

## CHAPTER 2

### FRAMEWORK OF THE THEORIES

#### 2.1 Descriptive Study

It can be argued that descriptive study can be either quantitative or qualitative. The study may require a considerable amount of quantitative information, such as test scores or the number of a certain feature of academic writing is applied, or it can describe information classifications such as patterns of sentential connections in an academic text. Furthermore, according to Glass and Hopkins (1982), “*Gathering data is essential in descriptive research*”. This includes describing events, organizing, ordering, and describing data collection. Moreover, it employs visual assistance such as graphs and charts with a purpose to assist readers in comprehending data distribution.

In addition, Gay (1987) asserts that “*A descriptive method is a technique of research that incorporates data gathering to assess by hypotheses or to respond to questions connected with the research subject present status*”. Furthermore, this method discovers and informs the way things are. That means when applying such method, the data is examined as it is without any adjustments. ★

#### 2.2 Grammatical Structure

##### 2.2.1 Definition of Grammar

All languages have their own grammar. People who speak the same language are able to communicate because they know the grammar system of that language. Thornbury (2004:1) states that “*Grammar is partly the study of what forms (or structures) are possible in a language*”. Grammar is concerned with analysis of the sentence which describes the rules how language sentences are formed.

Harmer (2002: 12) states that “*Grammar of a language is the description of the ways in which words can change their forms and can be combined into sentences in that language*”. It is the structure and meaning system of language. In addition, Ur (1993: 4) defines “*Grammar as the way a language manipulates and combines words (or bits of words) in order to form longer units of meaning*”. He

writes that grammar tells how the rules of language actually work, they arrange and shape words.

From the statement above, we know that grammar is explicit. It does not only explain how the utterances are formed, but also provides a tool to generate some possible structures that have never been used before, which might be useful for people who prefer to use the language in a creative way so that they can communicate easily. It helps us to write new kind of sentences that are more effective and more persuasive.

Grammar is the most important aspects in writing. In order to make a well-structured writing, one should master in grammar. Grammar consists of rules to change the meaning (morphology), arrangement of words (syntax), clause and phrase structure, the classification of part of speech (noun, verb, etc), and issues regarding cohesion and coherence of whole text. If grammar rules are too violated, communication may suffer, although creating good grammar rule is extremely difficult. Swan in Harmer (2002: 15) states that *“Good rule include simplicity (it may cause problems), truth (because clearly some rules are more true than others), clarity (because rules that are unclear help nobody) and relevance (because there are some things which a teacher or student probably does not really need to know). Knowledge of good grammar will influence the coherence of the piece of writing”*. By using correct grammatical rule, the learners will have good writing.

Lyons in Soetikno (1995: 267-269) classifies grammatical aspects into three types:

1. The primary categories, which consist of the word classes such as the Noun, Verb, Adjective, Adverb.
2. The secondary categories, which include the notions of Number, Gender, Case, Person, Tense, Mode, Voice.
3. Functional categories, which discuss the notion of Subject, Predicate, Object, etc.

### **2.2.2 English Grammatical Aspects**

Lyons in Soetikno (1995: 267-269) classifies that there are three types of grammatical aspects, namely: 1) The Primary Categories, 2) The Secondary

Categories, and 3) Functional Categories. The Primary Categories consists of Noun, Verb, Adjective, and Adverb. Meanwhile, The Secondary Categories consists of Number, Gender, Case, Person, Tense, Mode, and Voice. Then, Functional Categories consists of Subject, Predicate, and Object. However, the researcher only focuses on The Secondary Categories especially on Tense.

Tenses indicate two main types of information; time relations, and aspectual differences whether an action, activity, or state in present, past, or future. Due to the limitation of research, the researcher focuses only on: 1) Simple Present Tense, 2) Perfect Tense, 3) Simple Past Tense, 4) Future Tense, and 5) Present Progressive (Continuous) Tense. The followings are the descriptions of each sentences focused.

1. Simple Present Tense

The simple present tense has six functions. The functions are as follow:

a. Expressing general time

Example: *The sun **rises** in the east and **sets** in the west.*

b. Expressing present time

Example: *She **seems** to be tired today.*

c. It is used with verbs of saying and telling

Example: *He **says** that he cannot come tonight.*

d. Expressing future time

Example: *The plane **leaves** tomorrow morning.*

e. Summaries of a story plot or historic present

Example: *The king **addresses** the soldiers and **asks** them to fight bravely for their country.*

f. Stage direction

Example: *Mary **walks** to the window and **waves** goodbye to her guests.*

2. Present Progressive (Continuous) Tense

This tense is used for a single temporary event that has a beginning and an end. It suggests that an event began and is continuing, but it does not necessarily include the end of the action.

Example: *The play **is beginning** now.*

### 3. Simple Past Tense

This tense indicates definite time terminating in the past whether a time word is given or not. This tense has three functions:

- a. It is used to refer to one event completed in the past.

Example: *I **saw** him last night.*

- b. It is used to refer to repeated events completed in the past and no longer happening.

Example: *She **studied** music while she **was** in Paris.*

- c. It is used to refer duration of an event completed in the past.

Example: *He **lived** in New York for thirty years and then he **decided** to return to France.*

### 4. Future Tense

It is used to express future time or indicates future activities and states are formed by using the words will and shall.

Example: *Tomorrow **will be** Sunday.*

### 5. Present Perfect Tense

It expresses indefinite time that begins in the past and extends to the present. This tense is used to represent duration of a single act that ends with the moment of speaking or shortly before it.

Example: *He **has worked** in the same company for ten years.*

### 2.2.3 Modal Verbs

According to [http://www.myenglishpages.com/site\\_php\\_files/grammar-lesson-modals.php](http://www.myenglishpages.com/site_php_files/grammar-lesson-modals.php), Modals (also called modal verbs, modal auxiliary verbs, modal auxiliaries) are special verbs which behave irregularly in English. They are different from normal verbs, like *work, play, visit, and many more*. They give additional information about the *function* of the main verb that follows it. They have a great variety of *communicative functions*. The characteristics of modal verbs can be seen as follow:

1. They never change their form. You can't add *-s, -ed, -ing, and many more*.
2. They are always followed by an infinitive without *to* (the bare infinitive).

Modal verbs are used to express functions such as permission, ability, obligation, prohibition, lack of necessity, advice, possibility and probability. The examples of each function can be seen as follow but, in this research, the researcher will only focus on the Modal Verbs *can* and *could*.

#### Functions of Modal

Expressing	Modal Verb	Example
1	2	3
Strong obligation	<b>must</b>	You must stop when the traffic lights turn red.
logical conclusion / Certainty		He must be very tired. He's been working all day long.
Prohibition	<b>must not</b>	You must not smoke in the hospital.
Ability	<b>can</b>	I can swim.
Permission		Can I use your phone please?
Possibility		Smoking can cause cancer.
ability in the past	<b>could</b>	When I was younger I could run fast.
polite permission		Excuse me, could I just say something?
Possibility		It could rain tomorrow!

Permission	<b>may</b>	May I use your phone please?
possibility, probability		It may rain tomorrow!
polite permission	<b>might</b>	Might I suggest an idea?
possibility, probability		I might go on holiday to Australia next year.
lack of necessity/absence of  1	<b>need not</b>  2	I need not buy tomatoes. There are plenty of  3
Obligation		tomatoes in the fridge.
50 % obligation	<b>should/ought to</b>	I should / ought to see a doctor. I have a terrible headache.
Advice		You should / ought to revise your lessons
logical conclusion		He should / ought to be very tired. He's been working all day long.
Advice	<b>had better</b>	You 'd better revise your lessons

**Table 2.2.3**

#### 2.2.4 The Infinitive

The infinitive is the base form of a verb. In English, when we talk about the infinitive we are usually referring to the present infinitive, which is the most common. However, there are four other forms of the infinitive: [the perfect infinitive](#), [the perfect continuous infinitive](#), [the continuous infinitive](#), & [the passive infinitive](#). But, the researcher only focuses on the present infinitive.

The present infinitive has two forms:

- **the to-infinitive** = to + base
- **the zero infinitive** = base



The present infinitive base is the verb form which you will find in a dictionary.

**Table 2.2.4.1**

<b>To-infinitive</b>	<b>Zero infinitive</b>
to sit	sit
to eat	eat
to have	have
to remember	remember

The negative infinitive is formed by putting *not* in front of any form of the infinitive. The example can be seen below:

Example:

- a. I decided **not to go** to London.
- b. He asked me **not to be** late.
- c. I'd like you **not to sing** so loudly.
- d. I'd rather **not eat** meat.
- e. I might **not come**.

The to-infinitive is used in many sentence constructions, often expressing the purpose of something or someone's opinion about something. The to-infinitive is used following a large collection of different verbs as well. There are 7 functions of to-infinitive. The functions can be seen below:

1. The to-infinitive to indicate the purpose or intention of an action

In this case *to* has the same meaning as *in order to* or *so as to*.

Example:

- a. She **came to collect** her pay cheque.
- b. The three bears **went to find** firewood.
- c. I am **calling to ask** you about dad.
- d. Your sister has **gone to finish** her homework.

2. The to-infinitive as the subject of the sentence

This is a formal usage and is far more common in written English than spoken.

Example:

- a. **To be** or not to be, that is the question.
- b. **To know** her is to love her.
- c. **To visit** the Grand Canyon is my life-long dream.
- d. **To understand** statistics, that is our aim.

3. The to-infinitive to indicate what something can or will be used for.

In this pattern, the to-infinitive follows a noun or pronoun.

Example:

- a. The children need a garden **to play** in.

4. The to-infinitive after adjective

There is a common pattern using the to-infinitive with an adjective. These phrases are formed:

**subject + to be + adjective + (for/of someone) + to-infinitive + (rest of sentence)**

Table 2.2.4.2

Subject	+ to be ★	+ adjective	(+ for/ of someone)	+ to-infinitive ★	(+ rest of sentence)
It	Is	Good		to talk.	
It	Is	Good	of you	to talk	to me.
It	Is	Important		to be patient.	
It	Is	Important	for Jake	to be patient	with his little brother.
I	Am	Happy		to be	here.
The dog	Is	Naughty		to destroy	our couch.

- a. I would like a sandwich **to eat**.
- b. I don't have anything **to wear**.
- c. Would you like something **to drink**?



5. The to-infinitive to make a comment or judgment

To use the to-infinitive when making a comment or judgment about a noun, the pattern is:

**Subject + to be + noun phrase + to-infinitive**

**Table 2.2.4.3**

<b>Subject</b>	<b>+ to be</b>	<b>+ noun phrase</b>	<b>+ to-infinitive</b>
It	Was	a stupid place	to park.
That	Is	a dangerous way	to behave.
What you said	Was	a rude thing	to say.
This	Is	the right thing	to do.
Those	Were	the wrong kind of eggs	to buy.
Jim	Is	the best person	to hire.

6. The to-infinitive with adverbs

The to-infinitive is used frequently with the adverbs *too* and *enough* to express the reasoning behind our satisfaction or in satisfaction. The pattern is that *too* and *enough* are placed before or after the adjective, adverb, or noun that they modify in the same way they would be without the to-infinitive. We then follow them by the to-infinitive to explain the reason why the quantity is excessive, sufficient, or insufficient. Normally the to-infinitive and everything that follows can be removed, leaving a sentence that still functions grammatically.

Example:

- There's **too much** sugar **to put** in this bowl.
- I had **too many** books **to carry**.
- This soup is **too hot** **to eat**.
- She was **too tired** **to work**.
- He arrived **too late** **to see** the actors.

- f. I've had **enough food to eat**.
- g. She's **old enough to make up** her own mind.
- h. There **isn't enough snow to ski** on.
- i. You're **not old enough to have** grand-children!

7. The to-infinitive with question words

The verbs *ask, decide, explain, forget, know, show, tell, & understand* can be followed by a question word such as *where, how, what, who, & when* + the to-infinitive.

Examples:

- a. She **asked me how to use** the washing machine.
- b. Do you **understand what to do**?
- c. **Tell me when to press** the button.
- d. I've **forgotten where to put** this little screw.
- e. I'm not sure **I know who to call**.

Beside the functions of to-infinitive, there is a function of the zero infinitives also. There are 5 functions of zero infinitives. The functions can be seen below:

1. The zero infinitive-es after auxiliaries

Examples:

- a. She **can't speak** to you.
- b. He **should give** her some money.
- c. **Shall I talk** to him?
- d. **Would you like** a cup of coffee?
- e. I **might stay** another night in the hotel.
- f. They **must leave** before 10.00 a.m.

2. The zero infinitives after verbs of perception

With verbs of perception, the pattern is **verb + object + zero infinitive**.

Examples:

- a. He **saw her fall** from the cliff.
- b. We **heard them close** the door.
- c. They **saw us walk** toward the lake.
- d. She **felt the spider crawl** up her leg.

3. The zero infinitives after the verbs *make* and *let*

Examples:

- a. Her parents **let her stay** out late.
- b. Let's go** to the cinema tonight.
- c. You **made me come** with you.
- d. Don't **make me study** that boring grammar book!

4. The zero infinitives after the expression *had better*

Examples:

- a. We **had better take** some warm clothing.
- b. She **had better ask** him not to come.
- c. We **had better reserve** a room in the hotel.
- d. You'd **better give** me your address.
- e. They **had better work** harder on their homework.

5. The zero infinitives with *why*

The question word *why* is followed by the zero infinitive when making suggestions.

Examples:

- a. **Why wait** until tomorrow?
- b. Why not ask** him now?
- c. **Why leave** before the end of the game?
- d. **Why walk** when we can go in the car?
- e. **Why not buy** a new bed?

### 2.2.5 Singular and Plural Noun

Plural nouns are words used to indicate that there is more than one person, animal, place, thing, or idea. The difference between singular and plural nouns is simple once you know what to look for.

A plural noun is a word that indicates that there is more than one person, animal place, thing, or idea. When you talk about more than one of anything, you're using plural nouns. When you write about more than one of anything, you usually use the same word, simply adding suffix *-s*, *-es*, or *-ies* at the end. There are a few

exceptions for this rule, but not many – one of the best is that a single moose is a moose, and a group of moose are still moose.

The difference between singular and plural nouns is easy to spot. When a [noun](#) indicates one only, it is a singular noun. When a noun indicates more than one, it is plural.

The following sentences are the examples of singular noun.

1. The **boy** had a **baseball** in his **hand**.
2. My **horse** prefers to wear an English **saddle**.
3. That **cat** never seems to tire of jumping in and out of the **box**.
4. **You** stole my **idea** and didn't give **me** any credit.
5. Your **mom** is going to be upset about that broken **lamp**.
6. It's not difficult to grow a **tree** as long as you give it plenty of water.
7. **I** can't believe **you** let your **dog** stick his **head** out the **window** while you drive.

The following sentences are the examples of plural noun.

1. The **boys** were throwing **baseballs** back and forth between **bases**.
2. Our **horses** are much happier wearing lightweight English **saddles**.
3. Those **cats** never seem to tire of chasing one another in and out of those **boxes**.
4. You stole my **ideas** and didn't give me any credit.
5. Our **mom**s are going to be upset that **we** stayed out all night going to **parties**.
6. It's not too difficult to grow **trees** as long as you provide **them** with plenty of water.
7. I can't believe you allow your **dogs** to climb all over the **seats** while you are driving.

## 2.3 Error

### 2.3.1 Definition of Error

To get clear understanding about the error, it is better for the researcher to consider several opinions given by some linguists. According to Harmer (2002) as quoted by Brown, *“Error is a part of the students’ in inter-lingual that is the version*

*of the language which a learner has at any one stage of development, and which is continually reshaped as he or she aims toward full mastery”.*

Brown has different opinion. He gives more attention on the inter-lingual competence of the speaker. He defines an error as noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker reflecting the inter-lingual competence of the learner.

From all definitions above, the researcher can summarize that error is flawed side of learner speech caused by the factor of competence. On the other hand, they do not understand well the use of linguistics' system of the target language; it will lead the students to make errors consistently.

### **2.3.2 Types of Error**

Error may be viewed as being either global or local error. These errors are divided into two kinds of error, namely: 1) Global Errors, and 2) Local Errors. The following paragraph describes those two types:

#### **2.3.2.1 Global Errors**

Global Errors are errors that affect overall sentence organization which possibly influence the flow of communication, for example the wrong order of major constituents, “English language use many people.” The sentence should be, “Many people use English language.”

#### **2.3.2.2 Local Errors**

Local Errors are errors that affect one element or constituent in a sentence which usually do not break the flow of communication. These errors include errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, and auxiliaries. For example, in the sentence “Why you like him?” the listeners of the utterance will still understand the speaker's message although the sentence does not contain auxiliary. In addition, in classifying the student's errors in writing descriptive paragraph the researcher would like to use *Corder theory*. Corder (1982) states four types of error which will be explained below. The types of errors are error of omission, error of addition, error of selection, and error of ordering.

### 1. Error of Omission

Error of omission is the absence of an item or several items that should be used. The learner omits the item that should appear in the good utterance. Error of Omission has two types of morphemes that are omitted more than others. They are content morphemes and grammatical morphemes. Content morphemes are morphemes that have meaning, like nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Grammatical morphemes are little words that have minor play in sentences, like noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries, and preposition. For example, in the sentence: *Angelina is an actress*. The word *Angelina* and *actress* are content morphemes because *Angelina* and *actress* is noun and has a major meaning.

### 2. Error of Addition

Error of Addition is the opposite of Error of Omission. Error of Addition is the presence of an item that must not appear in complete and correct utterances. In addition, the learners add the utterance which is not needed in a sentence, or the learners add some unnecessary element. For example, in the sentence: *She didn't studied yesterday*. The learner wants to tell that *she didn't study yesterday*. She knows that to tell the past event, she has to use the past verb, but she puts two items for the same features; *didn't* and *studied*.

### 3. Error of Selection

This error is made by the learner where the learner chooses the wrong items in the right place. Different from Error of Omission where the items are not supplied at all, in Error of Selection, the learner supplies something even though that is incorrect. For example, in the sentence: *I buyed a novel two days ago*. A past tense maker (-ed in buyed) is put by the learner, but it is incorrect.

### 4. Error of Ordering

Error of Ordering is the error where the items presented, even though are correct but wrong in sequences. For example, in the sentence *I have pen blue*. From this example, the items are correct, but the researcher does not put the items in the appropriate order.

## **2.4 Error Analysis**

### **2.4.1 Definition of Error Analysis**

Error analysis is an activity to reveal the learning outcomes achieved by learners in developing inter-language system in writing and speaking which is consist of comparison between the errors made in target language and that target language itself. Errors are found in writing and speaking. Taylor (1997:3) states that “*Error analysis is the study and evaluation of uncertainty in measurement*”. It implies that error has a positive role in language learning since it is the sign that a language learner does not learn the rules of the target language effectively.

As Erdogan (2005:263) emphasizes that error analysis deals with the learners’ performance in terms of the cognitive processes they make use of recognizing or coding the input they receive from the target language. Therefore, a primary focus of error analysis is on the evidence that learners’ error provide with an understanding of the underlying process of second language acquisition.

Errors analysis emphasizes the significance of errors in learners’ Inter-language system. (Brown, 1994:204) Errors analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make as the process to observe, analyze, and classify the deviations of the rules of the second language and then to reveal the systems operated by learner.

From the three definitions above, it can be clarified that error analysis is an activity to identify, classify and describe the errors made by learners in speaking or in writing and it is carried out to obtain information on common difficulties faced by someone in speaking or writing English sentences.

According to Lee (2004) students expect to get feedback from their teachers and hope that it would be very helpful for them to be good writers. So, by analyzing the errors, teachers would be able to have knowledge of what areas should be focused on and what kinds of materials are emphasized in their teaching. They should be able to develop curriculum design such as remedial teaching, and select materials that help students’ to learn English. Teachers need to know the causes of errors and the reasons behind their occurrences.



### 2.4.2 Procedures in Error Analysis

In analyzing students' errors, there are some steps to be followed. Many linguists have already discussed how to analyze students' errors in their book. One of them is Corder; he suggests five steps in analyzing students' errors, they are: collecting of sample of learner language, identification of errors, description of errors, explanation of errors and evaluation of errors.

#### 2.4.2.1 Collection of Sample of Learner Language

The first step of analyzing errors which is suggested by Corder is collection of sample. In this step, the researcher must decide a number of students which is being sample for the research. Then, they will be given regular examination in order to get data.

#### 2.4.2.2 Identification of Errors

In this step the researcher must identify error from data collection. For identifying error, the researcher must compare the sentence that was produced by students to the correct sentence in the target language. For examples:

*Sari watched TV, and Rudi slept in his room*

The correct form in target language is *Sari watched TV, and Rudi slept in his room.*

By comparing two sentences, it can be seen that the student produced an error in constructing simple past tense sentence where she used –ed after sleep instead of using *irregular verb*.

#### 2.4.2.3 Description of Errors

After identifying errors, the next step is description of errors. In this step, all errors that have been identified, then they would be classified into the types of errors.

#### 2.4.2.4 Explanation of Errors

This step will explain why errors occur. This explanation concerns on the sources of errors. From identification of Error example above, the researcher may consider that the student above does an error in using –ed (regular verb) instead of using irregular verb whether because of interlingual transfer/overgeneralization, ignorance of the rule restriction, incomplete application of rules, or false concept hypothesis.

#### 2.4.2.5 Evaluation of Errors

In this step, the researcher must decide the criteria of errors which will be corrected because some errors can be considered more serious than others. The aim of evaluating errors is to distinct which errors will be corrected so the learner, which made an error, will not be stress of getting correction.

## 2.5 Writing

### 2.5.1 Definition of Writing

Writing plays an important role in language learning. It takes a long time to master since it takes study and practice to develop this skill. According to Celce-Murcia, (2001:94) “*Writing is the ability to express one’s idea in writing in a second or foreign language and to do so with reasonable coherence and accuracy is a major achievement*”. It means that in writing, one expresses ideas, opinion, feeling or experience that somebody read or heard into the written form to develop his writing skill. He should arrange his idea in the form of words, phrases, clauses and paragraphs so that his writing can be understood and read clearly.

Writer uses his ideas and knowledge to inform the reader about what the topic is. Writing can begin from a simple piece to a more advanced level of writing. It includes the organization of words, phrases, clauses and sentences into coherent (clearly articulates its point) and cohesive paragraph (introduces new topic in a predictable location: at the end of the sentences that introduce the paragraph). The forms of coherent and cohesive paragraphs include stories, poem, essays, journal, notes, letters, reports, and script for plays which can be incorporated into exposition, narration, argumentation, and fiction, Klein (1985 in Palmer, 1994: 9).

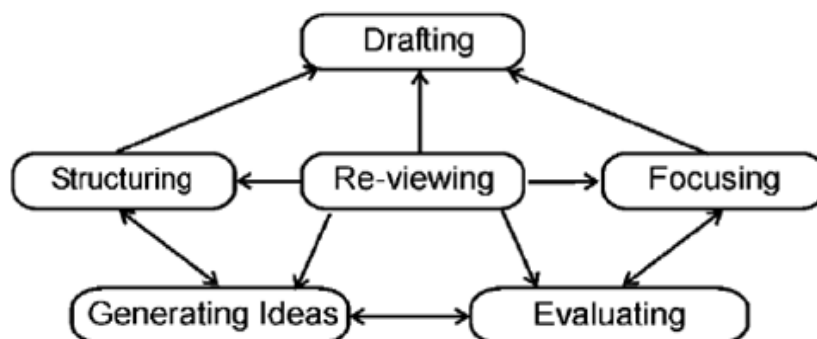
### 2.5.2 Writing Skills

Writing is usually grammatically more complete than speaking. In speaking, one speaks supported by tone of voice, gesture, mimic and context. He can correct his error’s utterances by himself. While in writing, one communicates through the language itself. Written language cannot be changed once since it has been printed/written out, thus writer should arrange his words accurately to create an understandable message.

Writing starts from a simple piece of writing then develops into a more complicated level in which elements of structure and vocabulary are involved. Davies-Pearse (2002: 101) classifies writing into low-level skills (handwriting or typing, spelling, constructing grammatical sentences, punctuating) and high-level cognitive skills (gathering ideas, organizing and sequencing, structuring, drafting, and editing). In addition, Rivers (1981: 294) also classifies writing activity into writing practice (grammatical exercise, the construction of simple dialogue, uncomplicated translation exercise, dictation, and the cloze procedure) and expressive writing or composition (the writing of instruction, reports, resumes, concrete descriptions, or essential correspondence connected with everyday affair).

Writing skill firstly begins by using language expressively and imaginatively like writing diary or letters to friends and then the writer can practice writing critically until they are able to produce good writings. Reading from many sources, listening, watching television, and talking to others can inspire good writings.

Writing is a complex process which converts the words into written form. Writer should arrange his/her idea into words, clauses, phrases and sentences in order that his writing can be read and the content can be understood. White and Arndt (1991 in Harmer, 2002: 258) stress that writing is re-writing; that revision - seeing with new eyes – has a central role to play in the act of creating text. In their model, process of writing is represented diagrammatically:



**Figure 2.5.2** The writing process (White and Arndt, 1991).

Writing is a complex skill among other skills (listening, speaking and reading) which acquires the ability to compose correct sentences. Since writing is a form of thinking using the written words, it takes much time for students to develop their idea into meaningful text. In addition, Calkin and Graves (1983 in Palmer, 1994: 8) present the stages in writing into five stages:

1. Prewriting

Time to get ready to write, generate ideas and gathering information before writing to enhance the composing process.

2. Drafting

Translate their thought and ideas into sentences and paragraphs.

3. Sharing

Reads the piece aloud and share with the listener.

4. Revising

Expands ideas, clarifies meanings, and reorganizes information.

5. Editing

This editing is focusing on the spelling, punctuation, syntax and structure of text. In addition Harmer (2002: 257) proposes that there are some aspects that must be concerned in the writing process, such as language use (grammar, vocabulary, and linkers), punctuation and layout, spelling, checking writing for unnecessary repetition words and/or information, deciding on the information on each paragraph, and the order the paragraph should go in, noting down various ideas, selecting the best idea for inclusion, writing a clean copy of the corrected version, and writing a rough version. It shows that writing is a complex process combining a number of diverse elements, especially for the students and needs much time to brainstorm ideas until finish written works.