

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Error Analysis

There are many references to define what error analysis is, such as: definition, sources of error analysis, type of error and cause of error analysis.

1. The Definition of Error

According to Harmer, “errors are part of the students’ interlanguage that is the version of the language which a learner has at any one stage of development, and which is continually re-shaped as he or she aims towards full mastery”¹. So, it is a natural process of language learning that students make error when writing in English. The students hopefully can develop their knowledge from their errors. When the learner made errors, the teacher helped to correct them. It can help the teacher to give information whether the language learning process is successful or not.

S.P. Corder stated that errors are the result of interference in the learning of a second language from the habits of the first language.² It means that error can be found in the writing covering a phoneme, a word, a phrase, a clause a sentence, a discourse.

¹ Jeremy Harmer, *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, (London: Pearson Education Limited, 1983), 138.

² S.P. Corder, *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*, (London: Oxford University Press, 1981), 5.

2. Differences between Error and Mistake

Most people think that error and mistake are same, but that is not true. In error analysis, it is necessary to differentiate between error and mistake, technically two very different phenomena. It is aimed at analyzing the learner language in a proper perspective.

According to H. Douglas Brown states that a mistake refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a “slip” in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. An error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of native speaker, reflects the competence of the learner.³ It means that *Error* reveals the learner’s knowledge of the target language, while *Mistake* is the learner’s temporary impediment or imperfection in process of utilizing the language.

The similar opinion came from Jack Richards, *et al* state that mistake is made by a learner when writing or speaking which is caused of lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or other aspects of performance.⁴ *Mistake* is related to the students’ quality performance caused by some factors such as fatigue, lack of attention and motivation, carelessness and some other factors but it can be self-corrected because actually the students know the language’s rule when they focus on.

³ H. Douglas Brown, *Principle of Language Learning and Teaching*, (San Fransisco: Prentice Hall, 1987), 257.

⁴ Jack Richard, *Error Analysis: Perspective on Second Language Acquisition*, (London : Longman, 1985), 95.

Corder in Larsen-Freeman and Long give more explanation about *Error* and *Mistake*.

Corder made a distinction between a mistake and an error, i.e.: Whereas a mistake is a random performance slip caused by fatigue, excitement, etc, and therefore can be readily self-corrected, an error is a systematic deviation made by learners who have not yet mastered the rules of the L2. A learner cannot self-corrected an error because it is a product reflective of his or her current stage of development, or underlying competence. Rather than being seen as something to be prevented, then errors were signs that learners were actively engaged in hypothesis testing which would ultimately in the acquisition of TL rules.⁵

From the definition above, it can be said that errors are something to do with unacceptable and inappropriate forms of the grammar of the target language that have imprinted on learner's minds. Mistakes are usually accidental. In other words, mistakes are performance based, and can be self-corrected. Mistake is less formal than error, and is usually used in daily speech. Errors are usually made due to the lack of knowledge. So, the action was wrong because it was different from the rules, model or specific code. Error is student's deficiency competence; it means that students don't know about the knowledge of the language at all because they have not mastered it yet therefore it can't be self-corrected.

⁵ Diane Larsen-Freeman and Michael H. Long, *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*, (London & New York: Longman Group UK, 1991), 129

3. The Sources of Error

The errors that learner make can be influenced by a variety of factors. Here is a further explanation of errors sources dealing with linguistic factors.

According to Brown, there are sources of error frequently made by the students of ESL and EFL. They are:

a. Inter-lingual Transfer

As we have already seen that Interlingua transfer is a significant source of error for all learners. The beginning stages of learning a second language are especially vulnerable to Interlingua transfer from the native language, or interference. In these early stages, before the system of the second language is familiar, the native language is the only previous linguistic system upon which the learner can draw. Interlingual transfer is errors are influenced by the learner's mother tongue.

b. Intra-lingual Transfer

In learning second language, inter lingual transfer is one of the source of error that must be recognized, but it is now clear that the transfer within the target language (intra-lingual).

As Douglas Brown stated “principles of language learning and teaching that Intra-lingual transfer (within the target language itself) is a major factor in second language learning. Writers have found that the early stages of language learning are characterized by a predominance or interference (inter-lingual transfer), but once learners have begun to acquire part of the new system, more and more intra-lingual

transfer-generalization within the target language is manifested.’’⁶

It means that intralingual transfer is errors are influenced by the complicated system of the target language itself.

The similar opinion came from Richards, he distinguishes intralingual transfer into (a) overgeneralization; (b) ignorance of rule restriction; (c) incomplete application of rules; and (d) false concepts hypothesized. To make it clear, the four classifications above are explained briefly below. ⁷

1) Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization is associated with the redundancy reduction. It may occur, for instance, with items which are contrasted in the grammar of the language but which do not carry significant and obvious contrast for the learner. It generally involves the creation of one deviant structure in place of two regular structures.

2) Ignorance of rule restriction

Closely related to the generalization of deviant structures is failure to observe the restriction of existing structures, that is, the application of rules to context where they do not apply.

⁶ Brown, *Principle of Language Learning and Teaching*, 264.

⁷ Richard, *Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*, 174-181

3) Incomplete Application of rules

The occurrence of structure whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances. In other words, incomplete application of rules involves a failure to learn the more complex types of structure because the learner finds she/she can achieve effective communication by using relatively simple rules.

4) False concepts hypothesized

False concepts hypothesized are something due to poor gradation of teaching items. It refers to errors derived from faulty understanding of target language distinctions.

c. Context of Learning

The third of source of error is context of Learning. "Context" refers, for example, to the classroom with its teacher and its material in the case of the school learning or the social situation in case of untutored second language learning.

As we know, in the classroom context the teacher or the text book can lead the learners can make faulty hypothesis about the language. Students often make errors because of a misleading explanation from the teacher or word in a textbook, or even because of a pattern that was rottenly memorized in a drill but improperly contextualized.

d. Communication Strategy

Communication Strategy is related to the learning style. Learners obviously use production strategies in order

to enhance getting their messages across.⁸ However, at times these techniques can themselves become a source of error.

4. Types of error

Dulay states that there are four taxonomies that are important to consider, namely the linguistic taxonomy, the surface strategy taxonomy, the comparative analysis taxonomy, and the effective communicative taxonomy.

a. Linguistic category

Many errors taxonomy has been based on the linguistic item which is affected by an error. These linguistic taxonomies classify error according to either or both the language component and the particular linguistic constituent of error affect. Language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax, and morphology (grammar), semantic and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style).⁹ For example in linguistic category of morphology: Third person singular verb incorrect: *The bird help man*. In that sentence is failure to attach –s, it must be *helps*

b. The Surface strategy

Surface strategy taxonomy emphasizes the ways surface structures which are procedures. Analyzing errors from a surface strategy perspective concerned with identifying cognitive processes that underlie the learner's reconstruction of the new language. Therefore, Dulay *et al*

⁸ Brown, *Principle of Language Learning and Teaching*, 266.

⁹ Heidi Dulay, *et al.*, *Language Two*. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1982), 146.

divide the error based on surface strategy taxonomy into four categories. There are Omission, Addition, Misformation, and Misorder.¹⁰

c. The Comparative analysis

The classification of errors in comparative taxonomy is based on comparison between the structure of second language error and certain other types of construction.¹¹ In the research literature, second language errors have most frequently been compared to errors made by children learning the target language at their first language and two equivalent phrases or sentences in the learners' mother tongue.

d. Communicative effect taxonomy

The communicative effect classification deals with errors from the perspective of their effect on the listener or reader. It focuses on distinguishing between errors that seem to cause miscommunication and those that do not.¹²

In this research, the writer concerns on surface strategy taxonomy. It is highlights the ways surface structure are altered: students my omit necessary items (omission) or add unnecessary ones (addition). They may misformation items (selection) or misorder them (misordering).

¹⁰ Dulay, *et al.*, *Language Two*, 150

¹¹ Dulay, *et al.*, *Language Two*, 163

¹² Dulay, *et al.*, *Language Two*, 189

1) Omission

Omission errors are characteristic 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 types or morphemes are omitted more than other.¹³ Omission of verb inflection: For example: *She feel that her speech is correct.* Omission of –s, its simple present tense which is must, “She **feels** that her speech is correct”

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.¹⁴ There are three types of addition errors, namely: double marking, regularization, and simple addition.

a) Double Marking

Many addition errors are more accurately described as the failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic construction. For example: *He doesn't knows my name.* Which the correction of the sentence above is; He doesn't **know** my name.

b) Regularization

Regularization errors that fall under the addition category are those in which a marker that is

¹³ Dulay, *et al.*, *Language Two*, 154

¹⁴ Dulay, *et al.*, *Language Two*, 156

typically added to a linguistic item is erroneously added to exceptional items of the given class that do not take a marker. It means that regularization error occurs when learners add morpheme to the exceptional words, for example: Sheeps → Sheep, Putted → Put

c) Simple Addition

It is addition error that is double marking or regularization. No particular features characterize all addition errors that are the use of an item should not appear in well-formed utterances. For example: *The fishes doesn't live in the water.* Here, the student makes a wrong sentence. He adds “does” for fishes. The well-formed sentence is *the fishes don't live in the water.*

d) **Misformation**

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morphemes or structure. While in omission errors there is not supplied at all, in misformation errors the students supplies something, although it is incorrect.¹⁵ There three types of misformation namely:

a) Regularization errors

It is that all number the misformation category is those in which a regular marker is used in place of an irregular one. as in *runned* for *ran* or *gooses* for *geese*

b) Archi forms

The selection of one number of a class of forms to represent others in the class is a common

¹⁵ Dulay, *et al.*, *Language Two*, 158

characteristic of all stages of second language acquisition. We have called the form selected by the students an archi-form. For example, a learner may select one member of the class of the class of personal pronoun to function for several others in the class, me hungry, give me that!

c) Alternating forms

As the student's vocabulary and grammar grow, the use of archi forms often gives way to the apparently fairly free alternation of various members of a class with each other. For example: Those *dog*. I *seen* her yesterday.

d) **Misordering**

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme on utterance.¹⁶ This type of errors can be caused by the word-for word translation of native language surface structure. For Example: *I don't know what is that*. Here, the learner misorders the word "is" and the well-formed sentence is *I don't know what that is*.

5. The Understanding of Error Analysis

"Richards state that error analysis is the study of errors made by the second and foreign language learners. Error analysis may be carried out in order to (a) find out how well someone knows a language, (b) find out how a person learns a

¹⁶ Dulay, *et al.*, *Language Two*, 162

language, and (c) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. This definition stresses the functions of error analysis.¹⁷ While Guzzetti stated that:

“Analysis of writing errors can reveal the idiosyncratic logic that writers are using as they attempt to make the writing task manageable. Analyzed closely, even papers that seemed over run with mechanical and showed how writers were inventing their own rules of language manipulation or misapplying standard rules”.¹⁸

It means that, in happenings frequent writing it faults in often time writes happening over and over, there are many orders which shall be known to write. Therefore of that error analysis writes to have is done to be able to finds what do have studied back.

Error analysis is a way of examining a students’ pattern of errors to see what skills the students needs to learn.¹⁹ For example, a student experiencing math difficulties might get all instance of a certain type of problem correct but also get all of another type wrong.

From the definitions above, it can be concluded that error analysis is an activity to identify, classify, and interpret or describe the errors made by someone/learners in writing and it is carried out to obtain information on common

¹⁷ Richard, *Error Analysis : Perspective on Second Language Acquisition*, 96.

¹⁸ Barbara J. Guzzetti, *Literacy in America*, (Denver: Oxford, 2002), 692

¹⁹ Rachel Brown and Chidsey Mark W. Steege, *Response to Intervention*, (New York: The Guilford Press, 2010), 99

difficulties faced by someone/learners in writing English sentences. It is one of the first methods used to investigate learner language.

6. The Procedures of Error Analysis

According to Rod Ellis that the procedures/steps in error analysis research as follow: ²⁰

a. Collection of a sample of learner language

It is deciding what samples of learners' language to use for the analysis and how to collect these samples.

b. Identification of error

A corpus of learner language has been collected, they have to be identified. It is also necessary to decide, therefore, what constitutes an error and to establish a procedure for recognizing one.

c. Description of error

It involves a comparison of the learner's idiosyncratic utterance with a reconstruction of those utterances in the target language. It needs attention to the surface properties of the students' utterances.

d. Explanation of error

It is concerned with establishing the source of the error, i.e. accounting for why it is made.

²⁰ Rod Ellis, *Second Language Acquisition*, (New York : Oxford University Press, 2003), 15-19.

e. Evaluation of error

Error evaluation involves a consideration of the effect that errors have on the person(s) addressed. It also involves assessing the seriousness of each error in order to take principled teaching decisions. Error evaluation is necessary because its purpose is pedagogic.

7. The Significance of Error Analysis

According to S.P. Corder stated that:

“Error analysis is acceptable because it provides several significances which are beneficial for the linguists and language teacher. It equips validation of the findings of contrastive linguistic studies. Furthermore, error analysis aims to reveal something about the psycholinguistic process of language learning.”²¹

It means that error analysis provides us of evidence how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in discovery of language. In this sense, error analysis is part of the methodology of the psycholinguistic investigation of language learning.

Dulay, Burt and Kranshen, at least, listed two main purpose of error analysis,²² those are:

- a. Error analysis provides data which inference about the nature of the language learning process can be made.
- b. It also indicates to teachers and curriculum developers which part of the target language students have more difficulty producing correctly and properly and which error types the

²¹ Corder, *Analysis and Interlanguage*, 35.

²² Dulay, *et al.*, *Language Two*, 138.

students make mostly from their ability to communicate effectively.

In this way, error analysis can be regarded as positive assessment in teaching and learning process. Through the significances which are connected either the teachers who can assess their methods in the classroom, the writers who are speaking ‘something new’ in the teaching and learning process which then lead to a brand new teaching and learning innovations, or to the learners them-selves where they could discover the nature the language.

B. Subject Verb Agreement

1. Definition Subject, Verb and Agreement

The subject is the agent of the sentence in the active voice; it is the person or thing that performs or is responsible for the action of the sentence, and it normally precedes the verb, and the verb follows the subject in a declarative sentence; it generally shows the action of the sentence.²³ As the definition above, the subject is an actor of the activity but the subject sometimes is not an actor or do not do something, and usually subject followed by verb, as like example “my family lives in tangerang”

According to Kessler and McDonald in their book “When words collide”, stated that agreement ensures that the number of the verb (singular or plural) is consistent with the

²³ Michael A Pyle, Mary Ellen Munoz Page, *Cliffs TOEFL: Preparation Guide Test of EFL*, (New Delhi: Wiley Dreamtech, 2002), 40-41

number of the subject.²⁴ It means that if the subject of a sentence is singular, then the verb must be singular; if the subject of the sentence is plural, then the verb must be plural. Moreover, In Longman Dictionary stated agreement or concord means that related parts of a sentence have the right form to indicate.

From some definition above, it can be concluded that agreement is the relationship between one word to another word in a phrase or sentence and their forms have the same value in number, gender, person and case. It can also be said that when two words “agree” with each other grammatically, they have the same number. Both words are plural or both are singular.

2. Definition of Subject Verb Agreement

Every sentence in English can be divided into two parts; the subject and the predicate. The subject is a person, place or thing about which a statement is made. The predicate is the statement, and it always contains the verb. Subject and verb of sentence must agree in number, where agreement in number is the matching of singulars with singulars and plural with plurals.

Haryana Cerah stated that Subject Verb Agreement (SV) is the suitability between the subject and verb. If the subject is singular, the verb must singular verb which shows that the verb ending in *-s/-es* or using *is* as to be, whereas if the subject is

²⁴ Lauren Kessler, Duncan Mc Donald, *When Words Collide: Media Writer's Guide to Grammar and Style*, (Boston : Thomson Wadsworth, 2008), 23.

plural then use simple plural verb or use *are* as to be.²⁵ For example: The computer **is** on the table (Singular), The computers **are** on the table (Plural)

3. The Rules of Subject Verb Agreement

Harris stated that Subject-verb agreement occurs when the subject and verb endings agree in number and person. He classified the type of subject-verb agreement into:²⁶

a. Singular and Plural Subjects

The subject of every sentence is either singular or plural, and that designation determines the ending of the verb.

1) Singular

Singular noun, pronouns, and nouns that cannot be counted, such as *news*, *time*, and *happiness*, take verb with singular endings. For example: Times files, the news is dull.

2) Plural

Plural noun and pronoun take verbs with plural endings. For example: *We know*, *The cups are clean*

b. Buried Subject

Disregard prepositional phrases; words used as modifiers: *who*, *which*, and *that* clauses; and other surrounding words. For example: *Almost all of Art's many friends who showed up at the party last night at Andy's brought gifts.*

²⁵ Haryana Cerah, *A Concise English for College Students Basic One*, (Serang: HC Publishing, 2012), 105.

²⁶ Mauriel Harris and Joan Pilz, *Prentice Hall Canada Reference Guide to Grammar and Usage*, (Scarborough: Prentice-Hall Canada, 1994), 29 – 34.

c. Compound Subjects

Subjects joined by *and* take a plural verb (X and Y = more than one, plural) for example: *A **car and a bike** are my means of transportation.*

d. Either/Or Subjects

When the subject words are joined by *either...or*, *neither...nor*, or *not only...but* the verb agrees with the closest subject words. For example: *Either Alice or her **children** are going to bed early*, another example: *Neither the choir nor the **director** is.....*

e. Clauses and Phrases as Subject

When a whole clause or phrase is subject, use a singular verb. For example: ***What I want to know** is why I can't try the test.*

f. Indefinites as Subjects

When indefinite words with the singular meanings such as *each*, *every*, and *any* are the subject word or when they precede the subject word, they take a singular verb. For example: ***Each** has her own preference*, another example: ***All** he wants is to be left alone.*

g. Collective Nouns as Subjects

When a collective noun is the subject and refers to the group acting as a whole group or single unit the verb is singular. For example: ***Our family** has just bought a new car.*

h. Amounts as Subject

When the subject names an amount, the verb is singular. For example: ***Twenty-five cents** is...*

i. Plural Words as Singular Units

Some words that have an –s plural ending, such as *civics*, *news* and *economics*, are thought of as a single unit and take singular verb. For example: *Physics is.....*, *Mathematics is*

j. Words as Plural Subjects

Some words, such as those in the following list, are treated as plural and take a plural verb, even though they refer to one thing. For example: *Jeans are* , *Pants are*

k. Titles, Company Names, and Words as Subjects

For titles of written works, names of companies, and words used as terms, use singular verbs. For example: *All of the King's Men is the book assigned for this week.*

l. Linking Verbs

Linking verbs agree with the subject rather than the word that follows. For example: *Her **problem** is frequent injuries.*

m. There Is, There Are, and It

The verb depends on the complement that follows the verb. For example: ***There is** an excellent old movie on TV tonight*

n. Who, Which, and That as Subjects

When *who*, *which*, and *that* are used as a subject, the verb agrees with the previous word they refer to. For example: *They are the **students who** study hard.*

o. One of Who, Which, or That

In the phrase one of those who, it is necessary to decide whether the *who*, *which*, or *that* refers only to the one or the whole group. For example: Rena is **one** of those shoppers who only buy things on sale.

Jhon Langan Stated in his book “*Exploring Writing*” that mistakes in subject-verb agreement are sometimes made in the following situations:²⁷

a. Words between the Subject and the Verb

Words that come between the subject and the verb do not change subject-verb agreement. In the following sentence: *The breakfast cereals in the pantry are made mostly of sugar.*

The subject (cereals) is plural, so the verb (are) is plural. The words *in the pantry* that come between the subject and the verb do not affect subject verb agreement. To help find the subject of certain sentences, cross out prepositional phrases

b. Verb before the subject

A verb agrees with its subject even when the verb comes *before* the subject. Words that may precede the subject include *there*, *here*, and, in questions, *who*, *which*, *what*, and *where*. For example: *There airtimes when I’m ready to quit my job.*

²⁷ John Langan, *Exploring Writing sentence and paragraph*, (New York: Mc Graw Hill, 2010), 231

c. Indefinite pronoun

The following words, known as *indefinite pronouns*, always take singular verbs.

Indefinite Pronouns

(-one words) (-body words) (-thing words)

One	nobody	nothing	each
Anyone	anybody	anything	either
Everyone	everybody	everything	neither
Someone	somebody	something	

For example: ***Each of my friends is here***

d. Compound subject

Subjects joined by *and* generally take a plural verb. For example: ***The lecturer and his students are in the class.*** When subjects are joined by *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*, or *not only . . . but also*, the verb agrees with the subject closer to the verb. For example: ***Either John or his friends is an English student***

e. Using *who*, *which*, or *that*

When *who*, *which*, and *that* are used as subjects of verbs, they take singular verbs if the word they stand for is singular, and they take plural verbs if the word they stand for is plural. For example: ***Gary is one of those people who are very private.*** The verb is plural because *who* stands for *people*, which is plural. On the other hand, in the sentence.

C. Writing

1. Definition of Writing

There are many different definitions about writing that are given by experts of many resources. Writing is an important form of communication in day-to-day life.²⁸ According Rise B. Axelrod and Charles R. Chooper on their book; *The ST. Martin's Guide to Writing* said that "Writing makes a special contribution to the way people think. When we write, we compose meanings. We put together facts and ideas and make something new...."²⁹ It means that writing develops human's lives by informing the knowledge and the idea. People can forget spoken information in second but writing makes it permanent.

Writing is the most difficult skill among other language skills. Because of that, to make a good writing, the students need a hard thinking and they have to extent knowledge to get correct writing. When students are writing something like a diary, a short story, novel, etc, they have to produce some words, sentences, and paragraph at the same time. Not only that, but also they have to master all aspect about writing.

Jeremy Harmer said that writing is frequently useful as preparation for some other activities.³⁰ This means that we first write something down, we have already been thinking

²⁸ Dorothy E Zemach and Carlos Islam, iv

²⁹ Rise B. Axelrod and Charles R. Chooper, *The ST. Martin's Guide to Writing*, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Compony, 1986), 1

³⁰ Jeremy Harmer, *How to Teach Writing*, (Malaysia : Pearson education limited, 2004), v.

about what we are going to say and we are going to say it. Then after you have finished writing, we read over what we have written and make changes and corrections.

Furthermore, Writing also contributes uniquely to the way we learn. When the students take notes during lectures or as they read, writing enables them to store new information in memory. Writing also makes another important contribution to learning. From some definition above, it can be concluded that writing is a system of human communication which represents a symbol. By writing, we can share our idea, feeling, or anything that exist in our mind.

2. The Types of Writing

There are four type of writing, those are:

a. Narrative

Fulwiler states narrative is the general term for a story long or short; of the past, present, or future; factual or imagined; told for any purpose; and with or without much detail.³¹ it means Writing a narrative implies that you tell some story about something that happened in your life or that you witnessed. This experience should be one that has meaning for you, or something you would be willing to explore to find meaning.

Peter Knapp state that Narrative is one of the most commonly read, thought least understood of all genres.

³¹ Toby Fulwiler, *College Writing*, (Portsmouth, NH : Cook Publisher, Inc, 2002), 66.

Because narrative has been a continues to be such a popular genre.³² It means that, narrative writing is the type is the type of writing that tells a story. This type of writing can also be used for fictional stories. Narration is writing about events that happen and uses time order.

b. Descriptive

Fulwiler states descriptive is to describe a person, place, or things is to create a verbal image so that readers can see what you see, hear what you hear and taste, smell, and feel what you taste, smell, and feel. Your goal is to make it real enough for readers to experience it for themselves.³³ It means that, descriptive writing is used to create a vivid picture of an idea, place or person. It is much like painting with words. It focuses on one subject and uses specific detail to describe which your child is focused.

c. Expository

Fulwiler state expository is the task of working writers everywhere. To explain is to make some concept, event, or process clear to your reader, to expose or reveal it.³⁴ It means that, expository is to-the-point and factual. This category of writing includes definition, instructions, directions, and other basic comparisons and clarifications.

³² Peter Knapp and Megan Watkins, *Genre, Text, Grammar*, (Sydney: UNSW Press Book, 2005), p. 220.

³³ Fulwiler, *College Writing*, 87.

³⁴ Fulwiler, *College Writing*, 83.

d. Persuasive

Fulwiler state that, persuasive is based on information outside the writer's self, by citing other people's idea, knowledge, demonstrations, and proofs. ³⁵ It means that, persuasive writing is often in essay for, contains an explanation of the other point of view and uses facts or statistics to disprove that view and support your child's opinion.

3. Descriptive Text

a. Definition of descriptive text

According to Hogue that Descriptions are "word pictures." You tell how something looks, feels, smells, tastes, and sounds. You need to become a sharp observer and notice many small details so that you can write a good word picture. ³⁶ Descriptive is used add details about something physical a person, place or things. Description is writing about how something (or someone) looks and uses space order.

b. Rhetorical structure of Descriptive text

Descriptive text writing has two rhetorical structures, as follow:

1. Identification, identifying the phenomenon to be describes.

³⁵ Fulwiler, *College Writing*, 98

³⁶ Ann Hogue, *First Step in Academic Writing*, (New York: Pearson Longman, 2008), 95.

2. Description, describing the phenomenon in parts, qualities, or/and characteristic.
3. Language feature in descriptive Text: ³⁷
 - a) Using certain noun, such as teacher, house, my cat, etc.
 - b) Simple present tense may be used in literary description, it is past tense that tends to dominate, for example: had, has, was, enjoyed, seemed, sparkled.etc.
 - c) Using detail noun phrase to give information about subject, for example; she is a beautiful lady.
 - d) Relation verbs are used when classifying and describing appearance/qualities and parts/functions of phenomena (is. Are, has, have), for example: Eric the red is an old man. Eric the red has a greatcoat.
 - e) Action verbs are used when describing behavior/uses, for example: the queen ant lays the eggs.
 - f) Adverbs are used to add extra information to verbs to provide more detailed description, for example: The bird flies slowly.
 - g) Using various adjective which is describing, numbering and classifying, such as: two strong men.

³⁷ Knap and Watkins, *Genre, Text, Grammar*, 98-100