference is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity. It is achieved through adverbs and adjectives of comparison, which is used to compare similarities or identities between items in a text. There are two types of comparative reference:

- (1) Comparative adjective, the function is as deictic or as epithet in the nominal group. It includes *same, identical, equal, other, different, more, better*.
- (2) Comparative adverb, the function in the clause as adjunct. It includes *similarly, differently, more, less*.

Example:

*Some students* read narrative text while *others* write narrative text.

(The comparative referential tie *others* refer to *students*).

## 2) Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another at a particular place in a structure.<sup>20</sup> In English, the substitute may function as noun, as a verb, or as a clause. Some items commonly used in substitution include one, same, do and not. There are three types of substitution:

### a) Nominal Substitution

The substitution “*one/ones*” always functions as head of a nominal group and can substitute only for an item which is itself head of a nominal group.

Example:

A: Can you give me *a glass* of water?

B: there is *one* on the table.

### b) Verbal Substitution

Verbal substitution in English is *Do/does*. This substitution functions as head in the verbal group in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb, and its position is always final in the group.

Example:

Cinderella *danced* with the prince and her stepsisters *did* too.

(*Do* refers to *danced*)

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<sup>20</sup> M.A.K. Halliday – Ruqaiyah Hasan, *Cohesion* .....7

c) Clausal Substitution

Clausal substitution is not an element within the clause but the entire clause. The words used as substitute are *so* and *not*.

Example:

Her stepmother did not let her go to the ball, and her stepsisters said *so*.

3) **Ellipsis**

Ellipsis is a form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing, but reader or listener still can understand the meaning by looking back to the preceding item.<sup>21</sup> There are three types of ellipsis:

a) Nominal Ellipsis

The structure is as head with optional modification. The modifying element includes some, which precede the head and some, which follow it. The modifier is combined with another structure on the experiential dimension, which consist of element *deictic, numerative, epithet, classifier, and qualifier*.

Example:

One day, they hijacked to the rice field with only a cow. They used to use *two*.

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<sup>21</sup> M.A.K. Halliday – Ruqaiyah Hasan, *Cohesion*..... 143

b) Verbal Ellipsis

In the verbal group, there is only one lexical element that is the verb itself. It is defined as a verbal group whose structure does not fully express its systematic features.

Example:

Stepmother : have you done the housework?

Cinderella : yes, I *have*

c) Clausal Ellipsis

The clause in English is considered as the expression of the previous speech functions, such as statement, question, response, and so on has two parts structure consisting of modal element and propositional element.

The modal element which embodies the speech function of the clause consists in turn of the subject plus the finite element in the verbal group.

The propositional element consists of residue, the reminder of the verbal group, and any complement and adjunct that may be present.

Example:

Stepsister 1 : are you going to buy a new dress for the party?

Stepsister 2 : yes

#### 4) Conjunction

Conjunction involves the use of formal markers to relate sentences, clauses, and paragraphs to each other.<sup>22</sup> There are four types of conjunction; they are *additive*, *adversative*, *causal*, and *temporal*.

##### a) Additive

###### (1) Simple additive relation type (internal and external)

Additive : and, and also, and....too

Negative : nor, and....not, not....either, neither

Alternative : or, or else

E.g., she lived with her stepsisters **and** stepmother

###### (2) Complex additive relation (internal): emphatic

Additive : further (more), moreover,  
 additionally, besides that, at to this, in  
 addition, and another thing

Alternative : alternatively

###### (3) Complex additive relation (internal): de-emphatic

Afterthought : incidentally, by the way

###### (4) Comparative relation (internal)

Similar : likewise, similarly, in the same way, in  
 (just) this way

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<sup>22</sup> Yanti Nurhayati, *the error analysis.....22*

Dissimilar : on the other hand, by contrast,  
conversely

(5) Appositive relation (internal)

Expository : that is, I mean, in other words, to put it  
another way

Exemplificatory : for instance, for example, thus

b) Adversative

The adversative ties indicate a contrastive relation. These conjunctions are used when a contradictory proposition is appended to the previous one.<sup>23</sup> Conjunctive relation of adversative types:

(1) Adversative relation “proper” (in spite of) (internal and external)

Simple : yet, thought, only

Containing “and” : but

Emphatic : however, nevertheless, despite  
this, all the same

(2) Contrastive relation (“as against”) (external)

Simple : but, and

Emphatic : however, on the other hand, at

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<sup>23</sup> Abbas Ali Ahangar, *The Use of Conjunction as Cohesive Devices in Iranian sport Live Radio and TV Talk*, 6

the same time, as against that

(3) Corrective relation (“not...but”) (internal)

Correction of meaning : instead, rather, on the  
contrary

Correction of wording : at least, rather, I mean

(4) Dismissive (generalized adversative) relations (“no  
matter.....still”) (external and internal)

Dismissal, closed : in any, either case, event, any, either  
way, whichever

Dismissal, open-ended : anyhow, at any rate, in any case,  
however that may be

c) Causal

(1) Causal relations, general (because....., so) (external and  
internal)

Simple : so, thus, hence, therefore

E.g. her stepsister did not let her go. **So**, Cinderella was  
very sad.

Emphatic : consequently, accordingly, because of this

(2) Causal relations, specific

Reason : (mainly external) for this reason, on  
account of this

(Internal) it follows (from this), on this



basis

Result : (mainly external) as a result (of this), in  
consequence (of this)  
(internal) arising out (of this)

Purpose : (mainly external) for this purpose, with  
this in mind/view, with this intention  
(internal) to this end

(3) Reversed causal relation, general

Simple : for, because

(4) Conditional relation (if .... , then) (external and internal)

Simple : then

e.g. The prince feel in love with her. **Then**, he married her.

Emphatic : in that case, that being the case, in such  
an event, under those circumstances

Generalized : under the circumstances

Reversed polarity : otherwise, under the circumstances

(5) Respective relation (with respect to) (internal)

Direct : in this respect, with regard to this, here

Reversed polarity : otherwise, in other respect, apart from  
this.

(6) Temporal

(1) Simple temporal relation (external)

Sequential : (and) then, next, afterwards, after that,  
subsequently

Simultaneous : (just) then, at the same time,  
simultaneously

E.g. The boss of crocodile called all his friends and asked them to make a line in order from one side to the other side of the river. ***Just then***, the rabbit started to count while jumping from one crocodile to another.

Preceding : earlier, before then/that, previously

(2) Complex temporal (external)

Immediate : at once, thereupon, on which, just  
before

Interrupted : soon, presently, later, after a time,  
sometime, earlier, formerly

Repetitive : next time, on other occasion, this time,  
on this occasion, the last time, on a  
previous occasion

Specific : next day, five minute later, five minute  
earlier

Durative : meanwhile, all this time

Terminal : by this time, up till that time, until  
then

Punctiliar : next moment, at this point/moment,  
the previous moment

(3) Conclusive relation (external)

Simple : finally, at last, in the end,  
eventually

E.g. *Finally*, he thanked all crocodiles because he had  
crossed the river.

(4) Sequential and conclusive relation (external)

correlative forms

Sequential : first....then, first...next,  
first...second..

Conclusive : at first....finally, at first....in  
the end

(5) Temporal relation (internal)

Sequential : then, next, secondly.....

Conclusive : finally, as a final point, in  
conclusion

(6) Temporal relations (internal): correlative forms

Sequential : first....then, first...next,  
first...secondly....., in the first place, to  
begin with

Conclusive : .....finally, to conclude with

## (7) 'here' and 'now' relation (internal)

Past : up to now, up to this point, hitherto,  
Here to fore

Present : at this point, here

Future : from now on, henceforward

## (8) Summary relation (internal)

Culminative : to sum up, in short, briefly

Resumptive : to resume, to get back to the point,  
anyway

**b. Lexical Cohesion**

Lexical cohesion identifies the semantic relations of words that make up a text or utterance. Thus, lexical cohesion is achieved by the selection of vocabulary.<sup>24</sup> There are two types of lexical cohesion; they are reiteration and collocation.

**1) Reiteration**

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, and the use of a synonym, or super ordinate terms.

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<sup>24</sup> Maja Stanojevic Gocic, *Cohesive Devices*.....5

## a) Repetition

Repetition is the identical recurrence of a preceding lexical item which establishes a cohesive tie between lexical items as a referential link. A lexical item coheres with a preceding occurrence.

Example:

They were so poor that they did not have anything except a *cow*. When the *cow* had grown too old, his sent Jack to the market to sell it.

## b) Synonymy

Synonymy is the relationship between two predicates that have the same (partial) sense. It is the identity of senses of two or more lexical items. In the case of synonymy, lexical cohesion results from the choice of a lexical item that is synonymous with a preceding one.

Example:

He saw a *boss* of crocodile swimming in the river. The rabbit asked the *chief* of crocodile, “How many crocodile are there in the river?”

## c) Super Ordinate

Super ordinate involves the use of general class words.

Example:

They went to *the Emporium*. The *shopping mall* was large and had a lot of goods.

The noun phrase *shopping mall* is the super ordinate term referring to *the Emporium*.

#### d) General Word

General words are used to refer back to a lexical item such as person, people, man, woman for human nouns; things, object for inanimate, concrete countable nouns; stuff for inanimate, concrete uncountable; place for location.<sup>25</sup>

Example:

A: Did you try the steamed buns?

B: Yes, I did not like the things much.

## 2) Collocation

Collocation deals with the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur. The co-occurrence of certain words from a chain ensures unity and centrality of the topic of this text. These words in chain form the lexical cohesion of the text.

Example: he ***took off*** the shoes then and got into the bath.

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<sup>25</sup> Besma Azzouz, Dissertation: "A discourse Analysis of Grammatical Cohesion in Students' Writing: A Case Study of Second Year Students Mentoury University-Constatntine " (Mentoury University, 2009), 33

## **C. Narrative Text**

Narrative text sequences people or characters in time and place but differs from recounts in that through the sequencing, the stories set up one or more problems, which must eventually find a way to be resolved. The common structure or basic plan of narrative text is known as the "story grammar".

The basic purpose of narrative text is to entertain, to gain and hold a readers' interest. However, narratives text can also be written to teach or inform, to change attitudes or social opinions

### **1. Generic Structure of Narrative Text**

#### **a. Orientation**

In orientation, it introduce the characters, setting and time of the story are established.

#### **b. Complication**

The complication usually involves the main character(s) (often mirroring the complications in real life).

#### **c. Resolution**

In resolution, it solve the problem happened. The complication may be solved better or worse. So, the story may end happily or sadly.

#### D. Review of Previous Studies

This research inspired by some previous researchers in the past, but there were some difference research focus. Here some different researches, which had same topic but different point of views:

*“The Error Analysis on The Use of Cohesive Devices in English Writing Essay among The Seventh Semester Students of English department of STAIN Salatiga in the Academic Year 2011/2012.”* This study investigated cohesive devices errors in 66 essays written by seventh semester students. It was conducted by descriptive qualitative research. The objectives of the study were to know whether there were any cohesive devices errors in students essay, to find out the errors of cohesive devices, and the dominant errors occurred in those essays. The result showed that students made errors in cohesive devices. The dominant error was reference, then conjunction, and the last error was lexical cohesion<sup>26</sup>. This study was different with present study because Yanti’s study examined cohesive devices errors both in formal and informal essay, whereas the present study only focused on narrative text.

The thesis entitled *“Mistake and Error Analysis of Cohesive Features in Argumentative Essay of Fifth Semester Students of English Department of Jambi University”* focused on the type of lexical and grammatical mistakes and errors in argumentative essay. It was conducted by descriptive research.

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<sup>26</sup> Yanti Nurhayati, *The Analysis on the Use of Cohesive Devices in English Writing Essay among The Seventh Semester Students of English Department of STAIN Salatiga in The Academy year of 2011/2012*. (STAIN Salatiga, 2012)



To collect the data, the researcher conducted three tests in which students were asked to write three argumentative essays. In addition, the result showed that there were four types of errors namely malformation in using antonym, personal pronoun, possessive pronoun, and omission of additional conjunction. Moreover, the researcher found nine types of mistake namely malformation in using personal pronoun, possessive pronoun, demonstrative reference, additional conjunction, cause effect conjunction, noun substitution, omission opposite conjunction, and cause effect conjunction.<sup>27</sup> The difference between this study with present study was it examined cohesive devices errors in argumentative essay, whereas the present study only focused on narrative text. Moreover, it analyzed the mistake and errors while the present study only analyzed the errors.

The third thesis written by Athi'urrodhiyah by the title "*An Analysis of Grammatical Errors upon Students Hortatory Exposition Text at SMAN 1 Baureno Bojonegoro*" identified the types of grammatical errors in hortatory exposition text that made by the students of eleven grades of SMAN 1 Baureno Bojonegoro and to find the causes of errors in students hortatory expositions text. The design of the study was descriptive research. The result of this study showed that student still made errors in producing hortatory exposition text. The dominant errors found in students' text were sentence

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<sup>27</sup> Hidayati, "Mistake and Error of Cohesive Features in Argumentative Essay of Fifth Semester Students of English Department of Jambi University". *Learning Journal*, Vol. 1 No. 1, 2014, 42

structure. In addition, the most frequently cause of errors was overgeneralizations.<sup>28</sup> The distinction of this study and the writer's study was located in the text, which is analyzed. This study was analyzed hortatory exposition text, while the writer analyzed narrative text.

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<sup>28</sup> Athi'urrodhiyah, *An Analysis of Grammatical Errors upon Student's Hortatory Exposition Text at SMAN 1 Baureno Bojonegoro*. IAIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya. 2012