

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Background of the Study

English is one of the international languages learned by people over the world. It is an alternative language to communicate or interact with others from different countries which has the national language as well as various kinds of traditional languages, Indonesia is also one of the countries which had learnt English According to Setiyadi (2006:22), English is really a foreign language for language learners in Indonesia. It can be said that the status of English in Indonesia is as a foreign language in which it is learnt from the level of Kindergarten, elementary .junior and senior high school up to university and people do not speak the language in society.

Teaching English as a foreign language is a hard challenge to English teachers in Indonesia because students' difficulty in comprehending and receiving English lesson. That is what makes them hard to teach English in the class. As a result, most of Indonesian people have a barrier to work on the Interpersonal institutions and governments after they graduated from college. Nowadays, some institutions and governments receive new employees that have English proficiency such as speaking and writing. The importance of English skill at job world is a requisite for being competent employees.

In learning English there are four language skills. They are listening, speaking, reading and writing. Writing and speaking are labeled as productive skills while listening and listening are labeled as receptive skills. Writing is a process of constructing critical thinking of the writers. Writing needs an extra competence to produce a good writing. That's why writing skill becomes the most difficult skill than other skills.

Writing in English has a more purely pedagogical role. It reinforces the learning which goes on through the medium of listening, speaking, and reading skills. In writing skills, the teacher often finds errors in students' writing for example grammatical problems. The students are difficult to write correct grammar beside that they are lack of vocabulary. Language learning off foreign language can not be separated by the rules of grammar besides vocabulary. According to Setiyadi (2006:40), language learning is evaluated by giving items of Lexical units to the class and scores are based on right answers of the test.

Based on writer's experience being a teacher in teaching practice program, the writer found that many students are unable to write well. In students' writing, most of common problem found by the writer are like wrong organizations and combination of words. The students just understand the basic meaning of the word but did not know which word it would go with. Therefore, they frequently made collocational errors. McCarthy (2008:6) defined that collocation is a combination of two or more words which frequently occur together. On the other words, collocation relates with vocabulary in which Lewis (2000:27) stated that collocation is just another way of presenting vocabulary, and perhaps once every other unit of the course book, an exercise, on two word collocations appears and it is seen as a welcome change to regular vocabulary building that goes on Collocational errors can be caused by the lack of collocational knowledge. As a result, they produced unacceptable collocations. Collocations are considered to be the most frequent aspect of language learning.

Learning collocations helps learners speak and write English in a more natural and accurate way like a native speaker. In fact, the use of correct collocations has been ignored by the learners including Indonesian learners. They just write and speak related to basic meaning of words without using appropriate collocations.

According to Benson in Nasser (2014:33), collocation fall into two major groups: Grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. Grammar collocation consist of a noun and adjective or verb plus a preposition or a grammar structure, such as an infinitive or a clause. In terms of lexical collocational, the main combinations of them are nouns, adjective, verbs, and adverbs. The obvious difference between lexical collocations and grammatical collocations is that the formers do not contain prepositions, infinitives, or clauses.

1.2 The Problem of the Study

The writer identified the problem of this study and formulated as follow:

1. “What are the types of lexical collocation errors made by the students in writing report text for grade X in Senior High School Hosana Medan?”
2. “What is the most dominant type of lexical collocation errors made by the students in writing report text for grade X in Senior High School Hosana Medan?”

1.3 The Objective of the Study

Based on problem, the aims of the study formulated by:

1. To find out what types of lexical collocations errors that the students faced in writing report text for grade X in Senior High School Hosana Medan.
2. To find out the most dominant of lexical collocation errors that found in writing report text for grade X in Senior High School Hosana Medan.

1.4 The Scope of the Study

This study is focused on an error analysis of Lexical Collocation as found in writing report text for grade X in Senior High School Hosana Medan. It is included 10 students. There are two classifications of collocation. They are grammatical collocation and lexical collocation. In this case, the writer is only focused on four types of lexical collocation in report text. .

1.5 The Significances of the Study

The writer hopes that the reader would have benefits in English teaching learning process, especially in teaching writing skill. There are two kinds of benefits in this research, theoretically and practically.

1.5.1 Theoretically

This research was introducing the errors of lexical collocations and it helps students to be aware of learning collocations, in learning English skill, especially writing skill. The research finding would add the study on teaching writing skill. The result of the study is expected to be useful to enrich the horizon of English teaching writing.

1.5.2 Practically

The research findings would have some advantages for the English teachers and effort to develop the teaching learning process in language especially, writing skill. By knowing lexical collocations errors it helps the teacher to anticipate the students in learning writing genre. The second one, the English teacher got more understanding to teach errors of lexical collocations and it helps them to be aware of learning collocations in writing report.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Theoretical Framework

In conducting a research, theories should be explained and clarified in reality of the research design. This is considered to be a very important aspect in conveying the ideas. The concepts should be clear in order to have the same perspective of implementation in the field in the other words, it is important to discuss the concept used or discussed, so that the reader would get the point clearly.

2.2 Syntax

Our informal characterization define syntax as the set of rules or principles that govern how words are put together to form phrases, well formed sequences of words. Almost all of the words in it have some common sense meaning independent of the study of language. We more or less understand what a rule or principle is. A rule or principle describes regularity in what happens. (For example: “if the temperature drops suddenly, water vapor will condense”). This notion of rule that we will be interested in should be distinguished from the notion of a rule that is an instruction or a statement about what should happen, such as “If the light is green, do not cross the street.” As linguists, our primary interest is not in how anyone says you should talk. Rather, we are interested in how people really talk.

In common usage, “word” refers to some kind of linguistic unit. We have a rough, common sense idea of what a word is, but it is surprisingly difficult to characterize this precisely. It is not even clear that the notion is one that allows a precise definition. It could be like the notion of a “French language.” There is a central idea to this vague notion but as we try to define it, we are led to making arbitrary decisions as to whether something is part of French or not. Furthermore, as we will see, we may not need any precise version of this notion at all. Nevertheless, these commonsense notions provide a reasonable starting point for our subject. So we will begin with the usual ideas about words, objects of the kind that are represented by the strings of letters on this page separated by blank spaces. When we become literate in a language, we learn the conventions about what is called a word, and about spacing these elements in texts. Who decides these conventions, and how do we learn them? We will gradually get to some surprising perspectives on this question.

As we will see, some reasons have been put forth to the effect that words are not the basic units of phrases, not the atomic units of syntax. Accordingly, the atoms, or “building blocks” that

syntax manipulates would be smaller units, units that we will see later in this chapter. We will also see that there are reasons to think that the way these units are combined is very regular, obeying laws very similar to those that combine larger units of linguistic structure. We begin by looking at properties of words informally characterized and see where it leads. As mentioned above, the sub domain of linguistics dealing with word properties, particularly word structure, is called morphology. Here we will concentrate on just a few kinds of morphological properties that will turn out to be relevant for syntax

2.2.1 Genre of Collocation

In syntax, a collocation is a sequence of words or terms that co-occur more often than would be expected by chance. In phraseology, collocation is a sub-type of phraseme. Phraseological collocation should not be confused with idioms, where an idiom's meaning is derived from its convention as a stand in for something else while collocation is a more popular composition.

2.3 Errors

Error is something done wrong by the students because they don't know what is correct. Actually, making error is a part of language. It will always occur when they try to speak or write the target language.

According to Dulay (1982:138) stated that error as "the flawed side of learner speech or writing". They are those parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance. It means that the area of learners' error can be found in the spoken such as in their conversation and writing.

Meanwhile Corder (1982:36) mentioned that “errors are described by the application of linguistic theory to the data of erroneous utterances produced by a learner or a group of learners”. It means that the learners can make error from their utterances.

Based on statement above the writer defines that logical to the learner but not usual to native speaker, claims that the distinct between errors and mistakes is unobservable in practice, so an error is something you have done which is considered to be incorrect or wrong, or which should not have been done.

2.3.1 Error Analysis

Error analysis is attempted to study the learner’s errors. The fact that the learners do many errors and the errors can be observed, analyzed and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, and it is called as error analysis.

According to Taylor (1982: 3) that “error analysis is the study and evaluation of uncertainty in measurement”. Experience has shown that no measurement, however carefully made, can be completely free of uncertainties. Because the whole structure and application of science depends on measurements, the ability to evaluate these uncertainties and keep them to a minimum is crucially important.

Crystal (1987: 112) in Sunardi Hasyim (2002) said that “error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics.

Based on the explanations above, they can be concluded that error analysis is the study of uncertainty in measurement and technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms by the learners.

2.3.2 Types of Error

There are several types of errors. Dulay, et.al (1982: 146-191), commonly used bases for the descriptive classification of errors are linguistic category, surface strategy taxonomy, comparative taxonomy, and communicative effect taxonomy.

1. Linguistic Category

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). While constituents include the elements that comprise each language component.

Curriculum developers have long used linguistic category taxonomies to organize language lessons in student textbooks and workbooks. While second language textbooks are increasingly organized according to content topic, such as renting an apartment or going to market, many are still organized according to linguistic category.

2. Surface Strategy Taxonomies

According to Dulay et.al (1982: 151), learners may omit necessary items or add unnecessary one, they may misform items or misorder them.

1) Omission

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance. Although any morpheme or word in a sentence is a potential candidate for omission, some types of morphemes are omitted more than others. Content morphemes carry the bulk of the referential meaning of a sentence: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. For example, in the sentence “*Mary is the president of the new company.*” The words, *Mary*, *president*, *new* and *company* are the content morphemes that carry the burden of meaning. If one heard “*Mary president new company*” one could deduce a meaningful sentence, while if one heard “*is the of the*” one couldn’t even begin to guess what the speaker might have had in mind. *Is*, *the*, and *of* are grammatical morphemes, those little words that play a minor role in conveying the meaning of a sentence. They include noun and verb inflections (the –s in *birds*, the –ed in *looked*, the –ing in *laughing*, etc.), articles (*a*, *the*, etc.), verb auxiliaries (*is*, *will*, *can*, etc), and prepositions (*in*, *on*, *under*, etc.). Languages that are more richly inflected than English use a greater variety of grammatical morphemes.

2) Additions

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. There are three types of addition errors, namely, double markings, regulations, and simple addition.

(1) Double Markings

Many addition errors are more accurately described as the failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic constructions, but not in others. For example “He doesn’t know my names” contains a redundant present form on the main verb “know”. It is

redundant because the auxiliary “does” already carries the verb “know”. The auxiliary “does” must be followed by infinitive in negative form. So that, the sentence should be “He doesn’t know my name”.

(2) Regularization

Regularization errors that fall under the addition category are those in which a marker that is typically added to a linguistic item is erroneously added to exceptional items of the given class that do not take a marker. For example, the verb *eat* does not become *eated*, but *ate*. The noun *sheep* is also *sheep* in the plural, not *sheeps*. It is true that in English most of verbs can be changed into past form by adding *-d -ed* after the basic verb and most of nouns can be pluralized by adding *-s -es* to singular forms, but not all of them.

(3) Simple addition

Simple addition is not a double marking nor a regularization. Simple addition errors are subcategory of additions. There is no particular features characterize simple additions other than those that characterize all addition errors the use of an item which should not appear in a well-formed utterance. For example: Fire truck want a this. It is a wrong sentence because of adding article ‘a’. The well-formed sentence is “Fire truck want this”.

3) Misformation

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the 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. For example, “The dog eated the chicken”. The past tense marker was supplied by the learner. The well-formed sentence is “The dog ate the chicken”.

4) Misordering

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance. For example, “He is all the time late”. *All the time* is misordered. The well-formed sentence is “He is late all the time”.

3. Comparative Taxonomy

Comparative taxonomy is based on comparisons between the structure of second language errors and certain other types of construction. There are three types of comparative taxonomy errors, they are:

1) Developmental Errors

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

2) Interlingual Errors

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

3) Ambiguous Errors

Ambiguous errors are those that could be classified equally well as developmental or interlingual. That is because these errors reflect the learner’s native language structure, and at the same time, they are of the type found in the speech of children acquiring a first language.

4. Communicative Effect Taxonomy

Communicative effect taxonomy is deal 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 don't. there are two types of communicative effect taxonomy errors, they are:

1) Global Errors

Global errors are errors that affect overall sentence organization significantly hinder communication.

2) Local Errors

Local errors are errors that affect single elements (constituents) in a sentence do not usually hinder communication significantly. These include errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries, and to be easily understood while it is possible to communicate successfully without controlling local grammar.

2.3.3 The Sources of Error

In learning foreign language, learners often make several errors because of some factors. According to Brown (2000:224), there are four sources of error:

1. Interlingual Transfer

The beginning stages of learning a second language are especially vulnerable to interlingual 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. For example, "sheep" for "ship", or "the book of Jack" instead of "Jack's book". All these errors are attributable to negative interlingual transfer. While it is not always clear that an error is the result of transfer from the native language, many such errors are detectable in learner speech. Fluent knowledge or even familiarity with a learner's native language of course aids the teacher in detecting and analyzing such errors.

2. Intralingual Transfer

One of the major contributions of learner language research has been its recognition of sources of error that extend beyond interlingual errors in learning a second language. Intralingual transfer (within the target language itself) is a major factor in second language learning. Richards (1973:174) distinguishes intralingual errors into four types, namely, overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, and false concepts hypothesized.

1) Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language. For example, “*he can sings*”. It is a wrong sentence because adding –s of verb after modal. The well-formed sentence is “*he can sing*”.

2) Ignorance of Rule Restrictions

It involves the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. Some rule restriction errors may be accounted for in terms of analogy, other instances may result from the rote learning of rules. Analogy seems to be a major factor in the misuse of prepositions. The learner, encountering a particular preposition with one type verb, attempts by analogy to use the same preposition with similar verbs. For example, “*He showed me the book*” leads to “*He explained me the book*”, “*he said to me*” gives “*he asked to me*”, “*we talked about it*” therefore “*we discussed about it*”, “*ask him to do it*” produces “*make him to do it*”.

3) Incomplete Application of Rules

It involves the occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances. For example, across background languages, systematic difficulty in the use of questions can be observed. A statement

form may be used as a question, one of the transformations in a series may be omitted, or a question word may simply be added to the statement form.

4) False Concepts Hypothesized

In addition to the wide range of intralingual errors which have to do with faulty rule-learning at various levels, there is a class of developmental errors which derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. For example, “*He is speaks French*” it should be “*He speaks French*”, “*We are walk to school every day*” it should be “*We walk to school every day*”.

3. Context of Learning

Context of learning refers to the classroom with its teacher and its materials in the case of school learning or the social situation in the case of untutored second language learning. In a classroom context the teacher or the textbook can lead the learner to make faulty hypotheses about the language. Students often make errors because of a misleading explanation from the teacher, faulty presentation of a structure or word in a textbook, or even because of a pattern that was rote memorized in a drill but improperly contextualized. The sociolinguistic context of natural, untutored language acquisition can give rise to certain dialect acquisition that may itself be a source of error.

4. Communication Strategies

Brown (2000:127) states that communication strategies pertain to the employment of verbal or nonverbal mechanisms for the productive communication of information. Learners obviously use production strategies in order to enhance getting their messages across, but at times these techniques can themselves become a source of errors.

2.4 Collocation

It sounds an innocent definition, but one very important point needs to be made: collocation is about the way words naturally co-occur, is what David Brazil brilliantly called 'used language'. Collocation are not words which we, in some sense, 'put together', they co-occur naturally, and the first task of the language teacher is to ensure that they are not unnecessarily taken apart in the classroom. If words occur together, learners need to notice that co-occurrence and, if they are to be recorded in a vocabulary book, the words should be recorded together, a point already made by several contributors.

According to McCarthy (2008:6) a collocation is a combination of two or more which frequently occur together. Collocations are not just a matter of how adjectives combine with nouns. Sinclair in Farrokh (2012:57) stated that collocation refers to the co occurrence of the words, but this co-occurrence is not indicative of two words occurring as a small fixed grammatical set instead, it has two important features. First, there may be several or many words between the two relevant items or the two relevant items may even occur over sentence boundaries. Second, collocation is independent of lexical types. On the words, collocation is not analyzed by lexical structures.

“Many years ago, J.R. Firth defined collocation as 'the company words keep' their relationships with other words. Another definition might be 'the way words combine in predictable ways.’”When we think of the number of words in English, the number of potential combinations runs into many millions. So, the first and most important fact about the nature of collocation is the number of individual words known by an educated native speaker pale into insignificance when compared with the total number of items-words, expressions, idioms, and collocation which exist in the mental lexicon of the typical educated native speaker. This fact of the size of the mental lexicon must dominate all our methodological thinking. When we believed

that grammar was the basis of all language learning, it was quite comforting to know that we had discovered all the English tenses and they could be summarized on half a dozen pages of a grammar book. The mental lexicon of any individual is huge, consisting as it does of a vast repertoire of learned phrases of varying degrees of fixedness. Within the mental lexicon, collocation is the most powerful force in the creation and comprehension of all naturally occurring text.

2.4.1 The Importance of Collocation

As mentioned previously, the literature on collocations shows agreement among second language acquisition researchers and language pedagogues as to the importance of learning collocations in order to increase EFL learners' language competence and enhance their communicative competence Brown (1974) For instance, Benson, Benson and Ison (1997) highlight the importance of this as follows: Learners of English as a foreign or second language, like learners of any language, have traditionally devoted themselves to mastering words, their pronunciation, forms and meanings. However, if they wish to acquire active mastery of English, that is, if they wish to be able to express themselves fluently and accurately in speech and writing, they must learn to cope with the combination of words into phrases, sentences and texts .

It is obvious that the knowledge of normal collocations is part of a native speaker's communicative competence in using the language and is also a major factor that distinguishes native speakers from learners of the target language. Bonk (2000) indicates that native 42 speakers have an extensive knowledge of how words combine in their language and they use this knowledge when they retrieve lexical items and link them appropriately in language production.

Cowie in Ahmed (2012) also stresses the importance of collocation in ESL/EFL settings. In his words, 'It is impossible to perform at a level acceptable to native users, in writing or speaking, without controlling an appropriate range of multiword units (i.e., collocations). These are realities which communicative language teaching in particular has to accommodate itself to' (Cowie, 1992:10).

Similarly, Lewis in Ahmed (2012) states that learning chunks of words helps language learners develop their communicative competence better than just learning words in isolation. He also adds that collocational knowledge will help learners expand their proficiency of vocabulary in both spoken and written language; instead of saying poverty causes crime, a big meal, they can say poverty breeds crime and a substantial meal respectively.

According to Lewis (2000:53-56) there are nine collocations importance:

1) The lexicon is not arbitrary

The first and most obvious reason why collocation is important because the way words combine in collocations is fundamental to all language use. The lexicon is not arbitrary. We do not speak or write as if language were not huge substitution table with vocabulary items merely filling slots in grammatical structures. To an important extent vocabulary choice is predictable. When a speaker thinks of drinking, he may use a common verb such as have.

2) Predictability

The very predictability of the collocation examples in the previous paragraph gives us another clue as to why collocation is an important pedagogical issue. The present simple is important in classroom because we can predict its use to an extent which helps learners. In a similar way, there are patterns to collocations which can make learning easier. There are parts of lexicon which are organized and patterned, and classrooms are, by definition, places where

learning is encouraged by using the most efficient means known to teachers and where learners need to be encouraged to notice predictable patterning.

3) The size of the phrasal predictable lexicon

Collocation is important because this area predictability is, as we have seen, enormous. Two, three, four and even five-word collocations make up a huge percentage of all naturally-occurring text, spoken or written. Estimates vary, but it is possible that up to 70% of everything we say, hear, read, or write is to be found in some form of fixed expression.

4) The role of memory

We know collocations because we have met them. We then retrieve them from our mental lexicon just as we pull a telephone number or address from our memory. Linguistics now give a much greater importance to memorized, familiar, and seventies, when methodologists reacted against any suggestion that learning by hearts had anyplace in learning.

5) Fluency

Collocation allows us to think more quickly and communicate more efficiently. Native speakers can only speak at the speed they do because they are calling on a vast repertoire of ready-made language, immediately available from their mental lexicons. Similarly, they can listen at the speed of speech and read quickly because they are constantly recognizing multi-word units rather than processing everything word-by-word' one of the main reasons the learners finds listening or reading difficult is not because of the density of new words, but the density of unrecognized collocations.

6) Complex ideas are often expressed lexically

Typical intermediate student speech, for example, is labored, one word at a time, and uses simple vocabulary to express both simple and complicated ideas. This inevitably causes problem. Simple language is ideal for the expression of simple ideas. Complex ideas difficult to express in complex language: They are even more difficult to express in simple language. But the complexity needed here is not convoluted grammar, it is usually lexical-complex noun phrases, frequently made of supposedly 'easy' words. The more exposure students have to good quality input and the more awareness they develop of the lexical nature of language, the more they will recognize and eventually produce longer chunks themselves.

7) Collocation makes thinking easier

Paradoxically, the reason we can think new things and speak at the speed of thought is because we are not using new language all the time. Collocation allows us to name complex ideas quickly so that we can continue to manipulate the ideas without using all our brain space to focus on the form of words. It is one of the sacred cows of EFL methodology that fluency with practice. Any teacher who has worked in Scandinavia or Holland, where English is widely spoken, knows this to be false.

8) Pronunciation is integral

Learners create much of what they say from individual words, their pronunciation, stress, and intonation, can be difficult for the listeners. The great added bonus to knowing a large number of collocations and other longer expressions is that if learner learnt in the stress pattern of a phrase as a whole, their stress and intonation will be better

9) Recognizing chunks is essential for acquisition

There are immediate methodological implications. Teachers should read texts aloud in class so that students hear the text correctly chunked. In class we should not DO unseen reading

aloud and less silent reading. The reason students find unseen reading so difficult is because they don't recognize the chunks-they read every word as if it were separate from every other word, so during silent reading students may be chunking totally wrongly.

2.4.2 Features of Collocation

According to Martelli (2007:27), the feature of literal, non-idiomatic nature of collocation is crucial for distinguishing collocations from other multiword expressions. However, she admits that in expressions such as "white coffee, white lies or white nights" the meaning of white is rather figurative. But, these expressions can be described as collocations since meanings of other constituents of these expressions are literal and the expressions are thus semantically transparent. In contrast to examples mentioned above, the author introduces the example "white elephant". The meaning of this expression is absolutely non-literal and thus idiomatic.

Boonyasaquan in Nasser (2014:33) summarized the main features of collocation as follows:

1. Collocations are frequent co-occurrences of items between which no word can be added. For example, in Knife and Fork, is not usual to add a word to this collocation like Knife, Spoon and Fork.
2. Collocation consists of components that cannot be replaced by a synonym or word of similar meaning. For example: John makes a cake, but not John makes a pancake.
3. Collocations are binomials that cannot be reserved. The order of a collocation is more or less fixed. For example, bread and butter not butter and bread.
4. Some collocations can be predicted. For example, if a person hears collocation apply and shrug, s/he automatically expects that for will follow respectively.

2.4.3 Classification of Collocation

Some writers distinguish between lexical collocations such as suggest an alternative, an evasive answer, and grammatical collocation such as aware of, step into. In this terminology, lexical collocations combine two equal lexical components (open class words), while grammatical collocations combine a lexical word, typically a noun, verb or adjective, with a grammatical word (one open class word and one closed class word). Within this framework, phrasal verbs are neither more nor less than grammatical collocations. The main focus in this book is on lexical collocations, though it is worth noting that learners would often be well advised to record more than simple two-word combinations.

Similarly, recording grammatical collocations such as aware of, interested in is unsatisfactory as these combinations are never used without at least one more word, so it makes more (collocational) sense to teach combinations such as aware of the problem, choosing typical examples of how the words are used in slightly larger context. Throughout this book teachers are repeatedly urged to encourage students to record language in larger chunks, and to keep at least part of the context in which the word actually occurred as part of what is recorded. A comment of Svetlana TerMinosava's (*Language, Linguistics any life*) is typically:

Foreign learners must keep in mind that they should learn words not through translations of their meanings (that is, reference to bits of reality and concepts), but in their most natural, habitual contexts, typical of the target language.

2.4.4 Lexical Collocation

The following are types of lexical collocations as categorized in Benson (Benson et.al., 1986 : ix). The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English (1986: xxiv – xxviii):

- 1) Verb (usually transitive) + noun/pronoun (or prepositional phrase)

Collocations are called CA collocations because they consist of a verb denoting creation or activation and a noun/a pronoun.

For example: (Denoting Creation) come to an agreement, compose a music, etc. (Denoting activation) set an alarm, launch a missile, etc.

- 2) Verb (meaning eradication and or nullification) + a noun.

The lexical combination is called EN (eradication and nullification) collocations.

For example: Reject an appeal, revoke a license, annul a marriage, withdraw an offer.

- 3) Adjective + noun

In some instances, more than one adjective (or more than one form of the same adjective) can collocate with the same noun.

For example: Strong/weak tea; kind / kindest / best / regards.

- 4) Noun + verb

The verb names an action characteristic of the person/things designated by the noun.

For example: Alarms go off, bees buzz, bomb explode

- 5) Noun + noun

This type of collocation indicates the unit that is associated with a noun.

A larger unit to which a single member belongs.

For example: A herd of buffalo, a bouquet of flowers, etc.

The specific, concrete, small unit of something larger, more general.

For example: A bit of advice, an article of clothing, etc.

- 6) Adverb + adjective

The meaning of most adverbs in this combination is “very”.

For example: Deeply absorbed, closely acquainted, hopelessly addicted, etc.

7) Verb + adverb

For example: Appreciate sincerely, argue heatedly, etc

2.5 Writing

Writing is a process of discovering and organizing your ideas, putting the paper and reshaping and revising them. Writing as a process to get product is influenced by some elements such as vocabularies, grammar, organization, spelling, and punctuation.

According to Trimmer (1995:2) writing is opportunity. It allows expressing something about you, to explore and to assess the claims of other people. By formulating and organizing ideas, finding the right words to present them, you gain power. As you come to see writing positively, as an opportunity for communication, you will develop the confidence you need to write. If you think clearly, or if you can talk to someone about the things you know and care about, you can write with confidence and enjoyment.

White and Arndt in Harmer (2003) states in their model that process writing is an interrelated set of recursive stages which include:

- 1) Drafting
- 2) Structuring (ordering information, experimenting with arrangements, etc)
- 3) Reviewing (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 (assessing the draft and/or subsequent drafts)

From the statement above, we can conclude that writing is a process of putting ideas, thoughts and feeling into a every sentence is related to another semantically and organized effectively and include aspects such as word choice, grammar, and contents or evidences.

2.5.1 Types of Writing

There are many types of writing Johns (2002:21-23) divides the types of writing such as: Recount, information reports, explanation, exposition, discussion, procedure, narrative, news item.

Table 2.5.1
Types of Writing

	Social Purpose	Social Location	Schematic Structure	Description of Stages
Recount	The social purpose is to tell Again events for the purpose of informing. Events Usually arranged in a temporal sequence.	The social locations of recount are found in personal letters or oral and written histories, police records ,insurance claims and excursion “write-ups”	The schematics structures re orientation, record of events, and re-orientation	<p>Orientation : Provides information about the situations :</p> <p>Record Events : Present events in temporal sequence.</p> <p>Re-orientation Optional stage bringing the events into the present.</p>

Information Report	The social purpose is to explain” the ways things are’ in our nature, built, and social environment by firstly classifying things and to en describing their special characteristics.	The social locations of information report are found in encyclopedias, brochures, and government documents. They are useful for locating information on a topic.	The schematic structures are general statement, description of aspects, and description of activities.	Description of Aspects : Lists and elaborates the parts of the subject matter. Description of Activities : Could be behaviors functions, or uses.
Explanation	The social purpose is to justify how or why things are as they are. An explanation sets out the logical steps in a process	The social locations of explanation are written by experts for text books, for nature programs, environmental leaflets, health-care booklets, and so on.	The schematic structures are general statement, and implication sequence.	General Statement: Provides information about the phenomena to be explained; Implication Sequence : Sets out steps in a process or the factors influencing a phenomenon in a logical sequence.
Exposition	The social purpose is to debate a particular point of view on an issue. An exposition gives reasons to support a thesis and elaboration these using evidence.	The social locations of exposition are written in school essays for subjects like History of English. They also occur in editorials, commentaries, and political debates.	The schematic structures are thesis, position preview, arguments, elaboration assertion reiteration.	Thesis : Process a viewpoint on a topic or issue; Position Preview: A position is stated and the arguments listed. Arguments : The arguments are asserted and elaborated in turn. Reiteration : Return to the thesis and concludes.
Discussion	The social purpose is to	The social locations of	The schematic structures are	Issue : Gives

	talk about an issue in the light of some kind of “frame” or position. Provides more than one point of view on an issue.	discussion are found in essays, edited, and public forums, which canvas a range of views on issues. They also occur in panel discussions and research summaries.	issue, arguments for and against, and conclusion.	information about the issue and how it is to be framed; Arguments for and against: Canvases points of view on the issue. (Similarities and differences or advantages & disadvantages) Conclusion: Recommends a final position on the issue.
Procedure	The social purpose is to order in how to do something through a sequence of steps.	The social locations of procedure can be found in science experiments and in instructional manuals such as gardening and cookbooks and technical instruction sheets.	The schematic structures are goal. Steps one and result.	Goal : Gives information about the purpose of the activity (might be in the title or in the opening paragraphs) Step 1: Presents the activities needed to achieve the goal. Results : Optional stage describing in the final state or “look” of activity.
Narrative	The social purpose is to entertain and instruct via reflection on experience. Deals with problematic events which individuals	The social locations of narrative are found across all aspects of cultural life, in novels, short stories, movies, sitcoms, and radio dramas. They are	The schematic structures are orientation, complication, evaluation, and resolution.	Orientation: Provides relevant information about the characters’ situation.

	have to resolve for better or worse.	important in subject such as English.		Complication: Introduces one or more problems for characters to solve.
News Item	The social purpose is to introduce recent events regarded as "news-worthy" or of public importance.	The social locations of news story are found in newspapers, television, and radio broad-casts.	The schematic structures are lead. Key event, and quotes.	Lead: Provides newsworthy information about the events (the "book") Key Events: Provides background information about events or story; Quotes: Provides commentary from relevant sources about significance of the events.

2.5.2 Report Text

A report text is a text which can be written out with descriptive techniques.

It describes an object to the readers. The length of the text depend on the specific details of the object being described. A report text is a text containing two components. The first is the general classification of the object being described. The technique which is commonly used is a definition. This way commonly introduces the class of the object. It can also be about the species or the origin or the type, or the function, the age, or the size, or the color, of the object. The second component is the description of the object. The common techniques used to describe the object accords with the orientation given in the general classification. The description is to tell a phenomenon the discussion.

Social Function :

To describe the way things are, with reference to a range of natural man-made and social phenomenon in our environment.

Text Structure :

General Classification: Tell what the phenomenon under discussion is.

Description : Tell what the phenomenon under discussion is like in terms of parts (and their function), qualities habits or behaviors, if living; uses if non-natural.

Significant Lexicogrammatical Feature

Focus on Generic Participants.

Use of Relational Process to state what is and that which it is.

Use of simple present tense.

Non temporal sequence.

2.6 Previous Research

The writer took one previous research from journal. Raising awareness of collocation. One obvious way of finding out which word our students do not expect to find together is through the mis-collocations they make in their production of language. It is a good idea to keep a record of these mis-collocations as you correct your students' essays so that you can bring them into the classroom at appropriate times to improve and extend vocabulary teaching.

An effective platform for raising awareness of collocation is to focus on a selection off your students' mis-collocations. At first the writer suggest to restrict the example to noun + verb, adjective + noun mis-collocations. Brown (1994) cites the following as typical examples of the mis-collocations produced by his students: Biochemists are making research

in to the causes of AIDS. The result was an extreme disappointment. We'll experience many costs, and few benefits will come.

Note that all three sentences are grammatically sound that is, the students' use of tense, aspects and subject/verb agreement is accurate. The students' choice of vocabulary is also appropriate, and as a result, if the individual words are known by the listener/reader, communication is effective. However, our 'slot and filler' approach to the teaching of grammar and vocabulary has not sensitized our students to the collocational constraints on word combinations. For instance, the first sentence should be: Biochemists are doing research in to the cause of AIDS. This is an extremely common verb + noun mis-collocational in which the verbs make and do are used with been recognized and given attention in most traditional EFL courses and course books, so 'make and do' collocations provide a useful starting point for introducing the notion of collocation to learners. It is important to get across to students at this stage that these relations are arbitrary there is no reason why it should be make a decision rather than do a decision. We need to make them aware that this is simply the way we say things in English and that's that.

The problem with the second sentence lies in the use of extreme. The expression (X) was extremely disappointing is very common, so it is not surprising that the students produced the sentence above. It seems a likely transformation. However, extreme does not collocate with disappointment.

The most likely collocates are big, great and bitter. It is important to recognize that the grammar transformation exercises we use in grammar teaching can encourage mis-collocation.

Although many native speakers would not instantly make these modifications, those working in the business field would do so more readily, especially in written

communications. This is an introduction of how collocation is closely tied to particular subject areas and, to a certain extent, it could be argued that topic-specific collocations are a major defining aspects of these areas. It follows that language proficiency within science, medicine, and commerce will be determined to a large extent by the students' mastery of the common collocations particular to each field. This means that a focus on collocational must become a major priority in Business English for Academic Purposes Courses.

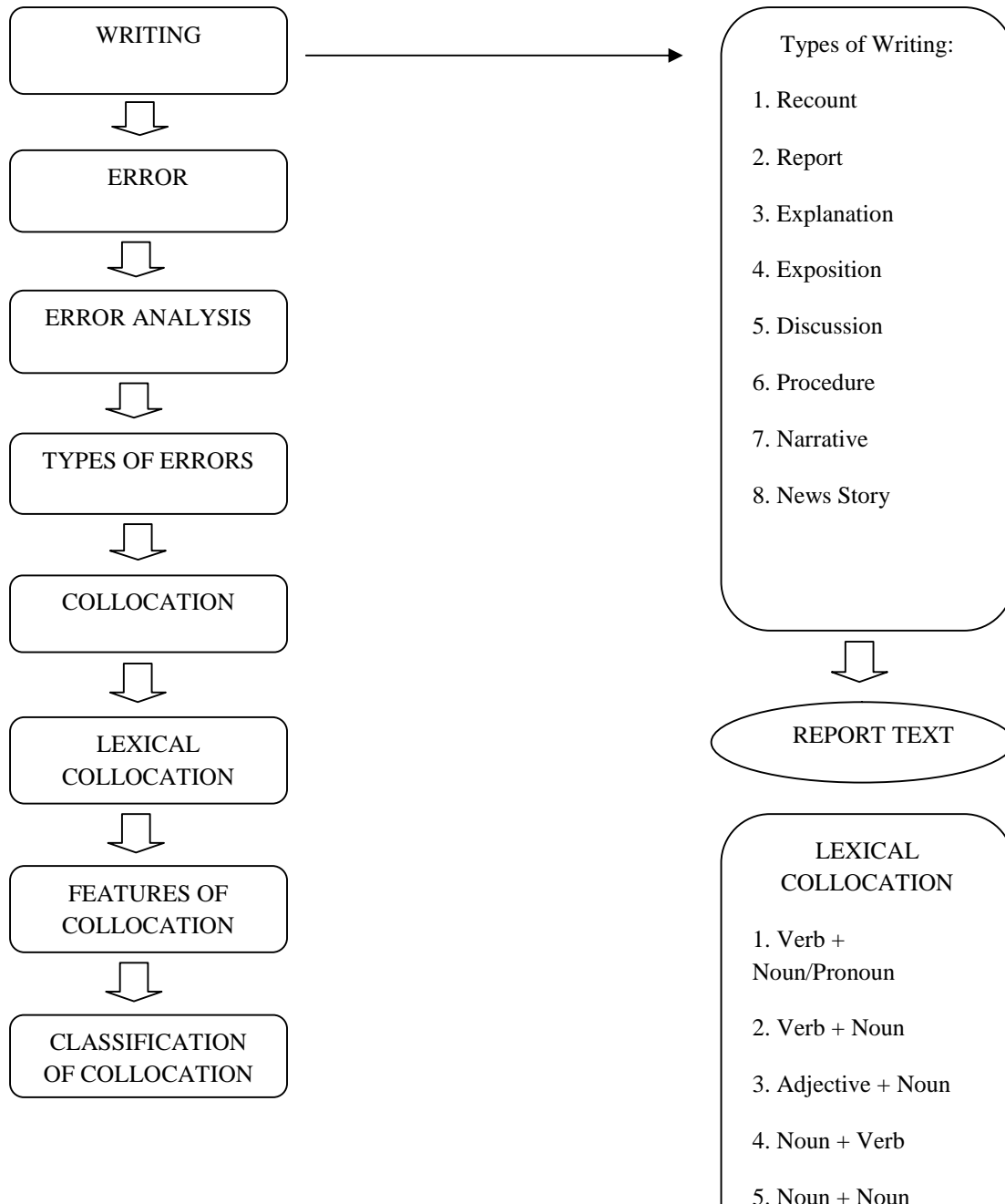
To sum up, for many students learning more vocabulary simply means learning new words. By focusing our students' attention on mis-collocations we make them aware that learning more vocabulary is not just learning new words, it is often learning familiar words in new combinations.

2.7 Conceptual Framework

Writing is a process of transfer ideas, opinions of the writer to the readers. Furthermore, a good writing is that the meaning is that message can be delivered properly without occurring misunderstanding both readers and writers. Writing skill is considered to be the most difficult skill to learn by the students.

A collocation is a combination of two or more words which frequently occur together. Collocations are not just a matter of how adjective combine with nouns. Sinclair in Farrokh (2012: 57) stated that collocation refers to as the co-occurrence of two words, but this co-occurrence is not indicative of two words occurring as a small fixed lexical set. Instead, it has two important features. First, there may be several or many words between the two relevant items or the two relevant items may even occur over sentence boundaries. Second, collocation is independent of lexical types.

Collocation fall into two major groups: grammatical collocation and lexical collocation. With regard to grammatical collocations, they consist of a noun and adjective or verb plus a preposition or a grammatical structure, such as an infinitive or a clause. In terms of lexical collocation, the main combinations of them are nouns, adjective, verbs and adverbs. The obvious difference between lexical collocations and grammatical collocation is that the former do not contain prepositions, infinitives, or clauses.



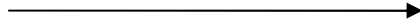


Figure 2.7 The Conceptual Framework of An Error Analysis of Lexical Collocational in Writing Report Text (Anggun Angreani Tamba: 2018)

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Research Design

The research design of this research is qualitative because the result of this study identified and analyzed students' Lexical collocation errors in report text. According to Creswell (2009:4) "qualitative research is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem." The work way of descriptive qualitative is collecting the data, arranging the data and interpreting the data. Qualitative research concerned with description. The analysis was based on the data taken from the students' writing.

3.2 The Subject of the Research

The subject of this research was taken from the grade X in Senior High School Hosana Medan. The students consist of 10 students as object X IPA 1.

3.3 The Object of the Research

The writer selected one class from two parallel classes as sample random. It could be said that from two parallel classes, one class was randomly selected. It was because time limit and each class consisted of same students' qualification. There were 10 students as object X IPA 1.

3.4 The Instrument of Collecting Data

In collecting data, the writer applied one instrument to elicit students' Lexical collocation errors. The instrument was writing test. The students were assigned to write a report text.

3.5 The Technique of Collecting Data

The data were analyzed the students' Lexical collocational errors in their writing report text. The writer applied some procedures, as follow as:

1. Asking the students to write a report text
2. Collecting the students' worksheet.

3.6 The Technique of Analyzing Data

The techniques of analyzing data, as follow as:

1. Collecting the data from students' worksheet.
2. Checking the students' worksheets to find out the errors.
3. Identifying the students' grammatical collocational errors by understanding every error from the students' writing test.
4. Classifying the types of error based on the types of Lexical Collocations.

