DICTATION AS A TESTING DEVICE OF LISTENING:
ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS’ ERROR
(The Case of the Fifth Grade Students of SDN Slawi Kulon 03 in the Academic Year 2006/2007)

A Final Project
Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Sarjana Pendidikan in English

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PERNYATAAN

Saya menyatakan bahwa yang tertulis dalam skripsi ini benar-benar hasil karya saya sendiri, bukan cuplikan dari karya orang lain, baik sebagian ataupun seluruhnya pendapat atau temuan orang lain yang terdapat dalam skripsi ini dikutip atau dirujuk berdasarkan kode etik ilmiah.

Semarang,

Dian Anggraeni
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Never too late to be good

(Codrington, 1664: 207)

To:

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2. My beloved mom and aunty, who give me lots of love and support.
3. Frack, who has always inspired me.
4. My classmates, the PBI 2002 CD, who have shared the joyful, beautiful time.
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The Writer
Abstract


Keywords: Students’ Errors. Dictation. Testing Device of Listening. Fifth Graders of Elementary School.

The main objective of this study is to find out dominant spelling errors and possible causes of those errors in dictation as a testing device of listening made by the fifth grade students of SDN Slawikulon 03 in the academic year 2006/2007.

This study was conducted under the consideration that there are some different pronunciations between English and Bahasa Indonesia. For example, when pronouncing English words, the students usually get difficulty because most English words are not spelled the way they are pronounced, while in Bahasa Indonesia the students will never find difficulty in pronouncing the Indonesian words because the words are pronounced the way they are orthographically written.

To gain the objectives, I did two activities: (1) library activity and (2) field activity. In the library activity, I explored some reference books that were related to dictation, listening skill, error analysis and research. While in field activity, I gave the fifth grade students of SDN 03 Slawikulon in the academic 2006/2007 a dictation test consisting of fifty multiple choice items. In taking the sample of this research, I used simple random sampling. I chose 26 students out of 42 students as the sample. In preparing the test, based on dictation and the students’ achievement, I classified and arranged the test items into four categories, those are: (1) simple words, (2) compound words, (3) words phrases, and (4) sentences. After giving the test, I analyzed the result by using statistical analysis and non-statistical one. The result of the study revealed that there were 328 spelling errors because of: clusters (9.7 % or 32 errors), diphthong (40.5 % or 133 errors), distinguishing long and short vowels (19.8 % or 65 errors) and recognizing words, phrases and sentences (29.9 % or 80 errors). There were also 328 possible causes of errors because of: interlingual interference (214 or 65. 24 %) and intralingual interference (114 or 34. 76%)
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Learning English is very important for students. Why is English important? The answer is obvious. English has become an international language. Because of that in Indonesia English is taught beginning in the elementary school in order that the students are familiar with English and can use and communicate in English well.

There are many ways to know the students’ proficiency in English. One of them is by using dictation. Using dictation as a testing device of listening is effective since dictation can check the students’ proficiency of English spelling through their listening skill. We realize that English as a foreign language is a difficult subject for Indonesian students to learn, because the language has a lot of rules which are different from Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian).

For example, pronunciation of most English words are not spelled the way they are pronounced, while in Indonesian language the students will never find any difficulty in pronouncing or writing down Indonesian words because it correspondences between sounds (phonic) and letters (graphic symbols). The grammatical rules, such as adding an –s ending to pluralize a noun of English words never occur in Indonesian grammar. Such differences will make the Indonesian students unable to comprehend easily the language being learned. They have to be trained both in written and oral exercise.
Dictation as a testing device of listening is effective since the teacher begins to realize the weaknesses of the students in comprehending the language as well as the weakness of the teaching method. By giving the test, the teacher will get the data by classifying which of the problems are more serious than the others to overcome. From the results of the test, the teacher will be able to collect the common mistakes made by the students so that he can provide a remedial course in the next teaching learning process.

1.2 Reasons for Choosing the Topic

As I have mentioned above, using dictation as a testing device of listening is effective since the test can check the students’ proficiency in recognizing most of the aspects of English through their listening skill. Therefore, my reasons to analyze students’ errors are:

(1) Dictation is an inseparable part of class activity since the students need it as supporting activity.

(2) Dictation is closely related to listening activity and the further application is that it can be used as a testing device as well.

1.3 Statements of the Problem

The problems discussed in this study are as follows:

(1) What kind of spelling errors do the fifth grade students of SDN Slawi Kulon 03 make?
(2) What are the dominant errors produced by the fifth grade students of SDN Slawi Kulon 03 in the above dictation activity?

(3) What are the possible causes of the errors, if any?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are as follows:

(1) To find out the spelling errors made by the fifth grade students of SDN Slawi Kulon 03.

(2) To find out the dominant errors produced by the fifth grade students of SDN Slawi Kulon 03.

(3) To find out the possible causes of those errors, if any.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Based on the objectives of the study, I hope that the result of the analysis will:

(1) Help language teachers in assessing listening through a practical way such as dictation.

(2) Motivate the students in listening activity, for the method of evaluation through dictation as a testing device of listening is presumably easy to follow.
1.6 Method of Investigation

(1) Library activity

In the library activity, I looked for some reference books, which were related to the subject matter and tried to get important information to support my ideas in this study. The kinds of source books to which I referred were among others some books dealing with dictation, listening skill, error analysis, and research.

(2) Field activity

To get the empirical data for my finding, I administered a test in using dictation as a testing device of listening. The test measured the students’ mastery in listening skill. Then the result was computed, in order to find out the dominant errors.

1.7 Definition of Terms

To make the topic easy to understand, I define the key terms used in this study:

(1) Error analysis

Error analysis means the study of learners’ errors. The errors need to be analyzed carefully since errors are parts of learning (Nourish, 1983:6).

(2) Dictation

Dictation means a test in which people have to write down word, phrases, sentences or passage that is read aloud, as a way of helping to learn a language (Hornby, 1995: 320).
(3) Testing

Testing is a form of examination for evaluating the performance and capabilities of a student or class. (Macquarie, 1987: 1234)

(4) Device

Device means a thing made or adapted for a particular purpose. (Hornby, 1995: 318).

(5) Listening

Listening means to pay attention with the ear; to hear or attend to, take device
(Thatcher, 1980: 496)

1.8 Final Project Organization

This final project consists of five chapters. Chapter I presents an introduction, which contains the general background of the study, reasons for choosing the topic, statements of the problem, objectives of the study, limitation of the study, significance of the study, method of investigation, terms definition and final project organization.

Chapter II presents the review of related literature that discusses the theoretical background used as the basis of the research report.

Chapter III discusses the method of investigation which consists of population and sample, including the choice of population and the technique of sampling, the instrument, real test and item analysis, including the difficulty level and discriminating power of each item.
Chapter IV presents the data analysis that discusses the analysis covering statistical analysis, and non-statistical analysis.

Chapter V presents the conclusion of the investigation and the suggestion for the improvement of teaching listening skill.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Teaching English to Young Learners

Human language skill is firstly developed through their auditory sense in which the sense is to be one of vital apparatus for normal person to recognize things outside them. Petty and Jensen (1980:10) claimed, “An infant’s first contact with a language is through listening and it is the sole contact for approximately a year, the importance of listening in language development continues to be a major factor throughout life.”

Paul (2003: 71) says that it is important for children to listen to as much English of an appropriate level as possible. The level should either be easy for them, at their present level, or just beyond the level they can already understand. If the level is too difficult, the children may lose confidence and positivity. Some teachers say that children should first hear a new language target for a while before speaking it and for quite some time before reading or writing it. One of the arguments often made in support of this approach is that babies hear new items of their native language first, say them next, and read and write them some time later. Another argument in favor of learning listening first is that listening does not demand very much of children or put pressure on them. If we expect children to speak before they feel ready to do so, they may lose motivation. Learners listen, notice the pattern, and then try to use these patterns to express themselves either soon after hearing them or some time after. So, if the children have a number of English lessons a week, it can be very helpful to do regular listening exercises.
from a tape, or with us providing the input. These exercises should be spread out as evenly as possible between lessons rather than done all at once in special lessons.

For the scope of a school environment mainly in the context of teaching-learning situation, Petty continued, “Children come to school as listeners (proficiency varies from child to child) whose speech patterns were essentially learned by listening.” Every oral communication situation is an opportunity for developing listening skills and fostering good listening habits. However, to conduct listening program in a language study, a teacher needs an organized plan and systematic evaluation in order that instructural activity of listening skills to be synchronic with other three major skills in a language teaching. This is because of the fact that there are close relationships among those language skills.

2.2 General Concept of Listening

Young children do listen to speech and other sounds that interest them or are significant to their lives. They listen effectively if what they hear is presented well and is within their language abilities and experiences. Listening involves more than just hearing or paying attention. Effective listening requires active and conscious attention to sounds in order to gain meaning from them. Lundsteen as quoted by Petty and Jensen (1980:181) has stated that listening refers to the process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind. According to Hornby (1995: 687) “listening comes from a verb to listen which means to make an effort to hear somebody or something.”
From the definition above the writer concludes that listening is figuring out what is in the speaker’s mind with active and conscious attention.

For instructural purposes, it is convenient to think of the listening process as having four types:

(1) Hearing

First we *hear* a series of sounds, the actual words and sentences.

(2) Understanding

Second, we *understand* the meanings of these words and sentences in the context in which we have heard them.

(3) Evaluating

Third, we *evaluate* the meanings and accept or reject the total communication.

(4) Responding

Finally, we *respond* to what we have heard with further thought, bodily movement, facial expression, or audible reaction. (Petty and Jensen, 1980, p.181)

According to Rost (2002: 137-144) they are three types of listening:

(1) Selective listening

Selective listening tasks encourage learners to approach genuine spoken texts by adopting a strategy of focusing of specific information rather than trying to understand and recall everything. Reconstruction of the spoken material based on selective listening tasks can help students link selective listening to global listening.
(2) Interactive listening

Interactive listening refers to listening in collaborative conversation. Collaborative conversation, in which learners interact with each other or with native speakers, is established as a vital means of language development.

(3) Intensive listening

Intensive listening refers to listening for precise sounds, words, phrases, grammatical units and pragmatic units. Although listening intensively is not often called for in everyday situations, the ability to listen intensively whenever required is an essential component of listening proficiency. The prototypical intensive listening activity is dictation, the transcription of the exact words that a speaker utters. Dictation is often claimed to be an excellent integrative test because it involves listening, vocabulary, grammar, and the ability to make inferences from context.

According to Underwood as quoted by Rost (2002: 142) says that it is unfair to plunge students straight into the listening text, even when testing rather than teaching listening, comprehension, as this makes it extremely difficult for them to use the natural listening skills (which we all use in our native language) of matching what they hear with what they expect to hear and using their previous knowledge to make sense of it. So before listening, students should be ‘turned in’ so that they know what to expect, both in general and for specific tasks.

Pre-listening work can be done in a variety of ways and occurs naturally when listening is part of an integrated skill course, and a listening task is linked to a previous content-based activity.
Underwood as quoted by Rost (2002:142) summarizes a variety of ways that pre-listening work can be done in the classroom including:

(1) The teacher gives background information before students listen to the text.
(2) The students read something relevant to the topic.
(3) The students look at pictures that prepare them for the topic.
(4) There is a class discussion of the topic or situation in the upcoming text.
(5) There is a question-answer session with the class as a whole.
(6) The teacher gives written exercises to preview the content.
(7) The students go over the procedures for the upcoming listening task.

Any of these activities, one or combination of them will serve to activate students’ knowledge and vocabulary to listen fluently.

2.3 General Concept of Dictation

Dictation has been a feature of language classroom for hundreds of years. In this final project I will give a clear picture of dictation. It offers the definition of dictation, characteristics of dictation and types of dictation.

2.3.1 Definition of Dictation

Dictation is a widely researched genre of assessing listening comprehension. Dictation is useful when well integrated with the learning activities. It is a teaching technique which has proved extremely effective at all levels of instruction. It ensures attentive listening, trains students to distinguish sounds, enables students to learn to transfer oral sounds to written symbols, helps to develop aural comprehension and assists in self-evaluation.
Several experts gave their statements about dictation that are very useful for teachers. For example Oller (1979:39) stated that, “as an integrative test, dictation has to meet the naturalness requirements:

(1) The sequences of words or phrases to be dictated are selected from normal prose, or dialogue, or some other natural form of discourse (or perhaps the sequences are carefully contrived to mirror normal discourse as in well written function).

(2) The material is presented orally in sequences that are long enough to challenge the short term memory of the learners.”

Based on those two naturalness requirements, it is important to teachers to make some preparation when they are going to give a dictation test to their students. Firstly, they have to select suitable materials to be dictated. Secondly, they have to select suitable procedures to be used in giving the dictation.

According to Richards, Platt and Weber as quoted by Fachrurrazy (1989), “dictation is a technique used in both language teaching and language testing in which a passage is read aloud to students, with pauses during which they must try to write down what they heard as accurately as possible.”

Another definition of dictation is given by Taylor as quoted by Fachrurrazy (1989) says that dictation means “(1) reading a passage aloud, (2) dividing the passage into phrases suitable for committal to short-term memory and re-reading phrase with phrase with gaps long enough for subjects to record the preceding phrase in writing, (3) optionally re-reading each phrase as it is being
written, and (4) re-reading the whole passage as in (1). According to Hornby (1995: 190), dictation means “being dictated to; passage that is dictated”.

In short, it can be said that dictation is an activity where a student transcribes a word, phrase, sentence or passage he hears.

### 2.3.2 Characteristics of Dictation

According to Zhiqian (1989) dictation serves the teacher and the students efficiently. It has several characteristics:

1. Dictation can be used with a class of any size. When the dictation is given, all of the students are working, even in a very large class.
2. Dictation ensures attentive listening. When the students are doing a dictation, their attention will totally be focused on the exercises.
3. Dictation gives the students a chance to get practice in the sort of note taking that many courses require. This is a very important part of the students’ needs in using language.
4. Dictation requires the students to make the transfer from the spoken to written language. The written record proves their ability to reproduce spoken language in a correct visual form.
5. Dictation, if properly varied, can provide practice in listening comprehension, vocabulary building, increasing reading speed and comprehension, as well as elementary aspects of hand-writing, punctuation, spelling, and composition formation. Certain types of dictation also lend themselves to the grammar class, and train the students to distinguish sounds and grammatical elements.
2.3.3 Types of Dictation

As a testing technique, dictation may be given in various types. There are several types of dictation. According to Oller (1979:264-265), they are as follows:

(1) Standard dictation

This is the best-known type of dictation. It requires the examinee to write verbal sequences of material as spoken by an examiner or played back from a recording.

(2) Partial dictation

This is similar to standard dictation, except that the examinees are given a written version of the text (along with the spoken version) in which the written passage has certain portions left out. The examinees must listen to the spoken material and fill in the blanks in the written version.

(3) Dictation with competing noise

This type of dictation can also be called noise dictation. The addition of noise in the process of dictation is intended to imitate a natural condition.

(4) dictation/composition or dicto-comp

In this type of dictation, the examinees are instructed to listen to a text, one or more times while it is presented either live or on tape at a conversational rate. Then they are asked to write from memory what they have heard.

(5) Elicited imitation

This is similar to dictation in terms of the material presented to the examinee, but dissimilar with respect to the response mode. In this case, the examinee hears the material, just as in standard dictation (and with equal possibilities for
variation), but instead of writing down the material the examinee is asked to repeat it or otherwise recount what was said.

(6) Dictogloss

According to Taylor, Davis and Rinvolucri as quoted by Fachrurrazy (1989), it is a dictation where the examiner reads a sentence once, after which the examinees are to jot down the main or key words they can recall, and then to reconstruct the sentence in writing as accurately as they can. This dictation is sometimes called natural dictation.

(7) Combined cloze and dictation

This type of dictation is similar in procedure to partial dictation, but the portions left out follow the deletion procedure of cloze.

Variations of pure dictation have been developed in order to provide greater ease of use, more interaction, forced output, and better focus on specific language items.

According to Rost (2002:137-144), other variations of dictation are:

(1) Fast speed dictation

The teacher reads a passage at natural speed, with assimilation, etc. The students can ask for multiple repetitions of any part of the passage, but the teacher will not slow down her articulation of the phrase being repeated. This activity focuses students’ attention on features of fast speech.

(2) Pause and paraphrase

The teacher reads a passage and pauses periodically for the students to write paraphrase not the exact words used. (Indeed, students may be instructed not
to use the exact words they heard). This activity focuses students on vocabulary flexibility, saying things in different ways, and in focusing on meaning as they listen.

(3) Listening cloze

The teacher provides a partially completed passage that the listeners fill in as they listen or after they listen. This activity allows students focus on particular language features, e.g. verbs or noun phrases.

(4) Error identification

The teacher provides a fully transcribed passage, but with several errors. The students listen and identify (with correct) the errors. This activity focuses attention on detail: the errors may be grammatical or semantic.

(5) Jigsaw dictation

Students work in pairs. Each person in the pair has part of the full dictation. The students read their parts to the other in order to complete the passage. This activity encourages negotiation of meaning.

2.3.4 Advantages of Using Dictation in the Classroom

Lightfoot (2004) says that dictation exercises are very important, particularly for developing the children’s awareness of phonic sounds, and contrary to the popular view of dictation, it can be a lot of fun. We can dictate sounds for the children to write in pictures, bingo grids and treasure maps, and the children can choose which squares to write the sounds in and get points if they choose certain squares. The children can also have worksheet with sounds or
words on them, and do activities such as listening to dictated sounds or words, choosing the correct ones on their worksheets.

Lightfoot continued that there are several reasons why dictation activities work well in the classroom. From the teacher’s point of view, dictation:

(1) Can be done with any level, depending on the text used.

(2) Can be graded for a multi-level class.

For the students, dictations:

(1) Can focus on both accuracy (form) as well as meaning, e.g. in the dictogloss activity.

(2) Can develop all four skills- listening, speaking, reading and writing can be developed if the students do the dictating rather than the teacher.

(3) Give students the opportunity to notice features of pronouncing such as weak forms, linking and elision.

In fact, dictation can be used to decrease preparation time for other activities, such as:

(1) Instead of spending hours making cut-up activities such as matching vocabulary and their definitions, why not give the students blank slips of paper and dictate the necessary information to them. This also gives the students more listening and writing/spelling practice.

(2) To save time, the class can be divided into two groups and the words/phrases dictated quickly with each group required to write down only half the words given.
Additionally, dictation activities where students compare their versions of the text to the original can increase their ability to notice aspects of language which are sometimes overlooked, as well as mistakes which they commonly make. These might include common spelling errors, absence of articles or the third person’s, etc. the comparison also helps students to become better at identifying errors in their own written work.

2.4 Spelling Errors

Mercer defines spelling as “the forming of words through the traditional arrangements of letters” (1989:412). People, often, do not pay attention too much on correct spelling, but even one spelling error will spoil a sentence. For example; a teacher asked his students to write “My mother gives me a cake.” There were two different results made by the students. Firstly, “My mother gives me a cake.” And secondly, “My mother gives me a kick.” Those two sentences have completely different meaning. The second sentence is wrong because the students wrote kick instead of cake. In this case, the students failed to distinguish the sounds /I/ from /eI/.

As I have said previously, everyone considers English spelling very difficult. It is due to the fact that there are many irregularities in it. There is also no contextual clue in it. Therefore, students have no easy way of choosing two words, such as write and right.

Because English has a very unusual spelling system, English spelling rules and generalizations become things that are very needed in learning English
spelling. The spelling rules and generalizations are aimed to aid those who will learn spelling. Strickland (1957: 387) says “certainly, no rule should be taught unless it covers a sufficient number of words to pay for the effort of learning it, and then only if children are mature enough to see the points at which it applies.”

There are some rules that we usually find in learning spelling. Petty and Jensen (1980:462) present some rules, the rules are:

1. Words ending in silent e usually drop the final e before the addition of suffixes beginning with a vowel but they keep the final e before the addition of suffixes beginning with a consonant (make, making).

2. Words ending in a consonant and y change the y into i before adding all suffixes except those beginning with i. The y is not changed to i when adding suffixes to words ending in a vowel and y, or when adding a suffix beginning with i (busy, busily, carry, carrying, stay, stayed).

3. One syllable words and words accented on the last syllable. If they end in a single consonant preceded by a vowel, the final consonant will be doubled when they are added a suffix beginning with a vowel (run, running).

4. The letter q is always followed by u in common English words (quite, quart).

5. English words do not end with v (believe, give).

6. Proper nouns and most adjectives formed from proper nouns should begin with capital letters (France, French).

2.5 Errors and Mistakes

In order to analyze learner’s error, it is necessary to make distinction between error and mistake because they are of two different phenomena.
Hubbard, et al (1983:143) stated that error caused by lack of knowledge about the target language or by incorrect hypotheses about it. James (1998:83) defined error and mistake below:

Mistake can only be corrected by their agent if their deviance is pointed out to him or her. If a simple indication that there is some deviance is a sufficient prompt for self-correction, then we have a first order mistake. If additional information is needed, in the form of the exact location and some hint as to the nature of the deviance then we have second order mistake…. Error cannot be self-corrected until further relevant (to that error) input (implicit or explicit) has been provided and converted into intake by learner.

The definition above shows that mistake is a fault which is made by the learner and he or she can make correction. Meanwhile, error is a fault which is made by the learner and he or she is unable to make correction. Brown (1980:163) stated 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. Meanwhile, error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner’.

From the definitions above, the writer conclude that error is a systematic and noticeable deviation in learner language from the grammar of a native speaker which results from lack of knowledge of the correct rule. It reflects the interlanguage competence of a learner and consistently made by a learner who is unable to make correction. And mistake is a deviation in learner language which results from the failure to perform learners’ competence and to utilize a known system correctly but they are able to correct their fault.
2.5.1 Error Analysis

In learning and using a foreign language, one of the most inhibiting factors is the fear of making mistakes or errors. The making of errors is a sign that students have not yet mastered the rules of the language being learned. To cope with this problem, one of the strategies widely used by linguist is error analysis. Brown (1980: 166) says that error analysis is the study of students’ error which can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learners. Brown’s point of view implies that error analysis is useful for the teacher. Error analysis will show teachers some problems confronting the students. It is an advantage that error analysis may be tracked down to the importance of students’ errors.

According to Johansson (1975: 248), “An analysis of the learner’s error gives the teacher evidence of the learner’s competence in the foreign language.” The teacher will also gain information concerning learner’s difficulties at different levels. Such information is important for the planning of courses and the constructions of the teaching materials.

In addition, it is necessary to discuss error analysis for teaching English as a foreign language. English teachers should know error analysis because it becomes a useful key to understanding the process of foreign language acquisition. They should know how the target language is leaned or acquires and what is the best strategy the learners employ in order to master the target language. By conducting a systematic study of error, they may improve their teaching method and attempt to find some answers or solutions to solve some problems faced by their students.
From the definition above, I can conclude that error analysis is a methodology for investigating learners’ competence in acquiring a second language acquisition or a foreign language. It describes learners’ interlanguage and can be used to identify the possible mistakes or errors students’ likely make.

2.5.2 Sources of Error

Errors, as Brown writes, arise from several possible general sources, namely interlingual errors of interference from the native language, intralingual errors within the target language, the sociolinguistic context of communication, psycholinguistic and cognitive strategies, and no doubt countless affective variables (1980: 66).

(1) Interlanguage errors.

According to Chaistain quoted by Agus Sururi (1996: 12), interlingual errors are caused by the interference of the mother tongue which has something to do with a contrastive analysis hypothesis that aims at describing the differences and similarities between the two languages with a view to predicting possible leaning problems. According to Clifford (in Brown, 1980: 152-154) there are six categories as the causes of interlanguage errors:

(a) Level 0 – Transfer.

There is no contrast or difference between the two languages. Learners can positively transfer a sound, structure or lexical item from native to target language as can be seen in the sentences below:
Dia memberi saya seikat bunga.

He gave me a bouquet of flower.

(b) Level 1 – coalescence.

Two items in the native language are united into one item in the target language. For example, the first person singular *I* in Indonesia has some counterparts in Indonesia language, such as *saya, aku, hamba dan beta*.

(c) Level 2 – under differentiation.

According to Brown (1980: 153), this level refers to items in native language which are absent in target language. It can be seen in *the man entered the room* instead learner apply unnecessarily preposition *into* due to the influence of a semantic counterpart *kedalam*, which is not necessary for the verb *enter*.

(d) Level 3 – reinterpretation

Brown states that an item exists in native language are transferred into target language so as to give a new shape or distribution. It happens because of interference of semantic form in native language. For example, *after mirroed (setelah saya berkaca)* instead of *after I looked at myself on the mirror*. The learner seems to give a new shape (word) for the meaning *berkaca*. He seems to be careless to find the appropriate word.
(e) Level 4 – over differentiation

It refers to an item in native language which is considered to be the same as that in target language. An entirely new item, bearing little of any similarity to the native language item, must be learned. It seems that it may have something to do with forms and meanings. For example, *it was her her who received the message* instead of *it was she (not her) who received the message*. In this case, the learner is confused of the forms of the pronoun with the same meaning.

(f) Level 5 – spilt

One item in native language becomes two or more in target language, requiring learners to make a new distinction. For example, the verb *to write* undergoes some inflections, such as *writes, wrote, written, and writing*. Such inflections do not exist in Indonesian. For this reason, this learner may incorrectly construct *she write* for *she writes, they have write* for *they have written, he writing* for *he is writing*.

(2) Intralanguage errors

The second sources of errors that will be discussed in this final project are what is called intralanguage (intralingual) source of errors. Here, Brown considers the significance of the intralingual source of errors, namely those which occur within the target language itself. According to Richard (1974: 6), these types of errors are direct result of the learner’s attempt to create language system he is hearing. The interlanguage errors are caused by:
(a) Overgeneralization error arises when the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of other structures in the target language. It generally involves the creation of one deviant structure in place of two target language structures, for example, he can sings where English allows he can sing and he sings.

(b) Ignorance of rule restrictions involves the application of rules to context where they do not apply. An example is he made me to rest through extension of the pattern found with the majority of verbs that take infinitival complements, for example he asked/ wanted/ invited/ me to go.

(c) Incomplete application of rules involves failure to fully develop a structure. Thus learners of L2 English have been observed to use declarative word order in questions, for example do you like to sing?. In place of interrogative word order, for example do you like to sing?. This type of intralingual error corresponds to what is often referred to as an error of transitional competence.

(d) False concept hypothesized arises when the learner does not fully comprehend a distinction in the target language, for example the use was as a marker of past tense in one day it was happened.
CHAPTER III
METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

3.1 Sources of Data

In this study, I decided to do two activities; those are library activity and field activity. Library activity has been discussed in Chapter II. While in this chapter, I will discuss about field activity. Arikunto says that a field research can be carried out at the hospital, school, factory, family, society, etc (1993:10). Referring to the statement, I conducted the study at SDN Slawi Kulon 03 in the academic year 2006/2007.

Before conducting my study, I had consulted the headmaster of SDN Slawi Kulon 03 to know whether the students of the fifth grade were allowed to be used as sample of my study or not. Receiving the headmaster’s agreement, I developed an instrument of my study. To get empirical data for my study, I administered a test. The test was given to the fifth grade students of SDN Slawi Kulon 03 in the academic year 2006/2007. They were supposed to do the test to show the advancement in listening.

3.2 Subject of the Study

3.2.1 Population

Population is the most significant factor in conducting a research. The term population itself means a group of people from which the sample is drawn. As stated by Arikunto (2002:108), a population is the entire subject in a research.
And according to Gay (1987:102), “population is the group of interest to a researcher, the group to which he or she would like the result of the study to be generalizes able”.

In conducting the study, I used the score of the fifth grade students of SDN 03 Slawikulon in the academic year 2006/2007. I chose SDN 03 Slawi Kulon because in this school, English is given to the students as a local content subject. English is given from the fourth grade up to the sixth grades. The subject of the study can be seen in table 3.1 below. The subjects were the fifth grade students of SDN 03 Slawi Kulon academic year 2006/2007. They considered of grouped into 18 males and 24 females. Their ages were 10-11 years old.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.2 Technique of Sampling

The sample is part of the population who are chosen to participate in the study. There are 42 students in the fifth class of SDN 03 Slawi Kulon in the academic year 2006/2007. To take the sample, I used simple random sampling. It was easy to carry out and did not need to follow difficult procedure. In this case, the students were randomly chosen as the sample of the research in which each of them (as a member of the population) had an equal chance to be included in the sample. It means that no member of the population was excluded from the sample.
except by chance. Thus, each of the student’s names was written on a piece of paper. The papers were rolled up and mixed well in a tin can. After that, 26 rolled up papers were dropped out of the slot one by one. The researcher took 26 students out of 42 students as the sample after consulting with the English teacher and the rest was taken as try out test students.

3.3 Method of Data Collection

A researcher can use many kinds of data collection like questionnaires, interview or test. It should be noted, however, that all methods of data collection should be objective. Then in this research I used objective type test.

3.3.1 Instrument

An instrument plays an important role to collect data in a research. My instrument in this study is listening test. The validity of instrument may influence the reliability of data obtained.

In collecting the data, I used objective type test. Based on Tinambuan (1988: 55-56), the objective test includes a variety of items types. Objectives items can be classified into supply-type and selection-type. Supply-type test which is known as “short answer” or “completion” requires pupil to supply the answer. And the selection-type test is one which requires pupil to select the answer from a given number of alternatives, such as true false items, matching and multiple choices.

Then, to collect the data, I used the selection-type of objective test that was multiple choice tests. The test consisted of fifty multiple choice items with four
options: A, B, C, and D. I chose the objective type test based on the following consideration:

(1) Objective test type makes easy for the examiner to compute the difficulty level and the discriminating power of each item.

(2) Objective test type will not make the examiners have different interpretation of students’ answer.

(3) Objectives test type will be easier to score the students’ responses quickly.

(4) Students’ test paper can easily be administered and scored. So, it will be more practical.

Based on the above considerations, I used multiple choices in conducting the dictation test. Paul (2003: 73) corroborated the statement. He mentioned that “the children can also have worksheets with sounds or words on them, and do activities such as listening to dictated sounds or words, then choosing the correct ones on their worksheets….”

### 3.3.2 The Construction of the Test

As mentioned above that the test applied in this study was an objective test. The test consisted of fifty multiple choice items with a choice of four options: A, B, C, and D.

In preparing the test, I classified and arranged the test items into four categories:

(1) Words

   (a) Nouns can be found in numbers: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10.

   (b) Verbs can be found in numbers: 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18.
(c) Adjectives can be found in numbers: 19, 20, 21, 22, and 23.

(d) Adverbs can be found in numbers: 24, 25, 26, and 27.

(2) Compound words

(a) Compound nouns can be found in numbers: 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33 and 34.

(b) Compound verbs can be found in numbers: 35 and 36.

(3) Word phrases

(a) Noun phrases can be found in numbers: 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, and 42.

(b) Verb phrases can be found in numbers: 43, 44, and 45.

(c) Adjective phrases can be found in numbers: 46 and 47.

(d) Adverb phrases can be found in numbers: 48, 49, 50, 51 and 52.

(4) Sentences can be found in numbers: 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59 and 60.

3.4 Try-out

Before the test was administered to the fifth grade students of SDN 03 Slawi Kulon in the academic year 2006/2007 to collect data, it had been tried out to know the validity, the reliability, the level of difficulty and the power of discrimination.

As I mentioned before that the goal of the try out test was to measure the validity and the reliability of the test. If the test item does not have validity and reliability, it must be revised. The revision was made based on the analysis of the try out test result. There were 8 test items that were revised based on the result of
computation of the test items. They were test items numbers 9, 15, 17, 21, 36, 37, 48, 59. But, to collect the data I only used fifty test items.

3.4.1 Validity of the Test

Related to the validity of the test, Tinambunan (1988: 11) says that “Validity refers to the extent to which the result of an evaluation procedure serves the particular uses for which they are intended. Thus, the validity of the test is the extent to which the test measures what it intended to measure.” Harris (1969: 19-21) also notes that validity is distinguished into three kinds. They are content validity, empirical validity and fact validity.

In this study, I used content validity. Content validity is the extent to which a test measures a representative sample of the subject matter content and the behavioral changes under consideration. A test is said to have high content validity if the test item used to collect data has relevance to established criteria or objectives and covers representative materials. Therefore, to find out whether the test has content validity, the test items were composed with the materials dealing with the English listening.

A test, then, is said to have empirical validity if it can show the evidence that the test scores have a high correlation to some criterion such as the mark the students got. Face validity is the way a test looks to examinees, test administrators, educators, and the like. The test looks clean, clear, and neat. It does not look a silly test. So, the test will not insult those who take it. In order to know whether the test items are valid or not, I used Pearson-Product Moment Formula as suggested by Arikunto (2002: 146)
The formula is as follows:

\[ r_{xy} = \frac{N \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{N\sum X^2 - (\sum X^2)} \sqrt{N\sum Y^2 - (\sum Y^2)}} \]

Where,

- \( r_{xy} \) = validity of the item
- \( N \) = total number of the respondent
- \( \sum X \) = the sum of item score
- \( \sum Y \) = the sum of total item
- \( \sum XY \) = the sum of the item score multiplying the total score
- \( \sum X^2 \) = the sum of square of the item score
- \( \sum Y^2 \) = the sum of the square of the total score

(Arikunto, 2002: 146)

To interpret the coefficient correlation obtained, I used the table of critical value from r Product moment. Because the level of significance used in this correlation was 5% and the total number of the students was 16 so the \( r_{table} \) that would be obtained was 0.479. If \( r \) value is higher than \( r_{table} \), the correlation is significant; it means that an item is valid if \( r_{value} \) is lower than \( r_{table} \), an item is not valid. The calculation of the item validity is presented in Appendix 6.

Based on the result of the computation, there were 52 items that were considered to be valid. Then, there were 8 items which were considered to be
invalid because r values were lower than r table. They were numbers 9, 15, 17, 21, 36, 37, 48, 59.

### 3.4.2 Reliability of the Test

Besides validity, reliability is another essential characteristic of a good test. Reliability is important to know whether or not the test as an instrument for collecting data is consistent or stable. As Brown (1988: 98) states “reliability of a test is defined as the extent to which the result can be considered consistent or stable,” furthermore Tinambunan notes that “reliability refers to the consistency of test scores. That is, how consistent test scores or other evaluation from one measurement to another.”

The computation of the reliability of the test used Spearman Brown, as follows:

\[
 r_{11} = \left[ \frac{n}{n - 1} \right] \left[ \frac{S^2 - \sum pq}{S^2} \right] 
\]

Where:

- \( r_{11} \) = the reliability of the item
- \( n \) = the number of items
- \( p \) = proportion of the subject answering the item correctly
- \( q \) = proportion of the subject answering the item incorrectly
- \( s^2 \) = standard deviation of the test

The calculation of the reliability of the instrument is presented in Appendix 7.
3.4.3 Item Analysis

Item analysis is evaluating the effectiveness of the item. The purpose of doing item analysis was to check whether or not each item meets the requirement of a good test item.

According to Heaton (1974: 172) “After the answer sheets have been accumulated, all items should be examined from the point of view of their difficulty level of discrimination.” From the statement above it can be noted that item analysis concentrated on two things, those are item difficulty and discriminating power (item discrimination).

3.4.3.1 Item Difficulty

The item difficulty of test shows how easy or difficult the items proved in the test. The item difficulty or facility value is given a symbol P. According to Arikunto (2002: 210), item difficulty is categorized into 3 levels; difficult, medium and easy.

In which:

\[
0.00 < ID \leq 0.30 \quad \text{is said to be difficult}
\]

\[
0.30 < ID \leq 0.70 \quad \text{is said to be medium}
\]

\[
0.70 < ID \leq 1.00 \quad \text{is said to be easy}
\]

To calculate the difficulty level of an item, I used the following formula as recommended by Gronlund (1982: 102-103):

\[
ID = \frac{RU + RL}{T}
\]

Where:

ID = Item Difficulty of item
RU = the number of students in the upper group who answered the item correctly;
RL = the number of students in the lower group who answered the item correctly;
T = the total number of students in both upper and the lower groups.

The procedures of calculating the difficulty level of items are as follows:
(a) All 16 papers were arranged from the highest score to the lowest one.
(b) Approximately one third of papers were selected with the highest scores and called the upper group.
(c) For each item, the number of the students in the upper group who selected the correct answer was counted. Make the same count for the lower group, then add up the correct answers of the upper group and those of the lower group (do the same thing with the number of students in the upper and lower group) and divide the first sum by the second one.

3.4.3.2 Item Discrimination

As noted by Heaton (1974: 173), “the discrimination index of an item indicates the extent to which the item discriminates between the testees, separating the more able testees from the less able. The index of discrimination (D) tells us whether those students who performed well on the whole test tended to do well or badly on each item in the test.”

I concluded that the index of discrimination with symbol (D) is a number which shows how well a test item identifies differences in achievement levels of students.

According to Gronlund (1982: 103), the steps to estimate item discriminating power are as follows:
(a) The number of students in the upper group and that in the lower group who answered the item correctly are compared.

(b) The items of correct answers in the lower group are subtracted by those in the upper one to find the difference between those who gave the correct answer to the item in upper and lower groups.

(c) The number of students in one group divides the differences.

Then, to compute the discriminating power of an item, I used the following formula:

\[
DP = \frac{RU - RL}{\frac{1}{2}T}
\]

Where:

- \(DP\) = the discriminating power of an item;
- \(RU\) = the number of students in the upper group who answered the item correctly;
- \(RL\) = the number of students in lower group who answered the item correctly;
- \(\frac{1}{2}T\) = the number of students in one group.

The discriminating power of an item is reported as decimal fraction. The maximum positive discriminating power is indicated by an index of 1.00. This is obtained only when all students in the upper group answered correctly and no one in the lower group did. Zero discriminating power (0.00) is obtained when equal number of students in each group answered the item correctly. Negative discriminating power is obtained when more students in the lower group than in the upper group answered correctly. Both types of item should be removed and then discarded (Gronlund, 1982: 103). But from the students’ result of the test,
there was no item having both types of discriminating power. So there was no item, which should be discarded.

Arikunto (1993: 221) states that the judgment of discriminating power is as the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
DP & \leq 0.00 \quad = \text{very poor} \\
0.00 < DP & \leq 0.20 \quad = \text{poor} \\
0.20 & \leq DP \leq 0.40 \quad = \text{good} \\
0.40 & \leq DP \leq 1.00 \quad = \text{excellent}
\end{align*}
\]

3.4.4 Arrangement of the Actual Test

In accordance with the result of the try out analysis, the arrangement of the actual listening test items was held on 7th September, 2006, and consisted of 50 multiple choice items in 75 minutes.
CHAPTER IV
ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this chapter I analyzed the data obtained from the students: the test result. I gave the test on 7th September, 2006. It consisted of 50 multiple choice items. I composed the test items myself, under the consideration that the test items would be valid. After the data were collected, I organized, analyzed, and interpreted them. Here, I used statistical analysis and non statistical one.

4.1 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

To process the data, I used a simple computation with the following simple formula:

\[ X = \frac{\sum E}{\sum T} \times 100\% \]

Where:

\( X \) = the percentage of incorrect answer
\( \sum E \) = the total number of various kinds of incorrect answers, and
\( \sum T \) = the total number of test items.

Because the respondents of this study were 26 students, I had 26 percentages of error computations. I divided the errors into words errors, compound words errors, word phrase errors and sentence errors. The result of the data analysis can be seen in the following table:
Table 4.1: The percentage of errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>$\Sigma E$</th>
<th>$\Sigma T$</th>
<th>Percentage of Incorrect answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S-01</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-02</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-03</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-04</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-05</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-06</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-07</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-08</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-09</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-10</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-15</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-22</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-23</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-24</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-25</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-26</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first column contains the number of subjects, which are the total number of respondents who participated in the real test (26 Students).

The second column contains the total of various kinds of errors made by respondents out of 50 items.

The last one contains the percentage of the errors which results from the sum of various kinds of errors made by each respondent (E) divided by the total of the test items (T) times 100%.

The result of the study shows that the lowest percentages of errors made by students are 0% while the highest is 50%. The data are ranked in ascending order from the lowest to the highest as follows:

(1) There was 1 student that made 0% errors.
(2) There was 1 student that made 4% errors.
(3) There was 1 student that made 12% errors.
(4) There was 1 student that made 16% errors.
(5) There were 3 students that made 18% errors.
(6) There was 1 student that made 20% errors.
(7) There were 2 students that made 22% errors.
(8) There were 2 students that made 24% errors.
(9) There was 1 student that made 26% errors.
(10) There were 3 students that made 32% errors.
(11) There was 1 student that made 36% errors.
(12) There was 1 student that made 38% errors.
(13) There was 1 student that made 42% errors.
There was 1 student that made 46% errors.

There were 2 students that made 50% errors.

Related to items dictated, there were four categories, namely:

1. word
   a. noun
   b. verb
   c. adjective
   d. adverb

2. compound word
   a. compound noun
   b. compound verb

3. word phrase
   a. noun phrase
   b. verb phrase
   c. adjective phrase
   d. adverb phrase

4. sentence

After knowing the percentage of errors, I carried out an error analysis in order to find out the dominant errors. In this calculation, I used the selected category which is based on Gulo’s formula:

\[ pi = \frac{f_i}{n} \times 100\% \]
Where:

\[\pi_i = \text{the proportion of error occurrence frequency},\]
\[fi = \text{the absolute frequency of category error in a partial type, and}\]
\[n = \text{the total number of category possible errors.}\]

Then I computed the proportion of frequency of occurrence of errors as a whole by using the formula:

\[PI = \frac{FI}{N} \times 100\%\]

Where:

\[PI = \text{the proportion of frequency of occurrence of errors as a whole},\]
\[FI = \text{the absolute frequency of types of errors of all the categories},\]
\[N = \text{the total number of possible errors of all the categories}.\]

The PI was computed as follows:

\[PI = \frac{FI}{N} \times 100\%\]

\[= \frac{328}{1300} \times 100\%\]

\[= 25.2\%\]

The final step was to identify the degree of dominance of the particular error. Any error whose (\(\pi_i - PI\)) is plus (+) is considered to be dominant. On the contrary, if the (\(\pi_i - PI\)) is zero (0) or minus (-), it is said to be less dominant. After the calculation, in descending order, the most dominant error through the least dominant one can be seen in the table below:
Table 4.2: The Most Dominant Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of type</th>
<th>Σ Items</th>
<th>Σ n</th>
<th>fi</th>
<th>pi%</th>
<th>(pi-PI)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1c</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1d</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2a</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2b</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>-9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3a</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>-6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3b</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3c</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>-7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3d</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>-13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>-6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1300</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>262.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where:

(1) The first column contains the number of categories of errors.
(2) The second column contains the total of item for each predicted errors.
(3) The third column (Σ n) contains the total number of possible errors of the category and it is derived from the sum of the item for each category times the total number of students (26).
(4) The fourth column (fi) is the absolute frequency of a partial type of errors on the category.
(5) The fifth column contains (pi %) that derives from the absolute frequency of a partial type of errors of a category divided by the total number of possible errors of the category times 100%.
(6) The last one (pi-PI) where PI% which is derived from absolute frequency of type of errors of all levels divided by the total number of possible errors of the category times 100%.

That is the result of errors of dictation as a testing device of listening made by the fifth grade students of SDN 03 Slawikulon in the academic year 2006/2007 based on statistical analysis. Then I will discuss those errors based on non-statistical analysis.

4.2 NON STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Here, I will discuss the spelling errors made by students and the possible causes of those errors that were caused by interlingual and intralingual interference.

(1) Spelling Errors

Based on the result of the test given on 7th September, 2006 I could see that there were several spelling errors that were made by the fifth grade students of SDN Slawikulon 03 in the academic year 2006/2007. Most of them still had difficulty when they had to give the correct spelling for a word that consists of clusters, diphthong, errors in distinguishing long and short vowels and errors in recognizing words, phrases and sentences.

(a) Clusters

Cluster is a group of things close together, in this case consonants that are close together in one word.

For example test item number 18 empty.
Many students could not recognize the existence of the sounds /p/ in the word empty. Instead of choosing empty some of them even chose emty. Based on the fact, I drew a conclusion that the students could not distinguish sound /p/.

The total number of spelling errors caused by clusters is 32.

(b) Diphthong

Diphthong is a union of two vowels.

For example: test item number 10 prepare.

Many students could not recognize the existence of the sound /eatherine/ in the word prepare. Instead of choosing prepare some of them even chose prepeir. Based on the fact, I drew a conclusion that the students could not distinguish sound /eatherine/ from /ei/.

The total number of spelling errors caused by diphthong is 133 errors.

(c) Errors in distinguishing long and short vowels

Many students could not distinguish the long and short vowels.

For example test item number 27 classroom.

Instead of choosing classroom some of them even chose clasroom. Based on the fact, I drew a conclusion that the students could not distinguish long vowel /a:/. 

The total number of errors caused by this is 65 errors.
(d) Spelling errors in recognizing words, phrases and sentences

English spelling does not always give a clue to pronunciation unlike in Bahasa Indonesia. Because of that, most of Indonesian students get difficulty in writing English words.

For example test item number 35 one cat. Instead of choosing one cat some of them even chose wan cat. Based on the fact, I drew a conclusion that the students could not recognize the word one.

The total number of spelling errors caused by this is 80 errors.

To get a clear description of the spelling errors and determine the dominant causes of spelling errors in dictation as a testing device of listening by the fifth grade students of SDN Slawi Kulon 03 in the academic year 2006/2007, I will tabulate the number of causes of spelling errors as follows:

Table 4.3 the Total Number of Spelling Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Cause of Spelling Errors</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Clusters</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Diphthong</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>40.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Distinguishing long and short vowels</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Recognizing words, phrase and sentences</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>328</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) Interlingual and intralingual

Here, I will discuss the errors made by students caused by interlingual and intralingual interference.
(a) Interlingual interference

Interlingual interference errors are errors caused by students’ mother tongue interference. I found that there were 125 errors made by students because of it. The interference was caused by transfer.

Transfer is an error made by students because there is no contrast or difference between the two languages.

For example: question number 17 ‘clean’.

Instead of choosing *clean* some of them even *klin*. Based on the fact, I drew a conclusion that the students did not know the spelling of the word *clean*, they just chose the spelling they are hear.

The total number of errors caused by transfer was 214.

(b) Intralingual interference

Errors can be caused by intralingual influence. In this study I found intralingual interference because of ignorance of rule restrictions, the errors occur because of lack of knowledge of correct English sound pattern.

For example: question number 40 ‘too big’.

Instead of choosing *too big*, some of them chose *too beg*. They might think that the word *big* could be written like the word *beg*. The total number of errors caused by ignorance of rule restrictions was 114.

To get a clear description of the errors and determine the dominant causes of errors in dictation as a testing device of listening by the fifth grade students of
SDN 03 Slawi Kulon in the academic year 2006/2007, I will tabulate the number of causes of errors as follows:

Table 4.4 the Number of the Cause Errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Causes of errors</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Interlingual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Transfer</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>65.24 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Intralingual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Ignorance of rule restrictions</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>34.76 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is the data analysis that was made based on the test given on September 7th, 2006. In the next chapter, I will give conclusions and suggestions.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1 CONCLUSIONS

Based on the data in Chapter IV, I found 328 errors made by the students of the fifth grade students of SDN 03 Slawi Kulon in the academic year 2006/2007. The highest percentage of incorrect answers made by the students was 50% while the lowest one was 0%.

I also found that there were four of spelling errors. There were spelling errors caused by clusters, diphthong, distinguishing long and short vowels and recognizing words, phrases and sentences. The data can be described respectively as follows: 9.7% errors which were caused by clusters, 40.5% were caused by diphthong, 19.8% errors which were caused by distinguishing long and short vowels and 29.9% errors which were caused by error in recognizing words, phrases and sentences.

From the data, I also found that there were two possible causes of those errors; they are interlingual interference, that is transfer, and intralingual interference, that is ignorance of rule restrictions. The data can be described respectively as follows: 65.24% errors which were caused by transfer, 34.76% errors were caused by ignorance rule of restrictions.

From the data above, I found that the dominant errors were caused by diphthong; they are 19.8% or 133 errors.
After knowing the result, I conclude that the errors mostly happen because in *Bahasa Indonesia*, the pronunciation follows the spelling system, while in English it does not follow the spelling system.

5.2 SUGGESTIONS

Based on the result of the study, I will offer some suggestions, to be considered to minimize the students’ errors in dictation as a testing device of listening:

(1) The English teacher of SDN 03 Slawi Kulon should know the result of this research and take steps to anticipate the errors in the future.

(2) To minimize the students’ errors, the English teacher should take other methods in their ways of teaching.

(3) The students should be given more exercises of dictation.
REFERENCES


