# CHAPTER 2

# LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter aims to present a review of literature related to this research. It is organized into six main parts as follows: English language, writing, teaching English writing, second language acquisition, error analysis, and previous studies on error analysis. The details of each part are as follows:

## 2.1 English Language

Global communication has brought about the spread of English as the international lingua franca. As stated in Chapter One, English continues to be the prominent lingua franca of the Internet – a position now acknowledged in the popular media. Crystal (1997) claims that 85% of the world film market is in English and about 90% of published articles are written in English. The increasing use of English as an international language affects the Thai education system. Published academic papers and articles on the internet are mainly in English. Many fields of work use English in common correspondence with other nationalities. Therefore, students should have a good command of English for global communications.

As English is taught as a foreign language (EFL) in Thailand, students hardly use English meaningfully in their lives : neither to negotiate nor communicate. English writing skill has an increasingly important role in the pedagogical lives of Thai students since they have to deal with general writing assignments at school and up to university level, e.g. reports and other projects. Students then have to address

the daunting advancement of world technology and global communication (electronic mail, internet, infrared communication and more). Students need to acquire English skills and a competent level of accuracy and fluency in order to get access to vital information and fundamental address the aforementioned situation.

## 2.2 Writing

Writing is the most important skill to master in teaching English as a foreign language because the writer has to use the ability in all basic skills : structure, grammar, and vocabulary (Raimes. 1983 : 3). Furthermore, the knowledge about language use is necessary for the writer because it is difficult to make the reader understand the meaning that the writer wants to convey. In addition, writing skill is one of the most important productive skills which is necessary in the communication and can be kept as the later reference.

### 2.2.1 Definition of Writing

Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (1984) define writing as an incidence of communication between a writer and a proposed reader in which the writer produces a discourse with the imagined reader and derives from this text by which a real reader can estimate to the original discourse.

Delahunty (1994 : 335-359) states that there are some important characteristics of writing. Firstly, writing is a solitary act ; that is, when writing something, the writer cannot perceive any reaction from the readers; whereas, in the speaking process, the speaker can get the reaction from the interlocutor immediately. Secondly, writing is more extended in time than speech; that is, writing is a time-consuming process, because when writing something, the writer must think first and then write it out. Also,

writing is more self-conscious than speech, in the sense that the writer must have self-consciousness in writing. This means that the writer must be careful in choosing the words and tries to arrange them appropriately in order to make the readers understand the correct meaning that he/ she wants to convey. Finally, writing language relies less heavily on context that spoken language. In addition, the writer is still dependent on the verbal context, situational context, and cultural context.

Ur (1999 : 163) maintains that, in principle, the purposes of writing are the expression of ideas, the conveying of a message to the reader, so the ideas become the important aspect of the writer. On the other hand, the writer also needs to pay attention, as well as acceptable grammar and careful selection of vocabulary. This is because much higher standards of language are normally demanded in writing than in speech : more careful constructions, more precise and varied vocabulary, and more correctness of expression in general.

Due to the definitions of writing as mentioned above, it can be seen that writing is a difficult skill for both students and teachers. For students, it is difficult to make readers understand their thoughts through a set of letters set down correctly. Similarly, it is difficult for teachers to teach students to become effective writers. However, there are some advantageous concepts and theories which involve writing that both students and teachers should know such as writing process, composition writing, and teaching writing.

### 2.2.2 Importance of Writing

Writing skill is more and more important nowadays. Becoming a proficient writer is the major objectives of many students, especially for those who want to become members of international business, and administrative or academic

communities (Tribble. 1997 : 8). According to a survey conducted by the University of Pittsburgh's Kate Business School in 1994 as reviewed by Balter (1994 : 26-27), the ability to produce effective written communication is one way to succeed in a person's career. Writing ability has a major influence on executive promotion, performance appraisals, and salary increase (Addam. 1981 : 37-40 ; Bennette & Olney. 1986 : 13-22). For EFL students, developing ability to write fluently and confidently in English is a high owing to the fact that a great deal of work they will be doing depend on written documents such as reports, notes, letters, official paper, composition, etc. Therefore, it is crucial for students, especially English major students, to practice to master in English for getting a good career in their future.

### 2.2.3 Types of Writing

Aungwatanakul (1997 : 185) suggests that teachers should let students practice their writing skills based on the language form which they have learned from listening and speaking in class. Moreover, teachers should recognize that the writing control should be decreased, and students should be allowed to write their own work gradually. In addition, teachers should concentrate on communicative writing and give students a chance to write freely. Furthermore, she claims that teaching writing activities can be divided into three types as follows:

1. Controlled writing. This kind of writing permits teachers to set both writing form and content for students to write. The examples of this writing are copying sentences or changing some words in sentences. In addition, this kind of writing helps learners develop accurate knowledge about the language structure, including vocabulary use.

2. Guided writing. This kind of writing is developed from controlled writing. Teachers may only guide or give the broad content and language form to the students by stipulating the first or final sentence used in writing. The materials used in this kind of writing may come from pictures or cartoons, including a series of pictures.

3. Free writing. This kind of writing permits writers to write as freely as they want. However, the writers should have knowledge about the writing process first.

### 2.2.4 Writing Process

To be an effective writer, students need an understanding of the writing process to improve their writing to produce a more effective written product. Researchers have drawn a number of conclusions about the writing process as follows:

Langan (1993 : 17-13) contends that the writing process includes the following steps :

1. Prewriting. At this step, the writer gets the initial ideas and impressions about the subject down on the paper by accumulating raw material through brainstorming, free writing, diagramming and making lists and scratch outlines.

2. Outlining. After having the ideas, the writer should write the outline first. Outlining is a central to writing a good paper. It lets the writer see the bare bones of the paper without the distraction of a cluster of words and sentences. It helps writers to develop the ability to think in a clear and logical manner, as well as provides a quick check on whether the paper will be unified and well-organized.

3. Revising, editing, and proofreading. After outlining, the writer should write and revise several draft of the paper. The writer should fill out and shape the paper, adding and subtracting as needed. In addition, the writer should make clear the single point of the paper, develop fully the specific evidence needed to support that point, and

organize and connect the specific evidence. Then, the writer moves into the editing and proofreading stage in order to check it carefully for sentence skill-for correcting grammar, mechanics, punctuation, and usage. After editing, the writer proofreads the final copy of the paper for any typing or hand writing mistakes.

In addition, Olsher (1996 : 8) points out that writing can seem like a puzzle. It can be difficult to know where to start. On the contrary, writing can also be exciting. With the right tools, writing can be adventure and a way to discover more about the writers themselves and the world. With writing skills, they can meet new people, get information, or even find a job. The steps to create a piece of writing include :

1. Prewriting. At this step, the writer can collect ideas and information in many ways, such as making notes, asking questions, making lists, and drawing pictures.

2. Writing a first draft. At this step, the writer puts the ideas down in writing. This writing does not need to be perfect yet, because the writer will improve it later. In addition, while the writer is writing, he/ she may also think about more ideas.

3. Peer-editing. At this step, the writer gets help from friends and classmates by reading each other's drafts, giving idea, and asking questions to improve the written work.

4. Revising. At this step, the writer can add more ideas and information, correct mistakes, move some words, and make changes to write again.

5. Rewriting. At this step, the writer uses the revision to write again. Moreover, the writer may even think of new ideas when he/ she rewrite.

6. Proofreading. At this step, the writer checks the writing for spelling, punctuation, and other details.

### 2.2.5 Composition Writing

After learning the writing process, composition writing is one of the writing activities that help the learners practice their ability in language use, especially writing skills. It should be useful to summarize what some researchers have said about composition writing.

Level (1983 : 14) states that composition is writing a group of paragraphs that develop an idea or extend a single topic. A composition consists of three parts : 1) an introduction where the writer presents the main idea ; 2) a body in which the writer explains or supports the main idea ; and 3) a conclusion in which the writer brings the composition to a close. Level also divides most compositions into four broad categories as follows : 1) a descriptive compositions, which describe a person, place or object ; 2) narrative compositions which tell a story ; 3) expository compositions which explain a topic ; and 4) persuasive compositions which attempt to influence opinion.

Promsuttirak (1990 : 180) states that a composition is a kind of writing in which the writers want to explain their thought, knowledge, experience, or feeling the words to readers. To write a composition, the writers must choose the appropriate words and arrange them in an appropriate order to give the readers a clear and correct understanding of what they are trying to communicate. Before writing, the writers should write the outline first because it is a useful guideline helping the writers to write their written work effectively. In general, a composition consists of three important parts which are : 1) the introduction which is the part in which the main idea is stated ; 2) the body which is the most important part consisting of supporting details, examples and explanations ; and 3) the conclusion which is the part that reviews the content of

the introduction. In addition, a good conclusion must be related to the introduction and content.

On the other hand, Leggett et al. (1982 : 182-185) divide the composition into four categories : 1) narration has a purpose to recall a story, or to recount in sequence a series of events to say "what happened." ; 2) description aims to make the readers see, feel, or hear what the writer has seen or felt or heard. It is the writer's experience. It is often combined with exposition, argumentation, and especially narration ; 3) exposition aims to inform, to explain, to clarify, to make readers know or understand something about a subject ; and 4) argumentation or persuasion tries to convince readers of the value of the writer's point of view.

From the definitions of the composition above, it can be concluded that composition means one type of writing that the writer pass on the idea to the reader. It comprises of three main parts : 1) an introduction where the writer put in writing about the main idea ; 2) a body in which the writer describe the main idea ; and 3) a conclusion in which the writer conclude the composition.

## 2.3 Teaching English Writing

As English as a second language (ESL) teaching develops more and more rapidly, an increasing number of linguists pay attention to research in the field of ESL writing strategies. They seek to develop an inventory of writing strategies and pedagogically use it as a guide in ESL writing to help students improve their writing abilities. In the past 20 years, relevant researches in this field have been carried out. However, research on English as a foreign language (EFL) writing is still a latecomer

in this field. Most of the research in English writing focuses on the detailed techniques rather than global strategies owing to the test-oriented education system.

Although writing plays an indispensable role in the four basic language skills, it has long been ignored in universities. According to the national syllabus, reading ability is still regarded as the most important skill (Zeng. 2005). Compared with the other three skills, writing is considered too complicated to teach or not important enough to teach in the class (Zeng. 2005). Zhang (2006) also points out that writing occupies a lower position in university English classrooms and remains the weak point of university students. As a result, this reading-dominated principle brings about negative feedback from the workplace where there are many complaints about graduates' lack of competence in their writing and speaking skills (Li. 2002).

According to Flower and Hayes (1981), writing is a complicated recursive process instead of a linear one whereby writers are supposed to go back and forth when they compose. In spite of the great influence of alternative western approaches to the teaching of writing, many language teachers still adopt the product approach in the writing class. Writing tasks are presented in a decontextualized way, neglecting the context and audience. They tend to serve a text-oriented purpose rather than a communicative one (Mesana-Alais. 2004). In the context, the product approach, for many years, has been the dominant mode of instruction in university writing classes, highlighting the learner's final piece of work instead of how it is produced (Zhang. 2006). This has various consequences. Firstly, writing quality is judged on the basis of the final product and grammatical and linguistic accuracy. Secondly, due to this product focus, students pay little attention to the whole process of writing since they know little about how to generate ideas for writing (Ge. 2005). Consequently, they

struggle with text organization, independent thinking and generation of ideas (Chen. 2002).

It has long been the tradition that teachers are responsible for revising or editing their students' writing (Ge. 2005). This has led to the situation in which teacher-dominated feedback still remains prevalent in college English writing classrooms. Due to the high pressure from the College English Test and heavy emphasis on linguistic forms, college English teachers mainly concentrate on the correction of grammar and spelling and they believe that students can make progress only after teachers identify the mistakes. However, this over-dependence is said to induce a sense of lack of concern among students about the detailed corrections from their teachers because the teachers' efforts are taken for granted. Some students just take a glance at what the teacher has corrected, while many others may not even look at the corrections. This results in a mindset in which they fail to reflect upon their mistakes (Wang. 2005). Ge (2005) also points out that one further consequence is that teacher-centered assessment is seen as not only time-consuming, but also an inefficient means to improve student writing level. The end result of this lack of independence is that student creativity and activeness are hindered, and motivation and proficiency in writing remain low.

Writing is the most difficult skill for both learners and teachers. It takes a lot of time to practice, so, for many people, it can become boring. Moreover, the burden of teaching writing usually falls on teachers. The factor that negatively affects the teaching of writing is the lack of experience and knowledge about teaching composition among teachers and researchers. Most teachers, untrained as writers or as

writing teachers, know almost nothing about theories and practices in the teaching of writing.

However, many researchers have identified several approaches or techniques used in the teaching of writing. Agsaranukro (1989 : 109-110) states that in teaching writing, first, the teachers should let learners familiarize themselves with various forms of writing such as narrative and descriptive, etc. After that, the teachers should teach them about the mechanics and punctuation and let the students write with everyday language used in daily life. In addition, the teachers should keep in mind that there is no best approach in teaching, so they should combine many teaching approaches and select the one that is the most appropriate for the students. Then the teachers should change their roles from error indicators to be readers who criticize the written work of the writer in order to point out the weaknesses and suggest ways to improve the written work. Moreover, she also mentions that the activities used in teaching writing should be divided into three stages as follows :

1. Prewriting activities. At this stage, teachers should motivate learners to be interested in what they are writing about and teach some writing techniques such as punctuation and mechanics including revision about the use of tense.

2. While-writing activities. These activities are while learners are writing. For example, teachers assign learners to write an invitation card by using some given invitation cards as writing models. This kind of practice permits the learners to change some words or some statements. It is considered a kind of guided writing.

3. Post- writing activities. After finishing writing, teachers let learners use their ability in other activities related to writing. For instance, teachers let the learners read their own written work in class or let the learners criticize the written work of each

other, including using the written work as material in role-play. However, teachers should choose an interesting topic relating to the learners' age and ability.

In addition, Harmer (2002 : 261) states that there are a number of different approaches to the practice of writing skills as follows :

1. Process and product. He points put that teachers can focus on the product of the writing or on the writing process itself. If the teacher concentrates on the product, it means the teacher is only interested in the aim of a task and in the end product. On the contrary, if the process approach to writing is considered, he suggests that the teacher should ask the students to consider the procedure of putting together a good piece of work by discussing the concept of first and final drafts with the students and then ask them to say whether the following activities take place at first or final stages, and to put them in the best order as follows : 1) check language use (grammar, vocabulary, linkers) ; 2) check punctuation (and layout) ; 3) check the spelling ; 4) check the writing for unnecessary repetition of words and/or information ; 5) decide on the information for each paragraph, and the order the paragraph should go in ; 6) note down various ideas ; 7) select the best ideas for construction ; 8) write clean copy of the corrected version ; and 9) write out a rough version.

Furthermore, White and Arndt (1991 : 5 ; cited in Harmer. 2002 : 258) also state that the process writing is an interrelated set of recursive stages which include : 1) drafting ; 2) structuring that is ordering information, experimenting with arrangement, etc. ; 3) reviewing. That is checking context, connections, assessing impact, editing ; 4) focusing. That is making sure you are getting the message across you want to get across ; 5) generating ideas and evaluation. That is assessing the draft and/or subsequent drafts.

2. Writing and genre. In a genre approach to writing, students study texts in the genre they are going to be writing before they write their own writing. However, this writing approach is especially appropriate for students of English for Specific Purposes. But it is also highly useful for general English students if we want them to produce written they can be proud of.

3. Creative writing. This kind of writing is a journal of self-discovery, and self-discovery promotes effective learning. In addition, the term creative writing suggests imaginative tasks such as writing poetry, stories, and plays. The end result of this kind of writing is to make the writer feel to be some kind of achievement, and that most people feel pride in their work and want it to be read. When teacher sets up imaginative writing tasks so that the students are thoroughly engaged, those students frequently strive harder than usual to produce a greater variety of correct and appropriate language than they might for more routine assignments. Furthermore, it is also important not to expect whole compositions from the very first. Teachers should keep in mind that creative writing needs to be built up bit by bit, starting with phrases and sentences before expecting whole composition.

4. Writing as a cooperative activity. Boughey (1997 ; cited in Harmer. 2002 : 260) states that it has been found that group writing allowed the lecturer to give more detailed and constructive feedback since she/ he was detailing with a small number of groups rather than many individual students. Moreover, cooperative writing works well with both process and genre-based approaches. In process-based approach, reviewing and evaluation are greatly enhanced by having more than one person working on it, and the generation of ideas is frequently more lively with two or more people involved than it is when writers work on their own. Similarly, in genre-based

writing, two-head analyzes genre-specific texts as well as one head would do and often create genre-specific texts more successfully as a result.

5. Using the computer. There are many good reasons for using the computers for writing, such as, removing the problem of poor handwriting for some students, allowing the computer user to edit his or her material at great speed and with great facility, erasing the task of achieving correct spelling by spellcheckers and a computer screen can be far moved visible to the whole group than a piece of paper.

An importance use of the computer is as the means of creating 'mouse-pal,' the e-mail equivalent of pen-pals. In addition, getting students to write e-mails in English to others around the world can be extremely motivating. The communication is immediate and exciting, and may stimulate and motivate students where other letter writing does not.

## 2.4 Second Language Acquisition

Krashen (1987), an expert in the field of linguistics, specializing in theories of language acquisition and development, gives a brief description of widely known and well accepted theory of second language acquisition, which has had a large impact in all areas of second language research and teaching since the 1980s. Krashen's theory of second language acquisition consists of five main hypotheses: the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis.

1) The acquisition-learning distinction is the most fundamental of all the hypotheses in Krashen's theory and the most widely known among linguists and language practitioners. According to Krashen (1987), there are two independent systems of second language performance : 'the acquired system' and 'the learned

system'. The 'acquired system' or 'acquisition' is the product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children undergo when they acquire their first language. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language - natural communication - in which speakers are concentrated not in the form of their utterances, but in the communicative act. The 'learned system' or 'learning' is the product of formal instruction and it comprises a conscious process which results in conscious knowledge 'about' the language, for example knowledge of grammar rules. He also states that 'learning' is less important than 'acquisition'.

2) The monitor hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning and defines the influence of the latter on the former. The monitoring function is the practical result of the learned grammar. According to Krashen (1987), the acquisition system is the utterance initiator, while the learning system performs the role of the 'monitor' or the 'editor'. The 'monitor' acts in a planning, editing and correcting function when three specific conditions are met : that is, the second language learner has sufficient time at his/ her disposal, he/ she focuses on form or thinks about correctness, and he/ she knows the rule. It appears that the role of conscious learning is somewhat limited in second language performance. The role of the monitor is - or should be - minor, being used only to correct deviations from 'normal' speech and to give speech a more 'polished' appearance. He also suggests that there is individual variation among language learners with regard to 'monitor' use. He distinguishes those learners that use the 'monitor' all the time (over-users) ; those learners who have not learned or who prefer not to use their conscious knowledge (under-users) ; and those learners that use the 'monitor' appropriately (optimal users). An evaluation of the person's psychological profile can help to determine to what

group they belong.  Usually extroverts are under-users, while introverts and perfectionists are over-users.  Lack of self-confidence is frequently related to the over-use of the 'monitor'.

3) The natural order hypothesis is based on research findings (Dulay & Burt. 1974 ; Fathman. 1975 ; Makino. 1980; cited in Krashen. 1987) which suggests that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a 'natural order' which is predictable. For a given language, some grammatical structures tend to be acquired early while others late.  This order seems to be independent of the learners' age, L1 background, conditions of exposure, and although the agreement between individual acquirers is not always 100% in the studies, there are statistically significant similarities that reinforce the existence of a natural order of language acquisition.  Krashen, however points out that the implication of the natural order hypothesis is not that a language program syllabus should be based on the order found in the studies.  In fact, he rejects grammatical sequencing when the goal is language acquisition.

4) The input hypothesis is Krashen's attempt to explain how the learner acquires a second language.  In other words, this hypothesis is Krashen's explanation of how second language acquisition takes place.  So, the Input hypothesis is only concerned with 'acquisition', not 'learning'.  According to this hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses along the 'natural order' when he/she receives second language 'input' that is one step beyond his/ her current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if a learner is at a stage 'i', then acquisition takes place when he/ she is exposed to 'Comprehensible Input' that belongs to level 'i + 1'.  Since not all of the learners can be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that natural communicative input is the key to designing a

syllabus, ensuring in this way that each learner will receive some 'i + 1' input that is appropriate for his/ her current stage of linguistic competence.

5) Finally, the affective filter hypothesis, embodies Krashen's view that a number of 'affective variables' play a facilitative, but non-causal, role in second language acquisition. These variables include: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Krashen claims that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. Low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety can combine to 'raise' the affective filter and form a 'mental block' that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition. In other words, when the filter is 'up' it impedes language acquisition. On the other hand, positive affect is necessary, but not sufficient on its own, for acquisition to take place.

## 2.5 Error Analysis

### 2.5.1 Definitions of Error Analysis

There are a variety of theories and research methodologies regarding learning a second or foreign language. The practice of studying errors in translating the structures of the mother tongue and the target language or studying learners' competence can make the process of learning a second language more successful. When studying an error analysis, it is the trace to determine the problems of learning the second or target language in both speaking and writing skills. The researcher intends to discuss the definitions or terms concerning this study.

As for errors, Dulay et al. (1982) state that errors are the flawed components of a learners' speech or writing. They are the parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norm of natural language performance.

Corder (1975) uses the term "error" to refer to the features of the learner's utterances which differ from those of any native speakers.

Carter (1993) defines errors as the wrong deductions of the learners' nature of the second language.

For error analysis, Dulay et al. (1982) also state that it focuses on the creative aspects of language learning, which has helped to raise the status of errors from unwanted forms to the more instructive status of indicators of learning and guides to teaching.

From the definitions discussed, errors and error analysis are concerned with the second language learners which are important for studying the processes of second-language acquisition.

The first distinction we should make is mistakes and errors. A mistake refers to performance error that is either a random guess or a "slip", which are caused by the lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, etc. The latter refers to systematic errors of the target language.

Corder (1981) also makes distinction between overt and covert errors. An overt error is easy to identify, because there is a clear deviation in form. A covert error occurs in utterances that are superficially well formed but which do not mean what the learner intended them to mean.

Another division that is widely agreed on is that interlingual errors and intralingual errors believed by linguists. An error that results from language transfer,

which is caused by the learner's native language, is called interlingual errors. Intralingual errors refer to those produced in using the target language in own terms. They result from faulty or partial learning of the target language, rather than from language transfer.

Error analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make. It consists of a comparison between the errors made in the Target Language (TL) and that TL itself. Corder is the "Father" of Error Analysis (the EA with the "new look"). It was with his article entitled "The significance of Learner Errors" (1967) that EA took a new turn. Errors used to be "flaws" that needed to be eradicated. Corder presents a completely different point of view. He contends that those errors are "important in and of themselves." For learners themselves, errors are 'indispensable,' since the making of errors can be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn. In 1994, Gass and Selinker define errors as red flags that provide evidence of the learner's knowledge of the second language. Researchers are interested in errors which are believed to contain valuable information on the strategies that people use to acquire a language (Richards. 1974 ; Taylor. 1975 ; Dulay & Burt. 1974). Moreover, according to Richards and Sampson (1974 : 15), "At the level of pragmatic classroom experience, error analysis will continue to provide one means by which the teacher assesses learning and teaching and determines priorities for future effort." According to Corder (1974b), error analysis has two objects : one theoretical and another applied. The theoretical object serves to elucidate what and how a learner learns when he studies a second language. And the applied object serves to enable the learner to learn more efficiently by exploiting our knowledge of his dialect for pedagogical purposes.

The investigation of errors can be at the same time diagnostic and prognostic. It is diagnostic because it can tell us the learner's state of the language (Corder. 1967) at a given point during the learning process, and prognostic because it can tell course organizers to reorient language learning materials on the basis of the learners' current problems.

Ellis (1995 : 47-50) states that researchers and teachers in applied linguistics are interested in studying the language learning process, both for first language (L1) and second language (L2). Many researchers have found that first language learning is not difficult for learners at all. After acquiring first language information from their parents or teachers for a while, learners can use their first language correctly. They may have some mistakes in language use, but they can correct them automatically. On the other hand, most learners encounter difficulties in second language learning. They cannot use the second language as correctly as native speakers. Even though they may have been studying it for a long time, the errors in language usage continue to occur. Researchers have searched for the causes of these errors. They have hypothesized that these difficulties may come from the differences between L1 and L2.

In the 1960s, contrastive analysis was the preferred hypothesis explaining the causes of these difficulties in second language learning. Contrastive analysis stresses the interfering effects of the first language on the second language acquisition and claims that second language learning is primarily a process of acquiring whatever items are different for the first language based on a comparison of the learner's native and target language. In other words, the differences between the two languages account for the majority of the majority of the second language learner's errors. Such a narrow view of interference ignores the intralingual effects of learning.

Brown (1980 : 162-164) demonstrates that although contrastive analysis is useful in providing a framework for the development of useful pedagogical grammar because it strongly emphasizes phonology and syntax. Contrastive analysis is inadequate as a theory of language learning and in explaining errors. This is because interference errors are only one of many types of errors found in the learner's utterances in the second language.

According to Dulay et al. (1982 : 141), error analysis is replaced contrastive analysis because most researchers and teachers notice that a great number of student errors could not possibly be traced to their native languages. For example, although Spanish and English plurals are formed almost exactly alike, Spanish-speaking children still had trouble with plurals (Chavez. 1972 ; cited in Dulay et al. 1982 : 140). This points out the gap between theory and reality. For this reason, error analysis comes to be more accepted as a better approach. The error analysis movement can be characterized as an attempt to account for learners' errors that could not be explained or predicted by contrastive analysis or behaviorist theory.

### 2.5.2 Importance of Error Analysis

As error analysis becomes an important tool for teachers or researchers to find the problems and discover causes of occurring errors in second language learning, many researchers have voiced their opinions about the advantages of error analysis.

Richards et al. (1971 ; cited in Sridhar. 1980 : 104) point out that error analysis can reveal many other types of errors frequently made by learners, such as, intralanguage errors arising from the particular teaching and learning strategy employed. In addition, error analysis provides not only hypothetical problems but also data on actual and attested problems. Therefore, it forms a more efficient and economical basis for designing pedagogical strategies.

Moreover, Abbott and Wingard (1981 : 213 – 215) state that error analysis has many advantages both for researcher, teacher, syllabus designer, and material writer. For the researcher, errors are studied in order to find out something about the learning process and about the strategies employed by human beings learning another language. By studying samples of language produced by the foreign learner, the researcher can discover what she/ he thinks the rules of the foreign language are. For the teacher, syllabus designer, and material writer, a study of the learner's errors can show what problems the learner is having now, and help the teacher to plan remedial work. A survey of errors of one group may help the teacher to predict that, probably, there will be the same problems for a future similar group. Error analysis may also indicate learning items which will require special attention and extra practice. The last advantage is that error analysis may also suggest modifications in teaching techniques or order of presentation in order to simply identify the difficulties for the learner in studying the language.

Teachers and learners of English as well as syllabus designers and materials producers have much to gain from the studies of error analysis and interlanguage. Error analysis helps the teachers to assess whatever they have taught and whatever the learners have learned and make plans for the future. If teachers understand that learners cannot achieve native speaker's competence directly, they would be ready to accept the varieties of language which their learners produce. These varieties may be different from the well-formed utterances found in the course book drill or dialogue. But a close study of the learners' English will provide "the sort of data on which realistic predictions about learning and teaching can be based". According to Richards and Sampson (1974), when teachers realize that learners have to pass

through various stages to achieve competence, they would set more realistic goals for particular learning situations.

### 2.5.3 Error Analysis and Interlanguage

With regard to the aspects dealing with the methodology of error analysis, particularly as it is applied to the analysis of an adult learner's syntax in a second language. Corder (1971) states that the language of the learner or the social group of learners is a special sort of dialect. This is based on two considerations : 1) the spontaneous speech intended by the speaker to communicate is a meaningful and systematic set of rules and so is the spontaneous speech of the second-language learner ; and 2) a number of sentences of that language are similar and have the same interpretation or rules needed to account for the learner's language which will be the same as those to account for the target language. Therefore, the learner's language is a dialect in the linguistic sense ; two languages which share some rules of grammar are dialects" as in Figure 2.1
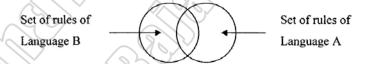


Set of rules of
Language B

Set of rules of
Language A

**Figure 2.1** A Dialect Relation (Corder. 1971: cited in Chownahe. 2000 : 13)

From the figure above, language A and language B are in a dialect relation. It means that the learner's language and the target language have some similarities. It is intended to illustrate the importance of the relationship between a mother tongue and a learner's dialect, the variables involve in learning a second language. At this

point, the dialect of a learner shares some language systems or rules with a second language, which is called idiosyncratic dialect (Corder. 1971). Selinker (1969) proposes the name interlanguage, that is a dialect whose rules share characteristics of two social dialects or languages, whether these languages themselves share rules or not. It is as in Figure 2.2
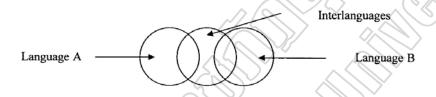


**Figure 2.2** Transitional Dialect (Corder. 1971 : cited in Chownahe. 2000 : 14)

This diagram can be called transitional dialect, emphasizing the unstable nature of such dialect. From Figure 2.2, it can be concluded that the transitional stage in learning a target language is acquired. The linguistic knowledge of the learners in the native language and the target or second language is the "interlanguage".

For studying transitional dialect, Michaelides (1990) has studied error analysis as an aid to teaching and correcting all kinds of compositions, translations and summaries. He has found students' errors to be errors of performance and errors of competence. The source of errors he studied is mother tongue interference and interference from the target language, also called the "transitional dialect". The errors he collected for analysis fall into eight domains, in order of seriousness and

frequency of occurrence. They are : 1) wrong word order ; 2) misuse of tenses ; (3) misuse of prepositions ; 4) misuse of articles ; 5) omission of indirect object pronouns and indefinite "it" as subject ; 6) misuse of certain words which seem to stand for the "same" object (story-history, stranger-foreigner), state (ill-sick, foolish-mad), or act (lose-miss, dress-wear) ; 7) orthography ; and 8) miscellaneous. The errors are presented in class and corrected by the learners. Language learning helps the learner a great deal through the process of error correction and explicit rule learning. It assists the learner to come to the correct mental representation of the linguistic generalization.

Furthermore, Sridhar (1982 : 102 – 103) also supports that error analysis is the way to define "error" in a formally rigorous and pedagogically insightful way or to systematically account for the occurrence of errors both in linguistic and psychological terms. Thus, error analysis is an important attempt to deal with the practical needs of the classroom teacher. If the learners' errors are observed, analyzed and classified, the learning system operating within the learners will be revealed because error analysis differs from contrastive analysis as its examination of errors coming from all possible sources, not those which result from negative transfer of the native language only.

Ellis (1985 : 68 – 69) suggests that error analysis ought to be one of the first methods used to investigate leaner language, replacing contrastive analysis which was popular in the 1970s. It consists of four stages. The first stage of error analysis is to collect a massive, specific, or incidental sample of learner language. The sample could consist of natural language use or be elicited both clinically or experimentally and also be collected cross-sectionally or longtitudinally. The second stage is the

identification of error. The third stage is error description, and the fourth stage is the
error explanation in a psycholinguistic way.

Selinker (1992 : 139) states that error analysis serves five helpful purposes.
First, it teases out of these literatures interlanguage hypotheses that can be empirically
tested. Second, it provides these hypotheses possible frameworks of theoretical
thought. Third, it provides analytical tools for both old and new data sets. Fourth,
it enhances the breadth and depth of interlanguage explanations. Fifth, it trains
scholars of second language acquisition in descriptive interlanguage analytical
techniques.

From the description of error analysis mentioned above, it could be concluded
that it is the most advantageous approach for teachers to find the causes of difficulties
in second language learning. To use error analysis as an effective tool, it is necessary
to master all the processes. Therefore, all the relevant details about error analysis
such as the difference between errors and mistakes, the advantages of error analysis,
and problems and limitations in analyzing errors are revealed as presented in the
following sections.

### 2.5.4 Causes of Errors

After the error analysis and interlanguage is presented above, it is very
important, according to the second purpose of this study, to explain the details of the
causes of errors as follows:

Norrish (1983 : 21 – 34) lists six causes of errors as follows :

1. Carelessness. It is often closely related to lack of motivation.
One way of reducing the number of 'careless' errors in written work is to get students
to check each other's work. This will involve students in an active search for errors.

At the same time, while discussing these errors in class, English can be used for genuine communication.

  2. First language interference. Skinner (1957 ; cited in Norrish. 1983 : 22) states that if language is essentially a set of habits, then when we try to learn new habits the old ones will interfere with the new ones. This is referred to as mother tongue interference or first language interference.

  3. Translation. Generally, the learners usually produce a funny phrase by translating word by word an idiomatic expression in the learner's first language. For example, German speakers may say :

    'It makes me nothing out.' instead of 'I didn't mind.'

    'Equal goes it loose.' Instead of 'It' s about to start.'

  4. Overgeneralization. It 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.

  5. Incomplete application of rules. These kinds of errors may come from two causes. The first is the use of questions in the classroom where the learner is encouraged to repeat the question or part of it in the answer. For example :

    Teacher : Ask her where she lives.

    Student : Where you (she) live (s)?

The other second possible cause is the fact that the learners may discover that they can communicate perfectly adequately using deviant forms.

  6. Material – induced errors. There are two types of errors which may be induced by teaching materials : the first is the false concept. This kind of error will be familiar to many teachers of English. For example, the use of the present

continuous tense in the wrong situation. This error may come from the inappropriate context in teaching such as using a series of pictures to illustrate a sequence of actions, with the caption in the present continuous although the use of the tense in this context is unnatural. A more appropriate context to teach the present continuous tense is a radio commentary of a football match ; the second is ignorance of rule restrictions. This kind of error often involves the construction of false analogies, very similar activity to what children do when experimenting with their own language. For instance, a learner may use the noun 'discussion,' and recalls that it is linked to another noun or noun phrase with the preposition 'about' (e.g. a discussion about nuclear energy). Then, when the verb 'discuss' occurs, the learner thinks that it is correct to use the same preposition. Therefore, this leads to 'We discussed about the oil crisis?'

According to Richards' (1971) types of errors presented, all types can be characterized as Dulay et al. (1982) definition of language phenomena caused different error types. They are classified as follows :

1. Omission. Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance. Although any morpheme or word in a sentence is a potential candidate for omission, some type of morphemes are omitted more than others.

2. Addition. Addition errors are the opposite of omissions. They are characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. Addition errors usually occurs in the later stages of second language acquisition when the learner has already acquired some target language rules. In fact, addition errors result from the use of certain rules.

3. Misformation. Misformation errors are characterized by the use of wrong form 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.

In addition, Richards (1971 ; cited in Ellis. 1995 : 59) divides intralingual errors into the following four categories :

1. Overgeneralization errors. This kind of error occurs when the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of other structures in the target language. Generally, it involves the creation of one deviant structure in place of two target language structures such as 'He can sings,' or 'He sings.'

2. Ignorance of rule restrictions. This kind of error involves the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. An example is 'He made me to rest.' The writer makes the kind of mistake by extending the pattern found with the majority of verbs that take infinitive complements. For example, 'He asked/ wanted/ invited me to go.' Furthermore, analogy and memorization may be causes of this kind of error.

3. Incomplete application of rules. This kind of error involves a failure to fully develop a structure. Therefore, learners of L2 English have been observed to use the declarative word order in questions. For example, 'You like to sing' in place of the interrogative word order, 'Do you like to sing?' This type of intralingual error corresponds to what is often referred to as an error of transitional competence.

4.  False concepts hypothesized (i.e. the learner fails to comprehend fully). This kind of error occurs when the learner does not fully comprehend a distinction in the target language such as the use of 'was' as a marker of parts tense in 'One day it was happened.'

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991 : 58 – 59) divide errors into six types as follows :

1.  Interlanguage errors are errors that come from first language interference.

2.  Intralanguage errors come from the second language itself.

3.  Overgeneralization errors come from the learners' failure to observe the boundaries of a rule.

4.  Implication or redundancy reduction are errors that come from the differences between the first and second languages such as when a plural marker is omitted from a noun preceded by a cardinal number larger than one.

5.  Communication-based errors result when speakers solicit communicative strategies.

6.  Induced errors which are brought about by a teacher's sequencing or presenting two linguistic items in a way which creates confusion in the language learner's mind.

Littlewood (1995 : 22) proposes that the learners' errors need not be seen as signs of failure. On the contrary, they are the clearest evidence of the learners' developing systems and can offer teachers insight into how they process the data of the language.

Regarding second language acquisition, Richards and Simpson (1974) state that the factors affecting second language acquisition of the learners are as follows :

1. Language transfer. Sentences in the target language may exhibit interference from the mother tongue.

2. Intralingual interference. This refers to items produced by the learner which reflects not only the structure of the mother tongue, but also generalization based on partial exposure to the target language.

3. Sociolinguistic situation. Different settings for language use result in different degrees and types of language learning. These may be distinguished in terms of the effects of the sociocultural setting of the learner's language and the relation between the learner and the target language community and the respective linguistic markers of these relations and identities. In this factor, the motivation for learning a second language may be included.

4. Modality. The modality of perception to the target language and the modality of production may involve the acquisition of two partially overlapping systems.

5. Age. This may affect the approximative system (i.e., the deviant linguistic system used by the learners attempting to use the target language), and it is one of the aspects of the child's learning capacities that changes as he grows older. The memory span increases with age and when he acquires a great number of abstract concepts, he uses these to interpret his experience of language learning.

6. Successions of approximative systems. This factor concerns the lack of stably approximative system of a learner. Such system is unstable in given individuals because there is continuous improvement in learning the target language. In addition, the circumstances surrounding individuals' language learning are never

identical, and the acquisition of new lexical, phonological, and syntactic items varies from one individual to another.

    7. Universal hierarchy of difficulty. This factor concerns the inherent difficulty for some students in learning certain phonological, syntactic, or semantic items and structures. Some forms may be inherently difficult for both non-native speakers and some native speakers. These difficulties result not only from interlingual interference but also because of universally difficult nature of the language elements.

    All of the seven factors discussed are problems or difficulties for learning a second language. They are factors that apply both to the learners themselves and the circumstances around the learners. Linguists or language teachers must understand these factors to facilitate the learners' condition and teach effectively. Errors in learning a second language may come from some factors previously discussed. Corder (1967) states that a learner's errors provide evidence of the system of language that he has learned at a particular point in the course. Recognizing the nature of such errors is significant for a teacher to undertake a systematic analysis. A teacher attempts to get students achieve in learning a language. For a researcher, errors provide evidence of how language is learned or acquired. He can discern the strategy or procedure the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Moreover, errors can be used by the learner himself to better understand the areas in which he is specially deficient and requires practice. It is a method the learner can use to test a hypothesis about the nature of the language he is learning. The making of errors, then, is a strategy employed by both the children acquiring their mother tongue and by those learning a second language.

Corder (1975) also states that the most obvious practical use of the analysis of errors is to the teacher. Errors provide feedback, they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques, and show him what parts of the syllabus have to be improved for teaching. For the theoretical uses of error analysis, the linguist wants to understand what is going on when people learn languages. He has to study the learners' errors, for the application of a scientific discipline to the solution of practical problems provides feedback to theory.

Additionally, Selinker (1974) suggests that the process of learning a second language includes some elements of a latent psychological structure. A learner makes errors from linguistic items, rules and subsystems which are called fossilizable linguistic phenomena. They come in five categories as follows :

1. Language transfer occurring in interlanguage (IL) performances resulting from the native language of the learners.

2. Transfer of training resulting from identifiable items in training procedures.

3. Strategies of second language learning resulting from an identifiable approach by the learner to the material to be learned.

4. Strategies of second language communication resulting from an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers of the target language.

5. Overgeneralization of the target language (TL) linguistic material resulting from a clear overgeneralization of TL rules and semantic features.

From five categories mentioned, it can be concluded that a learner's errors come from different aspects of language acquisition. The errors can be made use of by the teacher, the researcher, as well as the learner himself. An error analysis can

provide complete explanations of a second language learning process. In second language learning, it is important that the teacher understand the causes of the student errors if he is to improve his teaching method or create a syllabus of effective language teaching in schools.

### 2.5.5 Types of Error Analysis

Dulay et al. (1982 : 146 – 191) use three descriptive classifications of errors ; linguistic category, surface strategy, and comparative analysis. As for this research, it is intended to study students' errors by using linguistic category. Linguistic category is a technique which involves using error taxonomy. These linguistic category taxonomies classify errors according to either or both the language component and the particular linguistic constituent the error affects. Language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style); whereas, constituents include the elements that comprise each language, such as the main clause, subordinate clause, verb phrase, preposition, etc.

Therefore, the types of errors for error analysis in this research are divided into three types following linguistic taxonomy, namely, grammatical errors, syntactic errors, and lexical errors as follows :

1. Grammatical errors

1.1 Errors in the use of nouns

1.1.1 Omission of nouns

a) It is an important ... to remember.

(It is an important event to remember.)

b) There are some useful ... to improve writing skill.

(There are some useful strategies to improve writing skill)

1.1.2 Omission of plural endings

    a) She has three children, one daughter and two son. (sons)

    b) There are some book on my desk. (books)

1.1.3 Misuse of plural endings

    a) My familys is in Buriram, Thailand. (family)

    b) I saw three knifes in the kitchen. (knives)

    c) My sister has two babys. (babies)

1.1.4 The use of singular nouns instead of plural nouns

    a) I like a cat. (I like cats.)

    b) There are a lot of child in the amusement park. (children)

1.1.5 The use of plural nouns instead of singular nouns

    a) My elder sister has one children. (child)

    b) There is a men in the office. (man)

1.1.6 Confusion of nouns with other words

    a) It is importance to have a close friend. (important)

    b) Football is a popularity sport in Thailand. (popular)

1.2 Errors in the use of pronouns

    1.2.1 The use of subject pronouns instead of object pronouns

        a) He told we that the teacher has a meeting today. (us)

        b) I am not going to do it for he. (him)

    1.2.2 The use of object pronouns instead of subject pronouns

        a) My friends and me have to do a lot of homework today. (I)

        b) I think that her know this story. (she)

1.2.3 The use of singular pronouns instead of plural pronouns

    a) They bought some mangoes and put <u>it</u> in the refrigerator.

(them)

    b) He has two sons and he often takes <u>him</u> to the amusement park.

(them)

1.2.4 The use of plural pronouns instead of singular pronouns

    a) I bought a carton of milk. I put <u>them</u> in the refrigerator. (it)

    b) My parents like going shopping. <u>He</u> also takes my dog with them.

(They)

1.2.5 The use of personal pronouns instead of possessive adjectives

    a) This is <u>it</u> food. (its)

    b) I saw <u>you</u> new car yesterday. (your)

1.2.6 Repetition of pronouns or insertion of an unnecessary pronoun

    a) He is riding the bicycle that he modified <u>it</u> by himself.

(He is riding the bicycle that he modified by himself.)

    b) They go to school and they play football.

(They go to school and play football.)

1.2.7 Omission of pronouns

    a) My grandfather gave … the presents on my birthday. (me)

    b) The mechanic told … the price of repairing. (us)

1.3 Errors in the use of verbs

1.3.1 Misuse of gerund and infinitive

    a) Jack went <u>buying</u> shoes. (to buy)

    b) My father taught me <u>speaking</u> English. (to speak)

c) The children enjoy <u>to sing</u> songs. (singing)

1.3.2 Modal/Auxiliary

    a) I <u>must to</u> go to the airport. (must go)

    b) John <u>should to</u> improve his writing skill. (should)

1.3.3 Confusion between verb to have and verb to be

    a) He <u>had</u> happy. (was)

    b) This garden <u>has</u> very beautiful. (is)

1.3.4 Confusion between verbs and other words

    a) The <u>announce</u> of the government makes the citizens feel

       relaxing.  (announcement)

    b) The earthquake <u>effects</u> the economy of our country.

       (affects)

    c) That event is my <u>appreciate</u> experience. (appreciative)

    d) The medicine makes me feel <u>sleep</u>. (sleepy)

    e) My sister opened the windows <u>hurry</u>. (hurriedly)

1.4 Errors in the use of adverbs

1.4.1 Misuse of adverbs

    a) The company will send us a new product <u>in a quick time</u>.

    (The company will send us a new product <u>immediately</u>)

    b) The big car turned into the street <u>with a little moving</u>.

    (The big car turned into the street <u>slowly</u>.)

1.4.2 Omission of adverbs

    a) My father … takes a nap in the afternoon.

    (My father <u>always</u> takes a nap in the afternoon.)

b) This room is so dark. I cannot see … .

(This room is so dark. I cannot see <u>clearly</u>.)

1.4.3 Confusion between adverbs and adjectives

a) Some students are sitting in that <u>quietly</u> classroom. (quiet)

b) He always makes a <u>loudly</u> noise. (loud)

1.5 Errors in the use of adjectives

1.5.1 The use of adjectives without verb to be

a) They will happy very much.

(They will <u>be</u> happy very much.)

b) I surprised when I knew the news.

(I <u>am</u> surprised when I knew the news.)

1.5.2 Misuse of adjectives

a) My mother is very <u>exciting</u> that she gets the present.

(excited)

b) This movie is very <u>bored.</u> (boring)

1.5.3 Confusion between adjectives and adverbs

a) She waited <u>excited</u>. (excitedly)

b) Sopon eats very <u>noisy</u>. (noisily)

1.5.4 Confusion between adjectives and other words

a) I will take this book because the story inside is my

<u>interesting</u>. (interest)

b) It is very hard for me to write an essay because I am not

good at <u>grammatical</u>. (grammar)

1.6 Errors in the use of prepositions

    1.6.1 Omission of prepositions

        a) I have been living here three years.

        (I have been living here <u>for</u> three years.)

        b) John always goes to work 8 o'clock.

        (John always goes to work <u>at</u> 8 o'clock.)

    1.6.2 Misuse of prepositions

        a) I don't like working <u>in</u> Sunday.

        (I don't like working <u>on</u> Sunday.)

        b)  My teacher is in the third room <u>in</u> the left.

        (My teacher is in the third room <u>on</u> the left.)

    1.6.3 Misplacement of prepositions

        a) She is talking something <u>about</u>.

        (She is talking <u>about</u> something.)

        b) He walked the building <u>round</u>.

        (He walked <u>round</u> the building.)

1.7 Errors in the use of conjunction

    1.7.1 Omission of conjunction

        a) Jansuda walked slowly… silently.

        (Jansuda walked slowly <u>and</u> silently.)

        b) After working hard for weeks, he is more fluent… professional.

        (After working hard for weeks, he is more fluent and professional.)

1.7.2 Misuse of conjunction

a) Which one do you prefer, the red <u>and</u> pink?

(Which one do you prefer, the red <u>or</u> pink?)

1.8 Errors in the use of agreement

1.8.1 Subject-verb agreement

a) John <u>live</u> in England. (<u>lives</u>)

b) Everyone <u>are</u> in the room. (<u>is</u>)

1.8.2 Determiner-noun agreement

a) Those <u>woman</u> like to eat papaya salad. (women)

b) <u>This</u> boys are girls are my students. (these)

1.8.3 Agreement in number

a) There are not <u>much</u> officers in our office. (<u>many</u>)

b) This company can make <u>many</u> money a year. (much)

1.9 Errors in the use of determiners

1.9.1. Definite articles

1.9.1.1 Omission of definite articles

a) We see … moon at night. (We see <u>the</u> moon at night.)

b) My mother always cooks in … kitchen.

(My mother always cooks in <u>the</u> kitchen.)

1.9.1.2 Misuse of definite articles

a) She is studying at <u>the</u> Chulalongkorn University.

(She is studying at Chulalongkorn University.)

b) We play <u>the</u> tennis and <u>the</u> football every day.

(We play tennis and football every day.)

1.9.1.3 The use of definite articles instead of indefinite articles

    a) There is <u>the</u> dog in my house. (There is <u>a</u> dog in my house.)

    b) Yesterday, I saw <u>the</u> man in the park. He is very handsome.

(Yesterday, I saw <u>a</u> man in the park. He is very handsome.)

1.9.1.4 The use of definite articles instead of other determiners

    a) He put the hat on <u>the</u> head. (He put the hat on <u>his</u> head.)

    c) One of <u>the</u> friends works in the bank.

(One of <u>my</u> friends works in the bank.)

1.9.2. Indefinite articles

1.9.2.1 Omission of indefinite articles

    a) My uncle is… engineer. (an)

    b)  He bought… car yesterday. (a)

1.9.2.2 Misuse of indefinite articles

    a) <u>An</u> information is very important to work.

(Information is very important to work)

    b) The student has <u>a</u> knowledge of grammar.

(The student has knowledge of grammar.)

1.9.2.3 The use of indefinite articles instead of definite articles

    a) <u>A</u> book on the floor is mine. (<u>The</u> book on the floor is mine.)

    b) <u>A</u> man who is standing over there is my teacher.

(<u>The</u> man who is standing over there is my teacher.)

    c) Our country has a king. <u>A</u> king is very kind.

(<u>The</u> king is very kind.)

1.9.2.4 The use of indefinite articles instead of other determiners

a) We should get ready now. A flight will leave for Bangkok at 10 am.

(Our flight will leave for Bangkok at 10 am.)

b) A pink bag is mine. I bought it from the weekend market.

(That pink bag is mine.)

1.10 Errors in the use of tenses

1.10.1 The use of wrong tenses

a) The swimming pool opened at 9.30 am. and closed at 17.30

pm. (opens/closes)

b) He was an English teacher of this school. (is)

c) Police stop a speeding car last week. (stopped)

d) She often makes mistakes when she was seventeen. (made)

e) She is usually washing dishes in the morning. (usually

washes)

f) My father is eating breakfast every morning. (eats)

g) The sun was shining at the moment. (is shining)

h) Mr. Carrick was looking at you. (is looking)

(i) She always sent e-mail to her parents. (sends)

1.10.2 The incorrect form of tenses

a) Suchart is wants to work in a bank. (wants)

b) The bird flyed to another three. (flow)

c) We puted some fruit into the basket. (put)

d) She was cook in the kitchen. (was cooking)

e) He always eating noodle at the canteen. (is eating)

f) The company <u>will got</u> a lot of money from this project.

(will get)

g) If I study hard, my English <u>will improved</u>. (will improve.)

1.11 Errors in the use of possessives

    1.11.1. Possessive adjectives

        1.11.1.1 Omission of possessive adjectives

        a) She bought some cookies and wine for… husband and

children.  (She bought some cookies and wine for <u>her</u> husband

and children.)

        b) Somsak went to the computer shop to take… laptop.

(Somsak went to the computer shop to take <u>his</u> laptop.)

    1.11.2 Apostrophe s

        1.11.2.1 Omission of apostrophe s

        a) Because my car was broken down, I drove Jane… car to

work. (I drove Jane's car to work.)

        b) Today Michael is going to buy a present for Kate … birthday.

(Kate's birthday.)

        1.11.2.2 Misuse of apostrophe s

        a) My family always has a small party on Christmas<u>'s</u> day.

(My family always has a small party on Christmas day.)

        b) Ronaldo is now the most popular football<u>'s</u> player in the

world. (Ronaldo is now the most popular football player in the

world.)

1.12 Error in the use of punctuations

    1.12.1. Omission of commas

        a) Dan… Tim and Nat are playing volleyball. (Dan, Tim and

        Nat are playing volleyball.)

        b) Because the weather was very hot… we didn't go to play

        football. (Because the weather was very hot, we didn't go to

        play football.)

    1.12.2. Misuse of commas

        a) I came here in order to study English, it is his special

        interest.

        (I came here in order to study English. It is his special interest.)

        b) May I borrow your pen please. I forgot bringing it today.

        (May I borrow your pen please? I forgot bringing it today.)

    1.12.3. Omission of periods

        a) When we were in Bangkok, we went shopping several

        places… (When we were in Bangkok, we went shopping

        several places.)

        b) I have an impressive experience when I was a child…

        (I have an impressive experience when I was a child.)

    1.12.4. Misuse of periods

        a) After we finished washing dishes. We went to see the movie.

        (After we finished washing dishes, we went to see the movie.)

        b) When I first came here. I did not understand what people

        say.

(When I first came here, I did not understand what people say.)

1.12.5 Omission of question marks

    a) Are you going to the party tomorrow. (Are you going to the party tomorrow?)

    b) When did you hear the news. (When did you hear the news?)

1.12.6 Misuse of question marks

    a) I need to borrow some money? (I need to borrow some money.)

    b) Cherry spends most of her time studying? (Cherry spends most of her time studying.)

1.12.7. Omission of quotation marks

    a) Everybody enjoys and shouts, Happy New Year. (Everybody enjoys and shouts, "Happy New Year.")

    b) He gave me a present and said, Merry Christmas. (He gave me a present and said, "Merry Christmas.")

1.12.8. Misuse of quotation marks

    a) He will finish "his project" tomorrow.

    (He will finish his project tomorrow.)

    b) She is meeting "Dr. Paul" next Wednesday.

    "She is meeting "Dr. Paul" next Wednesday."

1.13. Errors in the use of contraction forms

    a) I'm very happy whenever I think of that event. (I am very happy whenever I think of that event.)

b) He's talking with her mother. (He is talking with her mother.)

1.14 Errors in the use of capitalization

1.14.1 Uncapitalization of the word at the beginning of the sentences

a) the coffee is so hot that I cannot drink it. (The)

b) when I went to the sea, I bought three swimming suits. (When)

1.14.2 Capitalization of adverbs

a) He sends that e-mail to David Quickly. (quickly)

1.14.3 Capitalization of preposition

a) At 6 pm On Thursday, we went to the park. (on)

1.14.4 Capitalization of possessive adjectives

a) However, His special ability can help our team to be the champion. (his)

1.14.5 Capitalization of conjunctions

a) The movie was very boring, So we get out before it ends. (so)

1.14.6 Capitalization of pronouns

a) Last Monday, We went to eat ice-cream after class. (we)

1.14.7 Capitalization of verbs

a) Then she could Find her grandmother. (find)

1.14.8 Uncapitalization of the proper nouns

a) Everyone in the class went to rayong for English camp. (Rayong)

1.14.9 Capitalization of adjectives

a) That <u>Tall</u> man is our new English teacher. (tall)

1.14.10 Capitalization of the common noun

a) He can play Guitar and sing very well. (He can play guitar and sing very well.)

1.14.11 Capitalization of article

a) I used to be <u>A</u> Boy Scout. (I used to be <u>a</u> Boy Scout.)

2. Syntactic errors

2.1 The use of incomplete sentence structures

2.1.1. The use of fragment

a) Students who are sitting in the classroom. are doing the examination. (Students who are sitting in the classroom are doing the examination.)

b) <u>At 3 o'clock in the afternoon.</u> We went to Big C (At 3 o'clock in the afternoon, we went to Big C)

c) I went to bed. <u>Because I was sleepy.</u> (I went to bed because I was sleepy.)

2.1.2. Omission of subjects

a) Whenever I go to the sea, … swim with my family. (Whenever I go to the sea, I swim with my family.)

b) In the evening, … went to the amusement park. (In the evening, we went to the amusement park.)

2.1.3. Omission of verbs

    a) They … very happy. (are)

    b) Jane always … on time. (comes)

2.1.4. Omission of objects or complements

    a) I am not free now. I am doing… (a grammar exercise)

    b) I don't eat … in the morning. I am always hungry during

class. (breakfast)

    c) He put the ring on … and asked her to marry. (her finger)

2.2 Error in the use of parallel structures

    a) It is the funny experience and enjoy I remember. (enjoyment)

    b) He is a lawyer and politic. (He is a lawyer and politician.)

    c) We love a pet dog because playing with it makes us happy

and relax. (relaxed)

    d) I admire him for his intelligence, personality, and he is

honest. (honesty)

    e) We ate dinner happily and quick. (quickly)

    f) My friends and I enjoy drinking and dance in party.

(dancing)

    g) The football players like to play football in the evening and

talking with their coach afterwards. (talk)

2.3 Errors in compound sentences

2.3.1 Omission of 'and'

    a) It was holiday… most people stay at home. (and)

    b) She went to the market, … bought some toys for me. (and)

2.3.2 Omission of 'but'

    a) The students were on time, … the teacher was late. (but)

    b) The phone rang, … I didn't answer it. (but)

2.3.3 Omission of 'so'

    a) I wanted to drink coffee,… I went to buy a cup of it. (so)

    b) I was very hungry,… I got something to eat. (so)

2.4 Errors in word order

  2.4.1 Misplaced adverb

    a) They are thirsty very. (They are very thirsty)

    b) They always are active to answer questions. (They are

    always active to answer questions.)

  2.4.2 Misplaced noun objects

    a) She turns off it. (She turns it off.)

    b) He went to school to pick his children up. (He went to school

    to pick up his children.)

  2.4.3 Misplaced adjectives

    a) Somsak is a boy clever very. (Somsak is a very clever boy.)

    b) There is new nothing for us to do. (There is nothing new for

    us to do.)

  2.4.4 Misplaced verbs

    a) I will wait for him until the ends class. (I will wait for him

    until the class ends.)

    b) This movie will about two hours last. (This movie will last

    about two hours.)

2.4.5 Inappropriate word order

a) I and my friends often scream when the ghosts appear. (My friends and I often scream when the ghosts appear.)

2.5. Errors in complex sentences

2.5.1 Omission of relative pronouns

a) My close friend ……. was here yesterday has gone to Phnom Rung Historical Park. (My close friend who was here yesterday has gone to Phnom Rung Historical Park.)

b) She is sitting on the sofa …..is very soft. (She is sitting on the sofa which is very soft.)

2.6 Errors in the use of 'there' structure

2.6.1 Confusion of anticipatory "there + be" with "verb to have"

a) The gifts have ten pieces on the table. (There are ten gifts on the table)

b) It is a big party and have a lot of people. (It is a big party and there are a lot of people.)

2.6.2 Confusion of anticipatory "there + be" with "determiner"

a) Yesterday, this was a dog in the park. (Yesterday, there was a dog in the park.)

2.7 Errors in the use of voices

2.7.1 Misuse of the passive and active voice

a) The school is ended. (The school ends.)

b) I think she hurt by her husband. I think she was hurt by her husband.

2.7.2 Incorrect form of the passive voice

    a) They <u>are surprise</u> when they saw the presents. (They <u>are</u> <u>surprised</u> when they saw the presents.)

    b) This ring <u>is make</u> of gold. (This ring <u>is made</u> of gold.)

2.8 Errors in run on sentences

    2.8.1 Two main clauses with no punctuation mark between them

        a) He went jogging in the evening… after that… he went to have dinner with his girlfriend. (He went jogging in the evening. After that, he went to have dinner with his girlfriend.)

        b) No matter how rich or poor you are… you can take this course. (No matter how rich or poor you are, you can take this course.)

        c. When I was ten years… old I was a naughty boy. (When I was ten years old, I was a naughty boy.)

2.9 Errors in the use of comparison

    a) Songkran days is <u>the most funniest</u> days for Thai people. (Songkran days is <u>the funniest</u> days for Thai people.)

    b) Our grandfather is <u>very kind than</u> everybody. (Our grandfather is kinder than everybody.)

    c) I think that English is <u>more easy than</u> math. (I think that English is easier than math.)

2.10 Redundancy

a) Nowadays, internet is used by people around the world today. (Nowadays, internet is used by people around the world.)

b) I like spicy food like papaya salad and so do my brother and sister like too. (I like spicy food like papaya salad and so do my brother and sister.)

3. Lexical errors

3.1 Errors in spelling

a) They do not like the cold wether. (weather)

b) She looks very cheerful to day. (today)

3.2 Errors in literal translation from Thai (L1) to English (L2)

a) Schools every places can participate in this project. (Every school)

b) Although you are rich or poor, you can enjoy the party. (No matter you are rich or poor, you can enjoy the party.)

c) He used his student to buy things. (asked)

3.3 Error in word choice

a) I meet a gift and a rose on my desk. (find)

b) My mother usually alarms me in the morning. (wake up)

c) Everybody in the party is very happy and they tell "Happy New Year. (say)

d) The children cut the gifts. (open)

e) The girl gets some flower into the vase. (puts)

### 2.5.6 Techniques for Error Analysis

After presenting the procedures used in error analysis, attention can be turned to techniques of error analysis.

Dulay et al. (1982 : 146 – 191) use three descriptive classifications of errors ; linguistic category, surface strategy, and comparative analysis.

1. Linguistic category. This technique involves using error taxonomy. These linguistic category taxonomies classify errors according to either or both the language component or the particular linguistic constituent the error affects. Language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style); whereas, constituents include the elements that comprise each language, such as the main clause, subordinate clause, verb phrase, preposition, etc. However, a full presentation of language components and constituents would require a summary of descriptive linguistics. In addition, many researchers use the linguistic category taxonomy as a reporting tool which organizes the errors they have collected.

2. Comparative analysis. This technique can be made by using comparative taxonomy, based on comparisons between the structure of L2 errors and certain other types of constructions. For example, a comparative taxonomy to classify the errors of a Korean student learning English is to be made the structure of the student's errors should be compared to that of errors reported for children acquiring English as a first language. These comparisons have yielded the two major error categories in this taxonomy. Two other categories are derived from the first two : ambiguous errors, which are classified as either developmental or interlingual.

3. Surface strategy taxonomy. This technique concerns identifying the cognitive processes that cause the learner's reconstruction of the new language. It also makes us aware that learners' errors are based on some logic, not the result of laziness or sloppy thinking ; the learners can produce a new language by using interim principles. The classifications of errors based on surface strategy taxonomy are omission, double marking, regularization, simple addition, misformation, and misordering.

Norrish (1983 : 81 – 88) suggests three different methods of carrying out an error analysis as follows :

1. The pre-selected category approach. For this approach, he proposes three points. First, the material from which the errors are taken should be representative of the student's standard work. It must be free writing because guided writing will only give certain errors and those may not be a representative selection. Second, teachers will find the collection they make more flexible if the entries are cross referenced from one section to another.

For example : Error ⟶ I saw the man was died.

From the above sentence, three cards are needed :

Card 1. Died

Card 2. Dead

Card 3. 'Pair of word confused'

('Front' card, with actual examples kept behind it.)

Third, if the collection of errors is fair, it can indicate the success of the teacher's work or syllabus.

2. Let the errors determine the categories. This approach is a process of recording errors onto separate cards, one error per card, and then grouping the cards together in boxes. It is suitable only for written English. It is recommended that all the errors/mistakes which the teacher records should be on cards rather than in an exercise book because cards can easily be re-ordered and recategorized; whereas the pages of an exercise book cannot easily be moved. If the teachers choose to use this approach, first, the error/ mistake should be sorted out from its immediate context. For instance, when several overlapping deviations occur, they need to be isolated (See the following example)

For example : 'My sister and me are wanting brother.'

For this, we need three cards. Only one error will appear on each card.

Card 1 My sister and I want…..brother.

Card 2 My sister and me want a brother.

Card 3 My sister and I are wanting a brother.

The deviation can be underlined on the card for ease of reference later. Card 1 would be categorized under 'Determiner' (The indefinite article 'a' is omitted). The second card would be assigned to 'Pronoun' (The form here should be 'I'). The third card would be assigned to a category 'Tense.' (The present continuous tense has been used in the place of the normal present simple.). However, the advantage of this method is that all the cards can be kept and checked later, the disadvantage of this method is that it is time – consuming.

3. The quick check approach. This approach is more commonly used by classroom teachers who wish to check quickly whether or to what extent their teaching materials have been learned by their classes. This technique can be used for

both speech and writing. By this technique, the teachers can note on a checklist where the errors occur and, given sufficient time, note what they are. This checklist gives the teacher an idea as to the ratio of correct to incorrect forms.

### 2.5.7 Error Correction

Error correction is an important stage in the teaching and learning process. It is advantageous for both teachers and learners. Teachers know what the students have learned; whereas, the students know their own defect in language use. By the same token, error correction has disadvantages as well. If the teachers pay too much attention to the errors and correct every error, when the students receive a piece of written work having a lot of mistakes, they may lose confidence in language use and try to avoid these errors. As a result of the avoidance, the teachers cannot know the true ability of the students. As Holley and King (1971 ; cited in Hendrickson. 1980 : 115) mention, teachers need to be aware of how they correct student errors and to avoid using correction strategies that might embarrass or frustrate students.

However, a number of researchers have given suggestions on error correction. Norrish (1983 : 71 – 75) suggests three approaches in correcting written errors as follows :

1. Checking work in groups or pairs. This approach saves the teacher's time and encourages communication among the students. It has even more advantages if the correction work is conducted in English. In addition, a group of four is convenient and allows quite a large number of communication possibilities.

2. Integrated skills activities. This is one of practical approach. When a teacher feels that corrective work is necessary, the treatment will be much more successful if the written exercise involves the learner in activities that use all the

language skills. For example, when a teacher discovers that comparative forms are generally incorrectly used, the teachers reteach the comparative, using fairly mechanical exercises taken from any book that the learners are not already familiar with. Then, the teacher devises a role – play exercise in which the comparative can be used realistically.

3. Using a correcting code. By using this approach, the teacher writes a code of indication in margins or over the error. This approach is advantageous because it will lead the learners, if they are given adequate time, to work out for themselves what is wrong, and to go some way towards correcting it. Moreover, he also suggests that it is more profitable if the teacher concentrates on errors which are in the areas the class (the teaching point of the lesson or unit) has been working on, rather than to indicate every single deviation because correction of every single error is a waste of time.

Moreover, Byrne (1991 : 124 – 126) suggests four approaches to error correction.

1. Correct all the mistakes. It is the traditional approach to the correction of written work. It is time – consuming for the teacher and discouraging for the students if they get their work back covered with red ink. Therefore, he suggests that it is better if the teacher can correct the students' errors in class while the students are still engaged in writing and everything is fresh in their minds. This is likely to be more effective than looking at a mass of corrections several days after the event.

2. Correct mistakes selectively. For this approach, the teachers do not attempt to correct all the mistakes in a piece of writing but only those in certain areas, such as

tenses or articles, which are the students' problems most in need of help from their teacher. Certainly, this approach is more positive than total correction.

    3. Indicate mistakes so that the students can correct them. Normally, this approach is done by underlining the mistakes and using some kind of symbol to focus the attention of the students on the kind of mistake they have made. The example is as follows :

**Table 2.1**

**Examples of Symbols Used in Error Correction**

| SYMBOL | MEANING | EXAMPLE |
|--------|---------|---------|
| S | Incorrect spelling | S    S<br>I recieved jour letters. |
| W.O. | Wrong word order | W.O.<br>We know well this city. |

    Using a list of this kind, the teachers can get the students, individually, in pairs, or in small groups, to identify most of the mistakes for themselves. In addition, this approach makes the students more aware of the kind of mistakes they are making and is likely to result in something being learned.

    4. Let the students identify and correct their own mistakes. This approach is not a procedure that the teachers are likely to be able to follow all the time. However, the teachers should occasionally be prepared to hand over the whole business of correction to the students.

### 2.5.8 Problems and Limitations in Analyzing Errors

    Although error analysis is an advantageous tool in language teaching, which helps teachers predict the learner's problems in second language learning and adjust

teaching approach to suit the learner's capacity, there are many limitations in analyzing errors as many researchers have commented on.

Brown (1980 : 166) mentions that error analysis is a beneficial tool in language teaching. On the contrary, there is a danger in paying too much attention to learners' errors. If the teacher pays too much attention to their errors, sometimes, their correct utterances will be neglected. In addition, the value of positive reinforcement of clear, free communication will be lost if there is too mach interruption. Therefore, the teacher has to recognize that diminishing of errors is an important criterion for increasing language proficiency, while at the same time, the ultimate goal of second language learning is the attainment of communicative fluency in the language.

Furthermore, overstressing of production data is another danger in error analysis. Language is speaking, listening, writing, and reading. The comprehension of the language is as important as production. So, the teacher has to be interested in both production and comprehension of the language because comprehension of data is important in developing an understanding of the process of second language acquisition.

Norrish (1983 : 91 – 93) proposes that the problems in analyzing errors may come from the different considerations of the judges. There may be the times when one judge or teacher will consider a given form an error, while another would consider it acceptable. Since language constantly changes and develops, what is considered 'incorrect' today may be acceptable tomorrow. Apart from the problem of acceptability versus grammaticality, there are also areas of idiom where an awkwardness may or may not be considered incorrect. Furthermore, there are

problems in classification of errors which do not relate to the teacher's view of language, but rather, his or her interpretation of the nature of error. For example, when a learner writes "chose" for "choose," how is this to be classified? It could be regarded as spelling (by analogy possible, with 'lose') or as an incorrect tense. One method that the teachers should use is to consider the context in interpretation. However, another suggestion is to ask the learner what he or she thought he or she had written.

Larsen – Freeman and Long (1991 : 61 – 62) state that though error analysis is useful in second language learning, it has weak points. If researchers focus only on errors, the access to the whole picture is denied. Error analysis studies what learners are doing wrong but not what makes the learners successful. Furthermore, it is often difficult to identify the unitary source of an error. In addition, error analysis fails to account for all the areas of the second language in which the learners have difficulty. According to Schachter (1974 ; cited in Larsen – Freeman & Long. 1991 : 61) contrary to expectations based on contrastive analysis, Chinese and Japanese speakers commit fewer errors in English relative clause production than Spanish and Persian speakers. They discover that the Chinese and Japanese speakers make fewer errors in using relative clause because they know that the relative clauses would be their problem, so they try to avoid using them.

Moreover, Ellis (1995 : 67 – 68) also points out that most studies are cross sectional in nature, affording only a very static view of L2 acquisition. In many cases, little care has been taken to separate the errors made by learner at different stages of development. Thus, error analysis has not proved very effective in helping us understand how learners develop knowledge of L2. If error analysis can be used in

longitudinal studies of L2 learners, a study of how learners' errors change from one stage to another stage in the process of L2 acquisition will be revealed. Moreover, error analysis only focuses on what learners do. Therefore, it has no way of investigating avoidance. If learners simply avoid the use of difficult structures by using an easier one, it will create a problem for researchers. Therefore, avoidance is clearly an important issue for second language acquisition research.

## 2.6 Previous Studies on Error Analysis

Many researchers have studied various aspects of error analysis to investigate learners' capability of English language and to determine how best to use it to improve teaching English language as second and foreign languages. Errors from several types of compositions and writing tasks have been studied for many years.

Duskova (1969) analyzed errors in written English made by Czech students and found that first language interference causes the major part of the students' errors ranging from errors in word order and sentence construction to morphological errors. She also found that categories non-existent in Czech, like the articles, were the most potent source of errors and difficulties.

Buteau (1970) studied errors made by English speakers in a French grammar test and found that a large number of incorrect responses show the influence of English, and that verb inflection cause less difficulty than proper use of tense which involves an understanding of the semantic concepts in making the right choices.

Kemthong (1981) conducted research on error analysis of the students at Ramkhamhaeng University by using a sample group from 150 of students studying in the Faculty of Education. The results of the research revealed that the error that most

errors, and punctuation errors, respectively. The most frequent errors were lexical errors.

Chang – Whe (1997) conducted an error analysis and its application to Chinese language teaching. This study was designed to provide a descriptive typology of the linguistic, lexical, and syntactic errors produced by native English speaking students in the first, second, third and beyond third years in Chinese instruction. Stage I of the study consisted of a pilot study involving 23 college – level students. Errors committed by each respondent were identified and categorized. Based upon those results, the study was evolved into Stage ll with a total of 56 additional college level students involved. In both studies, a qualitative descriptive and proficiency – based interview protocol developed by The American Council on the teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) was employed. A total of 506 errors were identified in the combined studies and were categorized into eight error types. The significance of this study was the revelation of specific areas learners had the most difficulty with and error types detracting most learners' ability to perform in Chinese effectively.

Deveau (1998) used error analysis to study the interlingua of beginning Spanish students. This study analyzed the errors committed in the interlingua of beginning eighth grade Spanish students in written production. Developmental errors were extracted from examinations and categorized as errors of lexicon, morphology, syntax, or orthography. These errors were then sub – classified in an attempt to arrive at an accurate interpretation and description of the error. The final step in this error analysis consisted of explanations for the possible causes of the errors. The analysis

9.88% from incomplete application of rules. Furthermore, two sources of errors found were recognition and acquaintance. The most important finding from this research was that most of the students in the sample group used first language structures to write English compositions, which was the main cause of written errors.

Chownahe (2000) conducted an error analysis of English compositions written by Mattayomsuksa six students at Kaengkrowittaya School, Kaengkro District, Chaiyaphum Province, Thailand. He studied both interlingual errors and intralingual and developmental errors within the ten sequences of errors committed by Mattayomsuksa six students.The results of the study were that the frequently made interlingual errors were word-by-word translation and adjectives used as main verbs. Whereas the problems on intralingual and developmental errors consisted of a number of nouns, tenses, word selection, determiners, punctuation and capitalization, form of pronouns, prepositions and subject-verb agreement. In addition, the causes of errors were from three language phenomena consisting of omission, addition and misformation.

Khaourai (2002) investigated an error in both free writings and guided writings written by English major students of Rajabhat Institute Nakorn Pathom. She found that there were three main categories that the students committed in their writing. The most frequently found errors were grammatical errors, followed by syntactic errors and lexical errors, respectively. Grammatical errors found in both guided and free writings consisted of the errors in the use of tenses, prepositions, determiners, and verbs. In addition, syntactic errors found in both kinds of writings consisted of the errors in the use of contraction form, incomplete sentence structures, compound sentences, word order, and punctuation; whereas,

lexical errors found in both kinds of errors consisted of errors in spelling, literal translation from Thai to English, overgeneralization of the use of one translation equivalent, and using general lexical items. Moreover, she found that the first main causes of the errors were both ignorance of rules restrictions and incomplete application of rules, followed by mother tongue interference and false concepts hypothesized.

He (2007) carried out an error analysis in compositions written by 37 English major students at the same class of Huizhou University studying in the first year and in the third year, respectively. The study was designed to find out the distribution changes and frequency changes of interlanguage errors from compositions by the same class at different academic years to gain some insights into English language learning. The findings of the research revealed that the first-year students were in a transitional stage between systematic stage and emergent stage, while third-year students were undoubtedly in a systematic stage. Also, impact of native language transfer's learners' target language learning should not be neglected. Moreover, intralingual errors were committed most often by English majors at Huizhou University. She also recommended that on the road to approach target language, the key to learning is to strengthen English grammar basic structure and thoroughly comprehend the shades of words.

In conclusion, the relevant literature and theories mentioned above yield more understanding about error analysis procedures and composition writing to the researcher. In addition, they are also useful as they shed light on background information in the process of data analysis and discussion in this study. From the literature review, it has been found that error analysis is accepted as an effective tool

to study the causes of the difficulties in second language learning. In addition, it does not only stress the interfering effects of the first language on second language acquisition, but also reveals the difficulty of learning to write in the correct English grammar and rules. The results of the error analysis also identify the students' errors as well as the causes of errors so that better understanding about the second language learning of students can be reached. As previously described, it has been found that error analysis is useful instrument for the pedagogy ; thus, error analysis is selected as the instrument to study students' errors and causes of errors.

## 2.7 Summary of the Chapter

In summary, this chapter mainly indicated the definitions and significance of writing, the studies of error analysis in teaching English writing, and the previous studies related to the present study. Next chapter gives information about the research methodology.