

## **II. FRAME OF THEORIES**

This chapter discusses some important concepts related to frame of theories. The main points discussed here covers: concept of writing, concept of error, types of error, concept of English preposition, importance of preposition in writing, concept of error analysis and step or process in error analysis.

### **2.1 Concept of Writing**

Raimes (1983: 76) states that writing is a skill, in which we express ideas, feeling and thought, which are arranged in words, sentences and paragraph using eyes, brain and hand. Writing also reinforces the use of structure, idiom and vocabulary that the students have studied in the previous lesson. It means that writing is the process to combine the writer's ideas and thought using knowledge and vocabulary.

Writing contains of message that want to be delivered to the reader. Lindeman (1983:11) asserts that writing is a process sending message from the writer to the reader by the use of conventional graphic system. It means that writing is a communication process which uses conventional graphic system to carry the

writer's message or the writer's ideas on paper. By delivering the message means that writing has communicative purpose.

Writing is the hardest part of the four language skills - listening, speaking, reading, and writing; to make us able to speak, we have to listen: and the same thing in writing: to make us able to write, we have to be able to read. Writing in any form is always common in nature. It involves what to write (substance or subject), why to write (audience), why to write (reason), when to write (emotion), and how to write (instrument). This will finally determine the language used (style) and setting to be fitted (forms) (Setiawan, 2002).

There are several ways of organizing sentences, which can be applied in writing activity. According to Kytle (1974:27), there are four types of writing as follows:

1. Descriptive writing, which is used to describe a verbal picture to make the readers see what the researcher is talking about.
2. Narrative writing, which is used to relate sequential events and person frequently, is involved in the events.
3. Explanatory writing, which is used to explain something to the readers.
4. Argumentative writing which is used to convince the readers, the writer attempts to persuade them as he describes, narrates, or explains appropriate details to the readers.

The researcher used descriptive writing to collect the data. Descriptive writing is drawing important part of thing in writing subject very clearly and details. It means that in descriptive writing the writer should be able to make the reader understand the subject in his mind as clear as the writer sees it.

Descriptive paragraph paints a word picture that appeals to a reader's senses. The clarity of word picture depends on carefully selected words and precise details (Joy, 1985: 163). According to Crimmon (1984:163), descriptive is a strategy for presenting a verbal portrait of a person, place, or thing. It can be used as a technique to enrich other form of writing or as a dominant strategy for developing a picture "how and what it looks like". Descriptive paragraph characterized by the use of adjective and simple present tense. Descriptive paragraph has its own structure of the text, they are:

1. Identification

This part identifies the phenomenon to be described in general.

2. Description

This part describes the phenomenon in parts, qualities or characteristics.

## **2.2 Concept of Error**

According to Brown (1980:142) error is noticeable deviation from the adult grammar or a native speaker reflecting the inter language competence of the learner. He also identifies that error is a result from lack of knowledge of the rules of the language. In some of the second language literatures performance error is called mistaken, when the term error was reserved for the systematic deviation due to the learner is still developing of the second language system (Corder, 1987:358).

Literally, error means something done wrong or mistakes. Errors are the flawed side of learner speech and writing. They are those parts of conversation or

composition that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance. Teachers and mothers who have waged long and patient battles against their students or language errors have come to realize that making error is an inevitable part of learning. People cannot learn language without first systematically committing errors (Dulay, et al, 1982:138).

Dulay in Brown (1987: 170) uses the term “errors” to refer to any deviations from a selected norm of language performance, and matter what the characteristics or causes of the definitions might be. They also explain that the norm used to identify the errors may be anyone of the dialect of other varieties of language the native speaker uses.

In this research, the researcher hold on the idea proposed by Dulay et al, as the basis of determining the deviations produced by the subjects. Thus, any deviation of preposition appearing in students ‘writing considered as an error.

### **2.3 Classification of Errors**

Dulay (1982: 146) classifies errors into four categories based on the descriptive classification of errors, as described below:

1. Linguistic category

This category deals with errors based on the language components, such as phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), discourse (style), and the particular linguistic constituents of each language component that the errors affect.

## 2. Surface strategy

This category highlights the ways surface structures are altered in systematic and specific ways. Learner's errors in this type are based on some logic as the result of their use of interim principles to produce a new language. This category includes some types of errors, such as omission, addition, misformation and misordering.

## 3. Comparative taxonomy

The classification of errors in comparative taxonomy is based on comparison between the structure of L2 errors and certain other types of constructions. This is used as a major predictor of learner's errors and of the knowledge of developmental processes in L2 acquisition. Three major categories in comparative analysis taxonomy include 1) *developmental errors* or errors similar to those made by children learning the target language as their first language, 2) *interlingual errors* or errors similar in structure to a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner's native language, and 3) *ambiguous errors* or errors that could be classified equally as developmental or interlingual.

## 4. Communicative effect

This category considers errors from the perspective of their effect on the listener or reader. It focuses on distinguishing between errors that seem to cause miscommunication and those that don't. Such errors are categorized into two domains: *local* and *global errors*. Local errors are those that slightly

hinder the communication, while global errors are those that may cause a total communication breakdown.

This research analyzed students' errors on the basis of *surface strategy taxonomy*.

Therefore, these taxonomies are described further below.

### **2.3.1 Surface Strategy Taxonomy**

Surface strategy taxonomy highlights the way surface structure are altered: students may *omit* necessary items or *add* unnecessary ones: they may *misform* items or *misorder* items. Analyzing errors from surface strategy perspective holds much promise for researcher concerns with identifying cognitive processes that underlie the student's reconstruction of the new language. It also makes us aware that the student's errors are based on some logic. They are not the result of laziness or sloppy thinking, but of the student's use of interim principle to produce a new language (Dullay, 1982: 150).

There are four types of errors based on the surface taxonomy (Dullay et al, 1982):

#### **1. Omission**

Omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in well-formed utterances. For example: *I want to go Japan*. In the sentence, there is an omission of preposition 'to'. Therefore, the correct sentence should be *I want to go to Japan*.

#### **2. Addition**

Addition errors are the opposite of omission. They are characterized by the presence of an item, which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. For example: *My mother shop in over there (Incorrect)*. Unnecessary preposition happens in this sentence. Preposition *in* should be omitted). The sentence should be *my mother shop over there*.

### **3. Misformation**

Misformation errors are characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme of the structure. For example: *The pen is above the table*. In the sample, the use of preposition *above* is in appropriate. The preposition *above* should be change by preposition *on*. The preposition *on* is used to indicate the surface of something. While *above* is used when something is felt to be directly higher than a point. The correct sentence should be: *The pen is on the table*.

### **4. Misordering**

It is the incorrect placement of morpheme or group of morphemes. An example taken from Handayani's finding in her research (2000): *My friend my beside is kind*. Misordering of preposition *beside* occurs in this sentence. The correct sentence should be: *My friend beside me is kind*.

## **2.4 Concept of Preposition**

Preposition is a part of grammar, meaning that learning grammar also learn preposition. Literally, preposition is a word or a group of words often placed before noun or pronoun to indicate place, direction, time, manner, etc. In relation to structure, preposition is one part of speech, while part of speech is one of the structure elements. In this case, the function of structure is to make the sentence correct.

Prepositions as we have learned in our earlier English studies are very important to the writing and to the speaking of good English. The preposition is the link that connects the words and phrases of a sentence in various special relationships (Wishon and Burks, 1980: A-12). The preposition has the function of connecting a noun or a pronoun to another word, usually a noun, verb or adjective (Frank, 1972: 171).

According to Wishon and Burks (1980), prepositions are always followed by nouns (or pronouns). They are connective words that show the relationship between the nouns following them and one of the basic sentence elements: subject, verb, object, or complement. They usually indicate relationship, such as position, place, direction, time, manner, possession, and condition, between their objects and other parts of the sentence.

Henry (1986:305) says that a preposition is a word that shows the relation of the noun or pronoun following it to some other words in the sentence. Furthermore, Treanor (1967:284) defines that a preposition is word that shows the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other word in the sentence expression.



Frank (1972:164) indicates that modern linguists prefer to classify prepositions as structure of function words in contrast to content words like nouns or verb. They have little or no intrinsic meaning, as one will discover when he tries to define them outside of the contexts.

According to Warriner and Whitten (1968:25) preposition is a word that shows the relationship of a noun or a pronoun to some other words in the sentence. For example: “*My mother is in the kitchen*”. In this sentence the preposition *in* is used to relate the pronoun *my mother* and the word *the kitchen*. If we omit this preposition, the meaning of this sentence will be ungrammatical.

It is clear that the function of preposition is very important, but some students do not pay attention very much to the importance of preposition. Actually, preposition is very important in a sentence. By omitting a preposition in certain sentence, it can break the meaning of the sentence and the sentence will be ungrammatical.

Hayden (1956:171-175), mentions that there are some types of prepositions, they are:

a. Preposition of place or position

It is the kind of preposition, which is used to indicate the relationships of place or position. For example :

- The clock is *on* the wall.
- They are *in* the classroom.
- He sat *beside* his wife during the party.

b. Preposition of direction

It is the kind of preposition, which is used to show the relationship of direction. For example : - The bird flew *through* the open window.

- They went *into* the office.
- He always walks *to* school *from* his home.

c. Preposition of time

It is a kind of preposition which is used to indicate the relationship of the time.

For example : - You can call me *at* ten o'clock.

- I like to drink coffee *in* the morning.
- I can see you *during* the week.

d. Preposition of manner

It is the kind of preposition, which is used to indicate the relationship of manner.

For example : - She goes *to* school by bus.

- He writes *with* a pen.

While according to Frank (1972: 164-166), there are some types of preposition, they are:

1) Preposition of time

Preposition of time is divided into three types, they are: one point of time, extended time and sequence of time.

a. One point of time

*On*: - I saw him *on* Saturday. (*on* used with a day of the week)

- I saw him *on* september 16. ( *On* used with a day of the month )

*At:* - I saw him *at* noon (or night, midnight). (*At* used with a part of the day considered as a point)

- I saw him *at* five o'clock. (*At* used with an hour of the day)

Occasionally, in informal usage, *at* may be omitted (I saw him five o'clock).

*In:* - I saw him *in* september. (*In* used with a month)

- I saw him *in* 1968. (*In* used with a year).

- I saw him *in* the morning (or afternoon, evening). (*In* used with a part of the day)

- I saw him *in* the spring (or summer, autumn, winter). (*In* used with a season)

#### b. Extended Time

Starting at one point and ending at another (duration)

*Since:* - I have not seen him *since* Monday. (*Since* gives the beginning point if it is used with the present perfect tense, the end point is now)

*By:* - I can see you *by* Monday. (*By* implies no later than, at any time up to this point.)

*From – to*

- I can see you *from* ten o'clock *to* two o'clock. ( A beginning point with *from* generally requires and point with *to*)

*For:* - I can see you *for* one hour. (*For* gives a quantity of time). It is usually accompanied by a number (I waited *for* two hours ) or by an adjective of indefinite quantity ( I haven't seen him *for* some time ; he has been working very hard *for* many weeks ). In informal use, *for* may be omitted before a number (I waited two hours).

*During:*

- I can see you *during* the week. (*During* give a block of time, usually thought of as undivided)

c. Sequence of time (Events that follow one another)

*Before:*

- I will see you *before* Wednesday. (The event precedes the time given in the before phrase.)

*After:*

- I will see you *after* Wednesday. (The event follows the time given in the after phrase)

2. Preposition of Place (position and direction)

a. Position

(a) The point it self

*In or inside:*

- Hang your coat *in* the closet. (*In* gives the area of something enclosed – a container, a drawer, a room, a building, the world)
- There was no one *inside* the house. (*Inside* emphasizes the containment)

*On:* - Put the dishes *on* the table. (*On* indicates the surface of something – a floor, a wall, a ceiling, a desk).

*At:* - He's *at* school (*at* church, *at* the store). (*At* refers to general vicinity. Mere presence at a place is indicated)

*At* is also used for addresses with street numbers, for example:

- He lives *at* 200 Park Avenue.

(b) Higher or lower than a point

- Higher than a point

*Over:*

- The plane flew *over* the mountains. (*Over* is felt to be generally higher than a point)

*Above:*

- He lives on the floor *above* us (*above* is felt to be generally higher than a point)

This distinction between *over* and *above* is not always carefully observed.

- Lower than a point

*Under:*

- A subway runs under this street. (*Under* is felt to be generally lower than a point)

*Underneath:*

- He swept the dirt *under* (*neath*) the rug. (*Underneath* expresses the idea of close under, especially so as to be hidden.)

*Beneath:*

- *Beneath* a tree lay a dog fast asleep. (*Beneath* expresses the idea of directly under, with some space between )

*Below:*

- He lives on the floor *below* us. (*Below* is felt to directly lower than a point )

The distinction *between* under and below is not always carefully maintained.

(c) Neighboring the point

*Near:*

- He lives *near* the university. (*Near* has the most general meaning of neighboring a point.)

*Next to:*

- The theater is right *next to* the post office. ( with nothing else between them )

*Alongside:*

- The tug pulled up *alongside* the tanker. (Adjoining persons or things considered as lined up, or side by side )

*Beside:*

- He sat *beside* his wife during the party. (on one side of person or thing that has two sides )

*Between:*

- He sat *between* his two sons. (On each side of a person or thing that has two sides) if more than two persons or things are positioned around a point, among is used, for example: he sat *among* all his grandchildren.

*Opposite:*

- The museum is just *opposite* the post office. (Directly facing someone or something else)

b. Direction (Movement in regard to a point)

*To – from:*

- He always walks *to* school *from* his home.

*Toward:*

- The pilgrims headed *toward* Mecca.

*Away from:*

- They moved *away from* their old neighborhood.

*In (to) – out of:*

- He ran *into* the house quickly. After a few minutes he ran *out of* the house with an umbrella under his arm.

*Up – down:*

- He climbed *up (or down)* the stairs.

*Around:*

- The ship sailed *around* the island.

*Through:*

- You can drive *through* that town in an hour.

Based on the description of prepositions above, it can be said that there are various types of prepositions in English. This research focused on investigating all of preposition errors produced by the students in their writing.

## **2.5 Importance of Preposition in Writing**

The preposition is the link which connects the words and phrases of a sentence in various special relationships (Wishon and Burks, 1980: A-12). Prepositions are very important to the writing and to the speaking of good English.

Writing will be bad without using preposition appropriately. For example: *I sit between all of the students.* The usage of preposition "*between*" is inappropriate. In this sentence, preposition "*between*" is used for two things or persons. The

appropriate preposition is "*among*" since among is used for more than two things or persons. So, the correct sentence should be: *I sit among the students.*

Prepositions are always followed by nouns (or pronoun). They are connective words that show relationship between the nouns following them and one of the basic sentence elements: subject, verb, object, or complement. They usually indicate relationships, such as place, direction, time, manner, agent, possession, and condition, between their object and other parts of the sentence (Wishon and Burks, 1980:288).

Logically, preposition has very important function in writing of a good paragraph because the inappropriate usage of preposition will destroy the relationship among the sentence element.

## **2.6 Concept of Error Analysis**

According to Dulay (1982: 132), error analysis is a process or steps in the analysis of the flawed side of learner writing that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance. Brown (1980:66) states that the fact that learners make errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to surge of study of learner's errors, called "error analysis".

Error analysis serves two functions: *theoretical* and *practical*. In theoretical function, error analysis is to describe the learner's knowledge of the target language at any particular moment in his learning career in order to relate this



knowledge to the teaching to which he has been exposed. The theoretical aspect of error analysis is part of methodology of investigating the language learning process (Corder, 1981:45). On the other hand, in its practical function, error analysis is highly valuable for guiding the remedial action that must be taken to fix unsatisfactory state of affairs for both learners and teacher (Corder, 1981:45).

Description above reveals the close, mutual interrelationship between theoretical and practical functions of error analysis, in which investigation will ideally lead to actual follow-up steps. In terms of classroom setting, error analysis can obviously be used as guidance for the teacher to do remedial actions, as it will shed light on which materials have been already mastered by the students and which ones make them frustrated.

## **2.7 Steps in Error Analysis**

According to Abbot (1981:218), “the process of error analysis is divided into 5 stages: (1) recognition, (2) interpretation, (3) reconstruction, (4) classification, (5) explanation”.

### **(1) Recognition**

In many cases what is regarded as an error depends on what standard of performance is considered to be acceptable. This will obviously vary according to circumstances, and will take into account factors such as the standard being aimed at; the stage in the course; the age, ability, motivation, etc. of the students ; the amount of time available; and a realistic assessment of the possibilities of improving performance in that time.

(2) **Interpretation**

Interpretation is central to the whole process, because our interpretation of what we think the student meant may determine whether we recognize an error at all, and will certainly determine our reconstructing.

(3) **Reconstruction**

(1) It is sometimes necessary to differentiate between (a) what a native speaker would have produced in the same context and (b) what the learner was trying to produce, i.e. the English forms he was aiming at what but getting wrong. (2) The most obvious reconstruction to the teacher, especially the native-English-speaker, is not necessarily the version at which the students were aiming.

(4) **Classification**

There are great many ways in which errors can be assigned to classes and one should use whatever system or combination of system is the most useful and enlightening according to the purposes of the analysis.

(5) **Explanation**

Explanation of the causes of errors has not been included in the section on the process of analysis. This is because it is not strictly speaking part of the analysis at all.

