**CHAPTER II**

**REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This Chapter is intended to presents: (1) Error analysis, (2) the use of preposition (*at, in, on*), (3) the teaching of preposition, and (4) common error in using prepositions.

1. **Error Analysis**

In learning the target language, a learner often finds some difficulties in his attempt to master the target language and they often makes some errors. Errors are a thing done wrongly. Errors are the flowed side of learning speech or writing. They are those parts of conservation or composition that deviation from some selected norm of nature language performance (Dulay: 1982: 138).

The learner’s error can be made by learner either spoken or written. Sometime errors are caused by such as fatigue an unintentional and error resulting from lack of knowledge rules of the language. In some of the second language literatures, performance error have been called mistake. The writer will distinguish between error caused by factor called “performance” factors, and in some of language literatures, performance errors have been called “mistake”. While the term an errors is reserved for the systematic deviation due the learners skill developing knowledge of the second language rule system (Dulay: 1982: 139). The distinction between performance and competence errors is extremely important but it is often difficult to determine the nature of deviation without careful analysis (Dulay: 1982: 139). In order to facilitate reference to deviation that have not yet been classified as performance or competence errors, the learners do not restrict the term “errors” to competence based deviation from selected norm of language performance, no matter what the characteristics of causes of the deviation might be.

Mistakes are due to memory lapses physical state such as tiredness, confusion in using structure, etc. Human learning is fundamentally a process that involves the making of mistakes (Douglas and Brown: 1987 :). So the learners can be mistake is impossible and as the teacher must study it. By providing data from which inferences about the nature of the language learning process and curriculum developing.

As mistake is unsystematic, or informed utterances such as slip of tongue or of the pen that result from fatigue. A mistake can be corrected by the learners can improve their weakness to obtain desired goals. Native speakers are normally capable of recognizing and correcting such mistake which are not result of deficiency in competence out the result of some short break down or imperfection in the process of producing speech. Actually between performance and competence errors are very important. Referring to explanation above the present problem the error refers to any deviation from the system by English rules. The learner often made error in the use of prepositions.

According to Richard (2001: 66), he is interested in errors whose, origin are found within the structure of English it self, or the way it is taught that is in non-contrastive causes. He calls non-contrastive error of the short intralingual, meaning coming from within the language it self, as opposed to interlingual meaning coming from differences between L1 and FL. Another term which Richards uses to describe some non-interlingual errors is developmental. Based on (Dulay et. al: 1982: 146) have reviewed the literature in order to present the most useful and commonly of errors. They are (1) linguistics category; (2) Surface Strategy; (3) Comparative analysis; and (4) Communicative effect. The definition and classification each of them as below:

1. **Error Type Based on Linguistic Category**

Many error taxonomies have been based on the linguistic item which is affected by an error. These linguistic category taxonomy classify error according to either or both the language component on the particular linguistic constituents the error effects.

Language component include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantic and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style). Constituents include the elements that comprise each language component. For example, within syntax one may ask whether the error is in the main of subordinate clause; and within a clause, which constituent is affected, e.g. the non phrase, the auxiliary, the verb phrase, the preposition, the adverb, the adjective, and so forth.

Many researchers use the linguistic category taxonomy as a reporting tool which organizes the errors they have collected. Although some use it as the only classification scheme offered, many use it to add to the description of errors provided by other taxonomies. For example: if researchers have classified their errors as interlingual and developmental, they often additionally report the linguistic categories into which these major error type fall, e.g. developmental errors in the auxiliary, in the noun phrase, in the complement system; interlingual errors in phonology, in word order, and in vocabulary.

1. **Surface Strategy Taxonomy**

A surface strategy taxonomy highlight, the ways surface structure are altered. Learners may omit necessary items or add unnecessary ones; they may misnform items or misorder them. Analyzing errors from a surface strategy perspective holds much promise for researchers concerned with identifying cognitive process that underlines the learner’s reconstruction of the new language. Error based on surface strategy taxonomy, include:

1. Omission Errors

Omission errors are characterized by the *absence of an item that must appear in a will-formed utterance*. Language learner often omits grammatical morphemes much more frequently than content word, but omission grammatical morphemes much more frequently than content word. Grammatical morphemes are the and of and content morphemes carry the bulk of the referential meaning of sentence, nouns, verb, adjective, adverbs. Fore example:

Don’t throw on my bag

(Don’t throw it on my bag)

In this sentence the learners miss the object it.

1. Addition Error

It is opposite omissions. They are characterized by the presence of an item, which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. Addition errors usually occur in the later stages of L2 acquisition, when the learner has already acquired some target language rules. In fact, addition errors result from the all-too-faithful use of certain rules. There are three types of addition errors:

1. Double Marking

Double marking is characterized by the presence of two items rather than one. According Dulay et al (1982: 156) this type of addition errors happen when two items rather than one are marked for the same feature.

For example:

The tiger doesn’t eats fruit

The tiger doesn’t eat fruit

In the sentence, the learner makes addition errors of suffix-s to the main verb because it is third person singular makers.

He don’t got no wings

In the sentence, negation is marked in the auxiliary and the quantifier.

1. 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 a marker.

For example:

1. Regular Past

I didn’t spilled

In this sentence the learner makes error because the verb is added the verb is added by-ed.

1. Irregular Past

Did I caught it

In the sentence, the learner makes error because the verb of the sentence must be verb I “catch”.

Whenever there are both regular and irregular forms and contractions in a language, learners apply the rules used to produce the regular ones to those that are irregular, resulting in errors of regularization.

1. Simple Addition

Simple addition errors are the “grab bag” subcategory of additions. If an addition error is neither a double marking nor regularization, it is called a simple addition (Dulay et, al: 1982: 158).

No particular features characterize simple additions other than those that characterize all addition errors the use of items which should not appear in a well-formed utterance.

For example:

They doesn’t bring my bag

In this sentence, the learner makes error in addition of third person singular marker’s.

1. Misformation Errors

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the wrong from 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

In this sentence, a past tense marker is supplied by the learner; it is just not the right one.

As in the case of additions, misformation are usually not random. There are three types of misformation:

1. Regularization Errors

Regularization errors that fall under the misformation category are those in which a regular marker is used in place of an irregular one (Dulay et al: 1982: 158).

For example:

I falled

In this sentence, the learner makes error because it is wrong form. In the sentence, the verb is irregular marker and is not regular marker.

1. Archi-forms

The selection of one member of class is a common characteristics all of stages of second languages acquisition. It is called the form selected by the learner an *archi-form*. For example, a learner may temporarily select just one of the English demonstrative adjectives *this, that, these, and those,* to do the work for several of them:

1. That dog
2. That dogs

For this learner, *that* is the archi-demonstrative adjective representing the entire class of demonstrative adjectives.

Learner may also select one member of the class of personal pronouns of function for several in the class.

For example:

1. Give me that
2. Me hungry

In the production of certain complex sentences, the use of the infinitive as an archi-form for the other complement types (e.g. gerunds and *that*-causes)

In the second sentence, the learner makes error because it is ungrammatical.

1. Alternating Forms

As the learner’s vocabulary and grammar grow, the use of archi-forms often gives way the apparently fairly free alternation of various members of a class each other.

For example:

That dog

This cats

1. Misordering Errors

Misordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morpheme in an utterance.

For example:

The cats are very be afraid of mouse

The cats are afraid of mouse very much

In that sentence is ungrammatical because it has a misordering error in the adverb.

1. **Error Type Based on Comparative Taxonomy**

The classification of errors in a comparative taxonomy is based on comparison between the structure of Second Language (L2) errors and certain other types of constructions (Dulay: 1982: 163). For example : if one is used a comparative taxonomy to classify the error of a Korean student learning English, one might compare the structure of the student’s error to that of errors reported for children acquiring English as a first language.

In the research literature, L2 errors have most frequently been compared to errors made by children learning the language as their first language and to equivalent phrases or sentences in the learner’s mother tongue. There are two major error categories in this taxonomy:

1. Developmental Error

Developmental errors are errors similar to those made by children learning the target language as their first language (Dulay: 1982: 165).

For example, the following utterance made by Spanish child learning English:

Dog eat it

The omission of the article and the past tense marker may be classified as developmental because these are also found in the speech of children learning English as their first language.

Two considerations underlie the interest in comparing L2 and L1 acquisition errors. The first has to do with facilitating L2 theoretical development. The second consideration has to do with the role of the first language when learning a second.

1. Interlingual Errors

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

* 1. An Indonesian learner may produce “a book red” instead “a red book” due to the effect of Bahasa Indonesia structure.
  2. The man skinny

The learner makes errors in word order of adjective phrases.

To identify Interlingual errors, researcher usually translates the grammatical form of the learner’s phrase or sentence into the learner’s first language to see if similarities exist. For example, if the learner produces

Dog eat it

The researcher will translate the grammatical form

The dog ate it

Then compare both sentences to see if the learner’s L1 structure is discernible in the L2 sentence. The term “interlingual” is choosen instead of the equally common labels “interference” or “transfer” because “interlingual” seemed to be the least explanatory in connotation.

**4. Error Type Based on Communicative Effect Taxonomy**

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

Burt and Keparsky (in Dulay, 1982: 150) discovere that errors which significantly hinder communication (in the sense that they cause the listener or reader to misunderstand the message or to consider the sentence incomprehensible) are of a certain type, while those that do not hinder communication are of another type. Based on this taxonomy, errors are classified into two types:

1. Global Error

Global Errors effect overall sentence organization which significantly hinders communication. The most systematic global errors include:

1. Wrong order of major constituents

For example: *English language uses many people*

1. Missing, wrong, an misplaced sentence connectors

For example: *(if) not take this bus, we late for school*

1. Missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rule

For example: *The student’s proposal (was) locked into (by) the principle*.

1. Regulation of pervasive syntactic rules to exceptions. (in transformational term does not observe selectional restrictions or certain lexical items)

For example: *We amused that movie very much*

(That movie amused us very much)

1. Local Error

Local errors are errors that effect single elements (constituents) in a sentence don’t usually hinder communication significantly. These include errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries, and the formation of quantifiers. The global/local distinction can be extended to the classification of errors in term of those that sound more “un-English” to a listener or reader than others. For example, compare:

Why like we each other?

And

Why we like each other?

Both of these sentences can be understood without too much trouble, but the first more “un-English” than the second. The most compelling explanation for this difference seems to be that the first sentence violates the typical Subject-Verb-Object order in English, while the second does not.

Based on this kind of analysis, Burt and Kiparsky in Dulay (1982: 192) are led to suggest that the global/local distinction seems to be a most pervasive criterion for determining the communicative importance of errors. In other words, students must control global grammar in order to be easily understood while it is possible to communicate successfully without controlling local grammar. Local grammar, of course, must be learned if the speaker is to approximate native fluency, but to get successful communication means the learner’s primary purpose, global grammar must receive top priority.

This study uses the classification of errors types based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy are altered in specific and intended as and aid to present the data rather than to create a basis for extensive speculation concerning the source of errors.

1. **The Use of Preposition**

Normally the position of preposition is before the object. It is also reflected by the word position which is defined from Latin words *prae* which mean before and *positus* which mean position (House and Emolyn: 1950: 181). Since its function is to show relation between two grammatical units, it now really follows of these units and precedes the other. As stated by Thomson and Martinet (1995: 91) that prepositions are words normally placed before noun or pronoun? Preposition can also be followed by verbs but, the verb must be in the gerund, for example:

*He is talking of emigrating*

*They succeeded in escaping*

Beside, Cyssco (2003: 167) also states that “*kata depan (preposition) adalah kata yang menunjukkan hubungan antara kata benda (noun) atau ganti (pronoun) dengan kata lainnya dalam suatu kalimat* “. It means that preposition is a word which shows relation between noun or pronoun with another word in a sentence.

Preposition is important to make up a sentence. In the most general terms, a preposition expresses a relation between two entities; one is represented by the prepositional complement. In expressing idea-either written or spoken a person certainly deals with the kind of preposition. According to Franck (1972: 163) that “Preposition range in meaning from such definite semantic nation as time, place, etc to such purely structural meaning as those shaped by the Subject-Verb-Complement relationship (The murder of all the prisoners by their captors)”.

Preposition is a word or group of words (e.g. in, from, to, out of, a behalf of), often placed before a noun or pronoun to indicate place, direction, source, method, etc. Martin Parrot (2000: 85) states that some prepositions have concrete meaning that it can be shown or demonstrate. These often define place, position or movement e.g between the columns, towards the door.

Many of these prepositions can also refer to time.

Place : at the bus, in the room

Time : at 09.00, In March

Preposition which can refer to both place and time generally have a similar meaning in both cases. (Martin and Parrot: 2000: 85).

Besides, preposition *“in”, “on”, and “it”* which are discussed in this study can be used to show or demonstrate place of noun or pronoun and time of event as stated by Hero, Puja and Anita (2002 : 12) that *“di dalam tata Bahasa Inggris untuk menunjukkan waktu terjadi suatu peristiwa dan untuk mengungkapkan terjadinya suatu peristiwa atau letak dari suatu benda digunakan kata depan at, in, and on*”. It means that in English language grammar, the preposition at, in, and on are used to show the indication of time of event and place of noun or pronoun. The discussion of the use of preposition of *at, in, and on* is as bellows:

1. The preposition *at, in, and on* are used to show the “**indication of time of event**”.

Preposition in Focus

1. **In**
2. Expressing Century

It means that the position *in* is used to show century

1. In the first century / in the 21st century
2. For example: Columbus discovered American in the 15th century.
3. Expressing year

It means that the preposition *in* is used to show year

1. In 2000/ in the year 2011/ in1999
2. For example: The house was built in 1999.
3. Expressing seasion

It means that the preposition *in* is used to show seasion

1. In spring /in Autumn/ in summer/ in winter
2. For example : A lot of people go to the beach in summer
3. Expressing month

It means that the preposition *in* is used to show month

1. In Desember/ in February/ in September
2. For example : We make attractive competition in August
3. Expressing time in a day

It means that the preposition *in* is used to show time in a day

1. In the morning /in the afternoon/ in the evening
2. Foe example : We usually have tea in the afternoon

Based on the explanation above, preposition has several functions in sentences.

1. **On**
2. “Expressing date “

It means that the preposition *on* is used to show date

1. On 17 August /on 25th May /on the first of July
2. For example : We celebrate the Independent Day on 17th August
3. “Expressing special event /day”

It means that the preposition *on* is used to show special event /day

1. On Christmas day /on New Year /on your birthday
2. For example : We forgive each other on Lebaran’s Day
3. “Expressing day”

It means that the preposition *on* is used to show day

1. On Tuesday /on Monday /on Saturday
2. For example :We’ll be very busy on Monday
3. “Expressing time “

It means that the proposition *on* is used to show time

1. On Saturday morning /on Friday night /on Tuesday evening
2. For example : There was a train accident on Friday night
3. **At**
4. “Expressing hour”

It means that the preposition *at* is used to show hour

1. At 10 o’clock /at 09.00 o’clock /at seven o’clock
2. For example : I usually go to bed at ten o’clock
3. “Expressing a certain time”

It means that the preposition *on* is used to show a certain time

1. At sunset / at dawn /at midnight
2. For example : The farmers go to the farm at dawn
3. “Expressing festival days

It means that the preposition *on* is used to show festival day

1. At New Year /at Christmas /at Lebaran day
2. For example: If you want to see snow at Christmas, you can fly to Canada on vocation.

Based on the explanation above, It must be noted that if there are the words such as this year, next month, last week, everyday, the next Sunday, yesterday evening, the day before, the whole evening, the preposition of *at, in, and on* are not added.

1. The preposition *at, in, and on* are used to show the “**indication of place of noun or pronoun**”.

Preposition in Focus:

1. **On**
2. The preposition *on* is used to show “**horizontal surface of place**”
3. On the table /on the floor /on the self
4. For example : I put the carpet on the floor
5. The preposition *on* is used to show “**vertical place**”
6. On the wall /on the face
7. For example : There is a beautiful picture on the wall
8. The preposition *on* is used to show “**place**”
9. On the beach /on the Sumatra Island /on the River Thames
10. For example: The restaurant on the Sumatra island is very popular because customer can enjoy beautiful views there.
11. The preposition *on* is used to show “**around a place**”
12. On state /on the farm /on Campus
13. For example : Jack likes to work on the farm
14. The preposition *on* is used to show “**on the transportation**”
15. On a plane /on a bus /on a train
16. For example: The air hostesses on a plane try their best to make passenger feed comfortable.

**2. In**

1. The preposition *in* is used to show “**in a country**”
2. In Indonesian /in London /in China
3. For example : You can see the Great Wall in China
4. The preposition *in* is used to show “**in a city**”
5. In Jakarta /in California /in Ireland
6. For example : There are many large-scale fruit farms in Jakarta
7. The preposition *in* is used to show “**in a certain ocean**”
8. In North pole /in Asia /in Europe
9. For example: Many chapels in Europe have existed for many centuries.
10. **At**
11. The preposition *at* is used to show “**a certain building**”
12. At school /at restaurant /at the station
13. For example : I’m going to meet Helen at the station
14. The preposition *at* is used to show “**a certain location**”
15. At the corner /at the entrance /at the centre
16. For example : There is a telephone box at the corner of the street
17. The preposition *at* is used to show “**beside a noun**”
18. At the door /at the window /at the desk
19. For example : Putting some potted plants at the door can give visitors a good impression

Based on the explanation above, In a certain situation preposition *in*, and *at* have the same meaning and using (For example: in the office = at the office, in the restaurant = at the restaurant). But, in another situation, in indicates “*inside a place*”, and at shows “*beside a noun*”.

1. **Teaching Preposition**

The methods of teaching prepositions as a part of grammar are direct and indirect methods. According to Thomburry (2000: 29) that a deductive approach starts with the presentation of rule an is followed and by examples in which the rule is applied. While an inductive approach starts with some examples from which a rule is inferred.

The deductive (rule-driven) part and the inductive (rule-discovery) part are basically two ways in which a learner can achieve understanding of a rule. In the former, the grammar rule is presented and the learner engaged with it through the study and manipulation of examples. In an inductive approach, on the other hand, without having met the rule, the learner studies examples and from these examples derives an understanding of the rule. Both approaches, can of course, lead on the further practice of the rule until applying it becomes automatic.

The inductive route would seem on the fact of it, to be the way one’s first language is acquired; simply through exposure to a massive amount of input the regularities and patterns of the language become evident, independent of cancerous study and explicit rule information. Induction or learning through experience, is seen as the “natural” route to learning, and is strongly identified with methods of second language instructions that model themselves on first language acquisition, such as the direct method and natural approach. These experiment methods of instruction share a basic assumption that language data (or input) is best prossed inductively and without resource to translation. They differ, home far, in the position they take different positions with regard to how and how often the teacher should inferences.

Thomburry (2000: 50) explains that a much early attempts to simulate the way children acquire their first language is the direct method. Designed to challenge the decidedly unnatural and highly intellectual procedures of Grammar Translation, the fundamental belief behind the Direct Method is that our first language is acquired through the process of forming associations between language and real world. In direct method classes, therefore, the rules of the language are supposedly acquired out of the experienced of understanding and repeating examples which have been systematically graded for difficulty and put into a clear contexts. Here is an example of a teacher’s note far a beginner’s class teaching the present continuous:

1. Walk from one side of the classroom to the other, and while you are walking, say two or three times to the class.

*I am walking, I am walking, I am walking.*

1. Select a student. Tell him to walk across the room

Indicate that he must say the sentences as you did:

*I am walking, I am walking, I am walking*

1. Tell him to walk across the room again. Indicate that he must be silent and you say to the class:

*He is walking* (three times)

1. The class can next say it in chorus

Notice that in this approach to grammar theory it is not through necessary to draw the learner’s attention to an explicit statement of the grammar rule. It was considered sufficient to rely on the learner’s unconscious to do the job.

Then Freeman (1986: 24) states that:

Teachers who use the Direct Method believe students need to associate meaning and the target language directly. In order to this, when the teacher introduces a new target language word or phrase, he demonstrate its meaning through the use of realia, pictures, or pantomime : he never translates it into the students native language. Students speak in the target language a great deal and communicate as if they were in real situations.

(For examples, one unit would consists of language that people would use at the bank, another of the language that they use when going shopping) or topics (such as geography, money, or the weather). Grammar is taught inductively; that is the students are presented with examples. An explicit grammar rule may never be given. Students practice vocabulary by using new words in complete sentence.

In other word, the teacher will use of realia, pictures, or pantomime etc to demonstrate its meaning to the student and never translate it into the student native language so, it will make the students easier to understanding a new target language word or phrase.

1. **Common Errors in Using Preposition**

Common error in using preposition below is available on Dulay et. al:

1. Common error in using preposition based on linguistic category and surface strategy taxonomy (Dulay :1982 :148) :
2. Error type analysis in using preposition based on linguistic category as below :
3. Omission of preposition

For example: He came (to) the water

In this sentence the learner omits preposition “*to*”

1. Misuse of Preposition

For example: He fell down from (for on, into) the water

In this sentence the learner misuse preposition “*from*”

1. Common error based on surface strategy taxonomy
2. Omission

For example: Don’t throw on my bag

In the sentence the learner miss the object it

1. Addition

For example: The tiger doesn’t eat fruit

In the sentence the learner makes addition error of suffix-s to the main verb

1. Misinformation

For example: Give me that

In the sentence, the learner makes error because it is ungrammatical.

1. Misordering

For example: The cats are very being afraid of mouse

In the sentence is ungrammatical because it has a misordering in the adverb

2. Errors in the use of preposition based on typical English Intralingual Error in the use of preposition and Articles (from Richards 1971):

1. *With* Instead of *Ө*  met with her, married with her

*From* suffering with a cold

*Against*  fight with tyranny

*Of* consist with

*At* laughed with my words

2. *in* instead of *Ө* entered in the room, in the next day

*On* in TV

*With* fallen in love in Ophelia

*For* in this purpose

*At*  in this time

*To* go in Poland

*By* the time in your watch

3. *at* instead of *Ө* reached at a place, at last year

*By* held him at the left arm

*In* at the evening, interested at it

*To* went at Startford

*For* at the first time

4. *for* instead of *Ө* serve for God

*In* one bath for seven days

*Of* suspected for, the position for Chinese coolies

*From* a distance for one country to another

*Since* been here for the 6th of June

5. *on* instead of *Ө* played on the piano for an hour

*In* on many ways, on the place, going on cars

*At* on the end

*With* angry on him

*Of* countries on the world

*To* pays attention on it

6. *of* instead of *Ө* aged of 44, drink less of wine

*In* rich of vitamins

*By* book of Hardy

*On* depends of civilization

*For* a reason of it

7. *to* instead of  *Ө* join to them, went to home, reach to the place

*For* an occupation to them

*Of* his love to her

3. Some Common Errors according to Parrott (2000: 89):

1. Learner may miss out a preposition

1. I like listening music

2. Can I look your photographs?

1. They may use the wrong preposition
2. I have a lot of problems about my English
3. They have lived there since 16 years
4. She left it into the room
5. I’ll tell him. I’m going there after 5 minutes
6. She got married with a much younger man
7. They may use a preposition where one isn’t needed
8. They discussed about the news
9. I was tired in last night
10. They may use a preposition to express purpose. Many learners systematically use for + bare or of full infinitive
11. In my country we use two shorts stuck for eat
12. I came to Sydney for to study English
13. They may use an infinitive instead of to + *-ing*
    1. I look forward to hear from you soon
    2. She objected to work in those conditions

Based on the explanation above, there are some common error that do the learners in using preposition. They are: Learner may miss out a preposition, they may use a preposition where one isn’t needed, they may use a preposition to express purpose. Many learners systematically use for + bare or of full infinitive, they may use an infinitive instead of to + *-ing*

****

1. 1