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**Investigating the Use of Spatial and Temporal Prepositions (in, on
and at) among Learners of English as a Foreign Language**

An Error Analysis Approach

***The Case of First Year LMD Students at the Department of Letters and
English Language - Kasdi Merbah University- Ouargla***

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Abstract

The present study aims at investigating the use of prepositions of place and time (in, on and at) by first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language - Kasdi Merbah University- Ouargla by conducting an error analysis study. To achieve the purpose of this study, a descriptive analytical approach is adopted, and a test is administered to forty two first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language - Kasdi Merbah University- Ouargla during the academic year 2018/2019. After the interpretation of the results, it is revealed that addition errors are the most common in students' answers on the test followed by misinformation and omission errors respectively. It is also noticed that intralingual errors are considered to be the first source of students' errors, and this is because English prepositions are polysemous and difficult to be mastered.

Key-words: *Prepositions of place and prepositions of time, error analysis, addition errors, misinformation errors, omission errors, intralingual errors.*

List of Abbreviations

Adj: Adjective

AmE: American English

BrE: British English

EA: Error Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

KMUO: Kasdi Merbah University of Ouargla

L1: First Language

L2: Foreign Language

NP: Noun Phrase

Prep: Preposition

TL: Target Language

S: Student

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General Introduction

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1. Background of the Study

Prepositions in English are often difficult to be mastered by English language learners. No matter the level of proficiency they have achieved in learning the language, they will still struggle with those little words as ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’ (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Although these little words do not exceed one hundred in number, they make much confusion and cause so many problems for learners. One factor behind the complexity of English prepositions is that they can be combined with verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs resulting in many combinations of meanings and collocations which make the task of putting the right preposition in the right place even more challenging. In this vein, Ansell (2000) asserts that:

Most prepositions have more than one meaning, many prepositions can also be used as adverbs, prepositions are used in hundreds of idioms, many adjectives, nouns, and verbs must usually be followed by certain prepositions, and there are hundreds of phrasal verbs formed from combinations of verbs with adverbs and prepositions. (P. 401)

Prepositions of place and time (in, on and at) are the most frequently used and the most confusing for English as a foreign language learners due to the multiple meanings or senses that they can express depending on the context in which they are used. That is to say, the meaning of prepositions is contextbound, and each meaning of the meanings that a preposition can express is determined by means of the context where it is used.

2. Statement of the Problem

EFL learners encounter difficulties and get confused when it comes to using prepositions appropriately due to several factors. One of which is the complexity of the target language itself. In this connection, the present study attempts to investigate the use of the three prepositions of place and time (in, on and at) by first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language –

KMUO by conducting an error analysis study since it is appropriate to investigate such a phenomenon so as to identify the reasons behind committing errors in the use of ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’ and also to classify the most common types of errors that are made by first year LMD students when using these prepositions.

3. Purpose of the Study

The present study aims to identify the reasons behind making errors in the use of prepositions of time and place (in, on and at) by first year LMD students by conducting an error analysis study, and also to highlight the frequent types of errors committed in this field.

4. Research Questions

The present study aims at answering the following questions:

1. Why do first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language – KMUO make errors in the use of spatial and temporal prepositions (in, on and at)?
2. What sort of errors do first year LMD students make in the use of spatial and temporal prepositions (in, on and at)?
3. What is the most common type of errors made by first year LMD students in the use of spatial and temporal prepositions (in, on and at)?

5. Research Hypotheses

To answer the above-mentioned questions, the following hypotheses are formulated:

1. Errors may occur due to the interference of the learners’ L1, complexity of the target language itself, ignorance of the rule restrictions and incomplete application of rules.
2. When students use the prepositions (in, on and at), they may make errors of addition, misformation and omission.

6. Methodology

This study adopts a descriptive analytical approach since it is appropriate to describe and analyse the errors made by first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language - KMUO in the use of spatial and temporal prepositions (in, on and at) by conducting an error analysis study following Corder's model (1974). Quantitative data are gathered from the test to present in numbers the types of errors that students make, and to identify, on the basis of the statistics, the most common type of which. On the other hand, descriptive data will be used in order to classify, describe and analyse students' errors.

7. Limitations of the Study

The present study is only restricted to the use of spatial and temporal prepositions (in, on and at) among first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language - KMUO. It has been conducted on just forty two first year LMD students; the sample selected is not representative to the broader population, and therefore the results of this study cannot be generalised. The results may differ with other samples and under different circumstances.

8. Research Instrument

The research instrument used in this study was a fill-in-the-blank survey, where participants selected the appropriate preposition (in, on, at) as needed. The survey consisted of 20 items designed to identify common errors in the use of spatial and temporal prepositions. The instrument demonstrated excellent internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.973, indicating high reliability.

9. Definition of Key Terms

Preposition

According to Kittredge and Farley (2014), a preposition is a word preceding a substantive to show its relation to some other words in the sentence. The substantive which follows a preposition is referred to as its object and is in the objective case. A phrase that encompasses both a preposition and its object, along with or without other words, is called a prepositional phrase.

Error Analysis

Crystal (2008) defines EA as a “technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics”. (p. 173)

Chapter One: An Overview on Spatial and Temporal Prepositions in English

(in, on and at)

Introduction

Chapter One tackles prepositions in general, and more specifically the cornerstone of our study, i.e., the temporal and spatial prepositions: ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’. It aims at providing an overview on prepositions starting with the definition of prepositions as defined by a number of scholars and dictionaries, followed by an explanation of the associations that prepositions can have with nouns, verbs and adjectives. The present chapter also addresses the classification and the position of prepositions, and most importantly the use of ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’ in terms of time and space relations and other relations as well.

1.1 Prepositions’ Definition

As stated by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (2015), the function that a preposition has is to link words to other parts of a sentence. What follows a preposition is usually a noun. The noun along with the preposition preceding it comprise a prepositional phrase.

Swick (2005) states that “A preposition connects a certain word in a sentence to a noun or pronoun. But the meaning of prepositional phrases (preposition followed by a noun or pronoun) is varied. They tell where, when, why, how, or whose. ” (p. 92)

E.g:

- Where= I left my bag ‘in’ the garden.
- When= She wakes up ‘at’ 6 o’clock every morning.
- Why = Ahmed could not come to school ‘because of’ the bad weather.
- How= He prefers to travel ‘by’ train.
- Whose= This is the dress ‘of’ the bride.

Here is a list of some commonly used prepositions (Swick, *ibid*, P. 92).

About	behind	for	since
Above	below	from	through
Across	beside	in	to
After	between	of	under
Along	by	off	until
Around	despite	on	up
At	down	out	with
Before	during	over	without

Brown (2004) views the function of prepositions as to show the relations of words, and of the things or thoughts expressed by them as “He came from Rome to Paris, in the company of many eminent men, and passed with them through many cities” (p. 787)

In Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, a preposition is defined as:

“A word used with nouns, pronouns and gerunds to link them grammatically to other words. The phrase so formed, consisting of a preposition and its complement, is a prepositional phrase. In English, a prepositional phrase may be ‘discontinuous’, as in: who(m) did you speak to? Prepositions may express such meanings as possession (e.g. the leg of the table), direction (e.g. to the bank), place (e.g. at the corner), time (e.g. before now).” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 452)

According to Kittredge and Farley (2014), a preposition is a word preceding a substantive to show its relation to some other words in the sentence. The substantive which follows a preposition is referred to as its object and is in the objective case. A phrase that encompasses both a preposition and its object, along with or without other words, is called a prepositional phrase.

E.g:

- On the floor lay a heap of nuts.
- He stood behind the tree for some time.
- From morning till night he remained at his post.
- The fire destroyed everything except a few articles of furniture.

Based on the aforementioned definitions, it is concluded that the idea behind the use of prepositions is to link words with nouns or pronouns in a sentence. What follows a preposition is called an object of the preposition. It can be a noun, a pronoun, a gerund or a noun clause. The preposition along with its complement construct what is referred to as a prepositional phrase.

1.2 Co-occurrence with Verbs, Adjectives and Nouns

According to Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), some verbs and adjectives can co-occur with particular prepositions. That is to say, a number of verbs and adjectives go with specific prepositions resulting in new structures. **E.g:**

Verb+Prep

To rely on

To detract from

To consist of

To substitute for

To part with

Adj+Prep

to be dependent on

to be free from/of

to be afraid of

to be sorry for

to be content with

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (ibid) indicate that “Sometimes the same verb with two different prepositions will have significantly different meanings.” (p. 403) i.e., when a given verb is

used with two different prepositions, its meaning may change completely. **E.g:** Provide for: You should provide for your old age now (Make provisions for).

E.g: Provide +noun phrase (NP) +with: The Red Cross provided us with blankets. (It gave blankets to us)

However, sometimes the same verb if used with two different prepositions, the meaning may change slightly or may not change at all. **E.g:** Joe competes (with/against) his older brother too much. (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

Based on Frodesen and Eyring (1997), prepositions can precede or follow noun phrases to form what is referred to as multiword preposition clusters. Some of these multiword preposition clusters include the following combinations:

In+noun+of	on+noun+of	in the+noun+of	on the+noun+of
In case of	on account of	in the course of	on the advice of
In charge of	on behalf of	in the habit of	on the basis of
In favor of	on grounds of	in the name of	on the strength of

1.3 Formal Classification of English Prepositions

English prepositions can be classified under one of the following categories: simple or complex.

1.3.1 Simple Prepositions

Prepositions consisting of one word are called simple prepositions. Most of the common English prepositions, such as ‘at’, ‘in’ and ‘for’, are simple (Quirk et al., 1973). The following list includes the most common simple prepositions (Kucera & Francis, 1967, p. 274):

Aboard	below	in	since
--------	-------	----	-------

About	beneath	into	through
Above	beside	like	throughout
Across	between	near	till
After	beyond	of	to
Against	but (except)	off	toward
Along	by	on	under
Amid	concerning	onto	underneath
Among	despite	out	until
Around	down	outside	up
As	during	over	upon
At	except	past	with
Atop	for	per	within
Before	from	regarding	without
Behind			

1.3.2 Complex Prepositions

Complex prepositions consist of more than one word. They can be classified into two-word prepositions and three-word prepositions (Kolln & Funk, 2012).

1.3.2.1 Two-Word Prepositions

As per Kolln and Funk (ibid), two-word prepositions are the combination of a simple preposition added to one of the three categories: an adverb, an adjective, or a conjunction.

E.g:

According to	because of	next to
Ahead of	but for	out of
Along with	contrary to	prior to
As for	except for	thanks to
Aside from	instead of	up to

1.3.2.2 Three-Word Prepositions

Kolln and Funk (2012) explain that almost all the three-word prepositions have this form:

Preposition + noun +preposition. **E.g:**

By means of	in charge of	in spite of
In accordance with	in front of	on account of
In back of	in lieu of	on behalf of in
case of	in search of	

1.4 Position of Prepositions

Thomson and Martinet (1986) explain that prepositions normally precede nouns or pronouns. This order can be changed in informal English where the preposition can be placed at the end of the sentence in two cases:

a. In questions beginning with a preposition + whom/which/what/ whose/where:

- To whom were you talking? (formal)
- Who were you talking to? (informal)
- In which drawer does he keep it? (formal)

- Which drawer does he keep it in? (informal)

Note: To end a sentence with a preposition is only accepted in informal English while in formal English, it is considered ungrammatical.

b. In relative clauses with whom/which:

- The people with whom I was travelling (formal)
- The people I was travelling with (informal)
- The company from which I hire my TV set (formal)
- The company I hire my TV set from (informal)

Note: In phrasal verbs, the preposition/adverb remains after its verb, so the formal type of construction is not possible. **E.g:** This clause (The children I was looking after) could not be rewritten with ‘after’ + ‘whom’, and this question (Which bridge did they blow up?) could not be rewritten with ‘up’ + ‘which’.

Quirk et al., (1973, p. 300) differentiate between the optional and the obligatory uses of prepositions in end-position. In the following constructions, prepositions must occupy end-positions:

a. Wh-clause:

What I am sitting on is a new chair.

b. Exclamations:

What a mess he's got into!

c. Passives:

That house will have to be lived in by someone.

d. Infinitive clauses:

He is impossible to work with.

On the other hand, in some cases it is an option whether to place the preposition in the frontposition or at the end. The following are examples of such cases:

a. Wh-question:

A. Which house did you leave it at?

Or

B. At which house did you leave it?

b. Relative clauses:

A. The old house which I was telling you about is empty.

Or

B. The old house about which I was telling you is empty.

From all the above stated facts, one can conclude that a preposition can take whether a front or an end position, yet sometimes it is optional to put the preposition either at the beginning or at the end position. This is determined by the level of formality of the language itself, i.e., formal language is associated with the version of preposition taking the front-position, while the version with the preposition at the end is a characteristic of informal language. This is justified as per Wood (1967, P. 94) in his quotation:

In real-life situations we think more directly and concretely, so that our minds are predisposed towards the centre of interest, which prompts us to ask "Who.... by? ", whereas writing, being an artificial and second-hand means of communicating our thoughts, is less conducive to spontaneity and directness and tends towards "By whom?

Wood (ibid) believes that people are more direct when communicating informally than in writing. In informal language, the preposition takes the-end position because it is not the centre of interest. On the other hand, writing tends to be less direct and thus the preposition here takes the front-position.

1.5 The Use of ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’

Prepositions in English can be used to express different relations. ‘In’, ‘on’ and ‘at’, for example, can express a spatial sense, a temporal sense or another sense, which is different from the two.

1.5.1 'In', 'on' and 'at' as Prepositions of Place

Eastwood (1994) views 'in' as three-dimensional, 'at' as one-dimensional and 'on' as two-dimensional.

a. 'In' is three-dimensional. We use it when we see something as all around: **E.g:**

- I had five pounds 'in' my pocket.
- Who's that man 'in' the green sweater?
- There was a man sitting 'in' the waiting room.

b. 'On' is two-dimensional. We use it for a surface: **E.g:**

- Don't leave your glass 'on' the floor.
- There were lots of pictures 'on' the walls.

We also use it for a line:

E.g:

- Paris is 'on' the Seine.
- The house is right 'on' the main road, so it's a bit noisy.

'At' is one-dimensional. We use it when we see something as a point in space:

E.g:

- The car was waiting 'at' the lights.
- There's someone 'at' the door.

We use 'at' with events:

E.g: We met 'at' Daphne's party, didn't we?

We also use it for a person's house or flat:

E.g: I had a cup of coffee 'at' Angela's (house/flat).

Sometimes the prepositions 'in' and 'at' are mixed up, and are used interchangeably. In general, we use 'in' for a country or town and 'at' for a smaller place. **E.g:** We finally arrived 'in' Birmingham/'at' Land's End.

We can use 'at' with a town if we see it as a point on a journey, and at the same time, we can use 'in' for a smaller place if we see it as three-dimensional.

E.g:

- You have to change trains 'at' Birmingham.
- I've lived 'in' the village all my life.

With buildings, we use 'at' when we are talking about the normal purpose of the building, and we use 'in' when we talk about a secondary purpose.

E.g:

- It was cold in the library. (= inside the building)
- We were at the library. (= choosing a book)

The following table shows examples of the different uses of 'in', 'on' and 'at' as prepositions of place (Evans & Dooley, 2011, p. 173):

In	cities (London), towns (York), the country, a street, the suburbs, the middle of, the centre of, a queue, a line, a row, a hospital, a hotel, a book, a newspaper, an armchair, danger, the sky, the park Idioms with in: cash, pen, ink, pencil, writing, one's opinion, one's hand, a way, the end
At	house number (at 23 Oxford St), home, work, school, university, the station, the bus stop, the airport, the crossroads, the seaside, the door, the match, the bottom of, the top of (but: on top of), a hotel, a table, a desk
On	the floor, the outskirts, a platform, foot, the streets, the way, the pavement, a wall, rivers (the River Seine), the border, a farm, the screen, an island, a beach, the coast, the right, the left, a trip, the menu Idioms with on: holiday, business, a journey, a trip, TV, the radio, the phone, the market (= available to the public), purpose, the way (= as I was going)

Table 1: Examples on the Different Uses of ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’ as Prepositions of Place

1.5.2 ‘In’, ‘on’ and ‘at’ as Prepositions of Time

‘In’ is usually used to indicate a year (in 1998), a period when something will be over (in two months), a season (in summer), a part of the day (in the morning, afternoon, evening) and to indicate months (in July). On the other hand, ‘on’ is used with days of the week (on Sunday), names of the day (on my birthday) and with dates (on April 26). However, ‘at’ is used to indicate the time (at 9.30, at noon, at night) or a period and not just a day (at Easter, Christmas, etc.) (Karaban & Chernovaty, 2006).

The following table shows examples of the different uses of ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’ as prepositions of time (Evans & Dooley, 2011, p. 174):

At	In	On
at + clock time (at 10:30, at noon, at night, at midnight) at + meal time (at lunch, at dinner, at breakfast) Phrases: at that time, at the moment, at the weekend. BUT on the weekend: American English	in + part of day (in the morning, in the evening, in the afternoon, in the night) in + month / season / year (in January, in (the) winter, in 2002, in the nineteenth century) Phrases: in two hours, in a week / few days / month / year	on + day (on Monday, on New Year's Day) on + date (on July 30th) on + season / day + part of day (on a summer afternoon, on Friday night)

Table 2: Examples on the Different Uses of ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’ as Prepositions of Time

1.5.3 The Use of ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’ to Express Other Relations

The three prepositions ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’ are not only used to express place and time relations, but they are also used to express other relations. We are going to see the different relations that these prepositions can express one at a time based on the book of *Free English Grammar-Second Edition-* by Mary Ansell (2000).

a. In: ‘In’ can be used to express other relations, among which:

- **By Means of:** Write ‘in’ pencil, speak ‘in’ English.
- **Condition:** ‘In’ doubt, ‘in’ a hurry, ‘in’ secret.
- **A Member of:** He is ‘in’ the orchestra, ‘in’ the navy.
- **Wearing:** The boy ‘in’ the blue shirt.
- **With Reference to:** Lacking ‘in’ ideas, rich ‘in’ oil.

- **Similarity:** John spoke 'in' our teacher's manner (Karaban & Chernovaty, 2006).
- **Stimulus:** He's interested 'in' history. [History interests him] (Quirk et al., 1985)

Expressions with (in)

In the rain, in the sun, in the shade, in the dark, in bad weather, in dollars, in love (with somebody), in a (good/bad) mood, in (my) opinion, etc. (Murphy, 2019)

b. On: 'On' can be used to express other relations, such as:

- **About:** A book 'on' engineering.
- **A State or Condition:** 'On' strike, 'on' fire, 'on' holiday.
- **By Means of:** Live 'on' a pension, shown 'on' television.
- **Basis:** The outcome depends 'on' what you do (Lindstromberg, 2010).
- **Burden:** Put pressure 'on' him, drinks are 'on' me (Lindstromberg, *ibid*).

Expressions with (on)

On TV/television, on the radio, on the phone, on strike, on a diet, on fire, on the whole (in general), on purpose (intentionally), on holiday/ vacation, on business, on a trip, on a tour, on a cruise, etc. (Murphy, *ibid*)

c. At: 'At' can be used to express other relations, most importantly:

- **A Condition:** 'At' peace, 'at' war, 'at' rest.
- **An Activity:** 'At' work, 'at' school, 'at' play.
- **Towards:** Look 'at' someone, wave 'at' someone.
- **Point of Focus:** Look 'at' the stars, don't stare 'at' strangers (Lindstromberg, *ibid*).
- **Target:** Throw the ball 'at' the player, yell 'at' someone (Lindstromberg, *ibid*).

- **Manner:** ‘At’ full speed (Dirven, 1993).
- **(Emotional) Reaction:** ‘At’ the host’s request he left the room (Karaban & Chernovaty, 2006).
- **Level of Ability:** She is quite good ‘at’ playing the piano, isn’t she? (ibid.) □ **Stimulus:** I’m astonished ‘at’ your reaction (Quirk et al., 1985).

Expressions with (at)

At the age of 16, at 16, at 120 miles an hour, at 100 degrees Celsius, at a speed of 800 kilometres, at an altitude of 9000 metres, etc. (Murphy, 2019)

1.6 Deletion of Prepositions

We do not normally use ‘at’, ‘on’ or ‘in’ in phrases of time with ‘last’, ‘this’, ‘next’, ‘every’, ‘later’, ‘yesterday’ and ‘tomorrow’ (Eastwood, 1994).

E.g:

- I received the letter ‘last Tuesday’. (NOT on last Tuesday)
- We've been really busy ‘this week’. (NOT in this week)
- You can take the exam again ‘next year’. (NOT in the next year)
- The same thing happens ‘every time’. (NOT at every time)
- ‘A week later’ I got a reply. (NOT in a week later)
- I'll see you ‘tomorrow morning’. (NOT in tomorrow morning)

The deletion of prepositions is obligatory with nouns indicating a place, such as ‘home’ or ‘downtown’, and with pro-adverbs ‘here’ and ‘there’ when used with a verb of motion or direction (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

E.g:

- We went (*to) home.
- Phyllis walks (*to) here every day.

It is often possible to delete a preposition when its meaning is contained within the verb preceding it (Quirk et al., 1985). **E.g:**

Roam (about/around) the city.

Ponder (on) a question.

Pass (by) a house.

Turn (round) a corner.

Flee (from) the country.

Attain (to) a position.

Cross (over) a street.

Climb (up) a mountain.

Jump/leap (over) a fence.

Pierce (through) the defences.

Sometimes it is optional whether to use the preposition or omit it (Eastwood, 1994).

E.g:

- Something else a bit unusual happened (on) that day.
- I'd been ill (in) the previous week.
- They agreed to meet (on) the following Sunday.

The omission of the preposition is also optional with phrases that identify a time before or after a given time in the past or future (Quirk et al., 1973).

E.g:

- (In) the previous spring.
- (At) the following weekend.
- (On) the next day.

The preposition 'for' is often omitted in phrases of duration (Quirk et al., 1973).

E.g:

- We stayed there (for) three months.
- The snowy weather lasted (for) the whole time we were there.

- (For) a lot of the time, we just lay on the beach.

The omission almost invariably takes place with phrases which begin with all (ibid.).

E.g: We stayed there all week. (Not 'for' all week)

Thomson and Martinet (1986) maintain that the preposition 'to' is deleted in a sentence when the indirect object is placed before the direct object. Here are some verbs with which we can omit the preposition 'to': 'bring', 'give', 'hand', 'leave' (in a will), 'lend', 'offer', 'pass' (= hand), 'pay', 'play' (an instrument/piece of music), 'promise', 'sell', 'send', 'show', 'sing', 'take' and 'tell' (narrate, inform).

E.g:

- I gave the book 'to' Tom = I gave Tom the book.
- I showed the map 'to' Bill = I showed Bill the map.
- They sent £5 'to' Mr. Smith = They sent Mr. Smith £5.

Just like 'to', 'for' is also omitted when the indirect object is placed before the direct object in the sentence. The preposition 'for' can be deleted after the following verbs: 'book', 'build', 'buy', 'cook' (bake, boil, fry etc.), 'fetch', 'find', 'get', 'keep', 'knit', 'leave', 'make', 'order' and 'reserve' (ibid.).

E.g:

- I'll find a job 'for' Ann = I'll find Ann a job.
- I'll get a drink 'for' you = I'll get you a drink.
- I bought a book 'for' James = I bought James a book.

The omission of prepositions is impossible with many 'event' verbs and with clauses taking the initial position (Quirk et al., 1973).

E.g:

- I haven't spoken to him for three months. (Not I haven't spoken to him three months) □ For 600 years, the cross lay unnoticed.

It is also impossible to delete a preposition with some frequency constructions (ibid.).

E.g:

- With+adjective+ frequency: with regular frequency.
 - At+adjective+intervals: at irregular intervals.
 - On+adjective+occasions: on specific occasions.
- From time to time: we saw each other from time to
time.
- At a/the rate of+noun: at the rate of \$20 an hour.
 - Between/at+each+singular he had dropped the habit of noun, or all+plural
noun: drinking coffee at all hours.

Sentences without prepositions are more like to be found in informal language with both informal American English (AmE) and in very informal British English (BrE) (ibid.).

E.g:

- I'll see you Sunday. (The preposition 'on' is omitted before a day of the week standing on its own).
- Sundays we go into the country. (The preposition 'on' is omitted before a plural noun phrase in the initial position).

Conclusion

Chapter One tried to address the different aspects associated with our topic, which investigates the use of ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’ as prepositions of place and time among EFL students. Similarly, an attempt was made to provide an up-to-date understanding of our topic so as to have a closer look at the correct use of the three most common prepositions in English, namely ‘in’, ‘on’ and ‘at’, because those prepositions have multiple uses and meanings depending on the context in which they are used, which makes it difficult and confusing for students to opt for the right choice among these prepositions.

Chapter Two: An Overview on Error Analysis

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Chapter Two: An Overview on Error Analysis

Introduction

In order to help teachers improve teaching and learning strategies of the English language, it is important to highlight some common errors that are produced by learners. The aim of this study is to investigate the misuse of spatial and temporal propositions by English as a foreign language learners, and to highlight the factors behind committing prepositional errors. This chapter tackles error analysis in brief, and sheds the light on the major differences between errors and mistakes and on Corder's model of error analysis.

2.1 Definition of Error Analysis

Error analysis is described as “a set of procedures for identifying, describing and explaining learners' errors” (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 51). It is important to demonstrate that Error Analysis is not only to identify or to detect errors but also to explain why they occur. When investigating second language learners' work, there are many methods that one can use to collect data for the research. The best method to investigate second language acquisition according to Ellis & Barkhuizen (ibid) is by collecting samples of the learner's written works.

Crystal (2008) defines EA as a technique that uses the principles and the procedures provided by linguistics in order to identify, classify, interpret and explain the errors committed by foreign language learners in a systematic way.

Similarly, Keshavarz (2012) asserts that EA is “a procedure used by both researchers and teachers which involves collecting samples of learner language, identifying errors, classifying them according to their nature and causes, and evaluating their seriousness”. (p. 168)

Another concept of error analysis is given by James (1998) when he defines error analysis as “the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language” (p.1).

2.2 Error versus Mistake

According to Chomsky (1965), the inaccurate forms are the results of a failure in the linguistic competence or the linguistic performance. The first one is associated with the linguistic knowledge that learners have about the language, while the second one refers to the deviances that are not the product of lack of linguistic competence, but are product of nonlinguistic influences. Linguistic performance is the actual use of language in the real life situations and it may be erroneous because of memory limitations, distractions and other psychological factors.

The distinction between performance and competence is important since a deviation from the correct use of language is due to different causes and implications. On the one hand, mistakes reflect the lack of linguistic performance of the learner, yet they do not reflect the real linguistic knowledge of the learner because even native speakers may have some mistakes in their performances (Chomsky, *ibid*). However, native speakers are able to correct themselves in a fast manner, as they can identify their slips as soon as they hear them (Brown, 2007).

On the other hand, James (1998) believes that errors are the result of the lack of linguistic knowledge. In other words, errors originate as a result of linguistic ignorance of the second language, and they cannot be self-corrected by the learners themselves. James (*ibid*) distinguishes between error and mistake in the sense that errors can be self-corrected by the speaker himself/herself while mistakes “can be self-corrected if the deviation is pointed out to the speaker” (p.83).

Corder (1967) makes an important distinction between mistakes and errors. He views mistakes as slips of the tongue, and they are not systematic because they are performance failures made by all speakers. Errors, on the contrary, are systematic and reflect the learner’s competence. That is to say, errors are associated with competence, and they are systematic i.e. likely to occur repeatedly and not recognised by the learner. In contrast, mistakes are not systematic and are related to performance.

According to Norrish (1987, p. 7), an error is “A systematic deviation when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong.” He explains that when second or foreign language learners make an error systematically, it is because they have not learnt the correct form. Based on

the definition of error introduced by Norrish (1987), it is clear that learners make errors as a result of the lack of their competence in the target language.

Corder (1967) considers errors as a tool learners use in order to learn. That is why they are important in and of themselves for learners themselves and are indispensable and inevitable in the process of learning the target language. He believes that errors play an important role in assessing the learners' development through the learning process for as long as learners make errors, it is a proof that learning is taking place, and learners' knowledge is being developed. Corder (ibid, p. 125) states the following:

The study of error is part of the investigation of the process of language learning. In this respect it resembles methodologically the study of the acquisition of the mother tongue. It provides us with a picture of the linguistic development of a learner and may give us indications as to the learning process.

2.3 Corder's Model of Error Analysis

In conducting an error analysis study, there are different procedures that the researcher has to take into account. According to Corder (1974), there are four specific steps that should be followed. These are a collection of samples of learner language, description of errors, explanation of errors and evaluation of errors.

2.3.1 Collection of Samples of Learner Language

According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), the researcher has to take into consideration the purpose behind the study before starting data collection, and then has to collect all the data related to the aim of the study and research questions that must be answered. In this step, the number of the participants or the corpus on which the study is going to be conducted on should be clearly stated.

The data will be gathered through regular examinations. According to Gass and Selinker (2008), both written and oral data can be collected. Ellis (1997) proposes a step for identifying errors.

The researcher identifies the errors where s/he compares the utterances of the learner to the correct ones in the target language (TL). For instance, the following sentence ‘Helina and Marry goed to the museum’ produced by a student whose mother tongue is not English can be compared to the right one in English, which is: ‘Helena and Marry went to the museum’. Identifying the errors means being aware of them (e.g. incorrect sequence of tenses, wrong verb form, singular verb form with plural subject).

2.3.2 Description of Errors

Corder (1967) believes that the EFL learner’s error needs to be specified in order to describe it by showing how it differs from the native speaker’s. After identifying all errors, they would be classified into types. In this connection, Dulay et al., (1982) suggest the following taxonomies:

2.3.2.1 Errors Based on Linguistic Category Taxonomy

Dulay et al., (ibid) focused on error taxonomies that classify errors according to some observable surface features of the error itself, without referring to its underlying cause or source. They marginalise the deep structure of the utterance and focus on the surface structure. The latter encompasses phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary) and discourse (style) with another linguistic constituent that the error affects. They call these ‘descriptive taxonomies’.

2.3.2.2 Errors Based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy

Errors based on surface strategy taxonomy focuses on the ways in which surface structures are adjusted. The surface structure taxonomy classifies errors into subtypes as follows: omission, addition, misformation and misordering. Addition and omission are more common for the early stages of L2 acquisition, while misformation and misordering are typical in the intermediate stages (Dulay et al., ibid)

a. Errors of Omission

Errors of omission refer to the absence of an item which must be present in an ordinary utterance. Corder (1981) states that such kind of errors occurs “where some element is omitted which should be present” (p. 36). Dulay et al., (1982) classify morphemes into two types: grammatical morphemes like nouns, verbs and adjectives and content morphemes, such as articles, auxiliaries and prepositions.

For instance, ‘Simon was a president.’ Here ‘Simon’ and ‘president’ are content morphemes since they carry the essence of this sentence while ‘was’ and ‘a’ are grammatical morphemes, and they play a secondary role as a verb auxiliary and an article respectively.

b. Errors of Addition

As their name suggests, errors of addition are opposite to omission errors. Henceforth, the presence of an extra item which must not be present in a well formed utterance is a characteristic for additions (Dulay et al., *ibid*). The same idea is emphasised by Corder (*ibid*) where he states that “Error of addition is where some element is present which should not be there” (p.36). Addition errors are divided into three types according to Dulay et al., (*ibid*), the first type is double markings, as in ‘Did you went there?’ where it should be written like: ‘Did you go there?’ The second type is regularisation, which is realised by adding a typical marker to a linguistic item as in ‘sheeps’, ‘cutted’. The last type is simple addition which contains the rest of additions that should not appear in a wellformed sentence.

c. Errors of Misformation

Misformation errors are indicated by the usage of wrong forms of certain morphemes or structure (Dulay et al., *ibid*). For example: ‘Me don’t write.’ It should be ‘I don’t write.’ Misformation errors happen consciously. They are divided into three types. The first type is regularisations errors,

which are a result of applying rules of regular forms on irregular ones, for example, when formulating the plural form for the word ‘cat’/‘cats’. The second type is archi-forms. They refer to the use of a class form to represent or describe another class form in a different situation, like using ‘this cars’ instead of ‘these cars’. The last type is alternating forms which are represented by “free alternation of various members of a class with each other”, as in ‘this student’ and ‘those student’ when used by the same learner in the same utterance. (Dulay et al., 1982, p. 157).

d. Errors of Misordering

Misordering errors are the incorrect placement of word order. They happen when learners can select the right forms to use in the right context; however, they still arrange the words incorrectly such as adverbials, interrogatives and adjectives. Misordering is any incorrect placement of certain morphemes in an utterance. For example, ‘I am all the time early’, instead of ‘I am early all the time.’ Such kind of errors is not only restricted on L2 learners, but also L1 learners may encounter such deviations (Corder, 1981).

2.3.2.3 Errors Based on Comparative Taxonomy

Errors based on comparative taxonomy classify errors on the basis of comparing the structure of L2 errors to other sorts of constructions, generally to errors made by children during their L1 acquisition. According to Dulay et al., (ibid), errors can be divided into four types: developmental errors, interlingual errors, ambiguous errors and other errors. The first type, developmental errors, refers to errors committed by L2 learners which resemble those made by children who are acquiring the target language (TL) as their L1. They are called developmental because they characterise both L1 and L2 development. The second type is interlingual errors. They are the result of the resemblance between the structure of the utterance produced by the learner in the TL and the semantically equivalent utterance in the learner’s native L1. Last, ambiguous errors are utterances that reflect the

learner's L1, and at the same time, are similar to errors produced by children during their L1 during their L1 acquisition. They could be classified as both developmental and interlingual errors.

2.3.2.4 Errors Based on Communicative Effect Taxonomy

Errors based on communicative effect taxonomy target the effect the errors have on the audience. Dulay et al., (1982, p. 189) argue that “errors that affect the overall organization of the sentence hinder successful communication, while errors that affect a single element of the sentence usually do not hinder communication”. These errors are classified into two types: global and local. The former inhibits communication due to the misconstruction of the sentence, which results in the misunderstanding of the message. The latter consists of errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries, formation of quantifiers, etc. These errors do not hinder the audience from grasping the meaning of the message.

Although these types of errors seem to be easy to distinguish, yet it is challenging to decide which type of error takes place. Sometimes the researcher finds himself in front of a sentence that has two different reconstructions and hence two different sorts of errors. Therefore, the researcher's reconstruction of the sentence defines the type of the error (Ellis, 1994).

2.3.3 Explanation of Errors

To explain errors, one needs to determine their sources in order to find out why the error is made in the first place, which is the most important part of Error Analysis. However, it is not easy to differentiate between an error and a mistake and this makes the explanation of errors more difficult. Some errors could be due to native language transfer, more precisely negative transfer according to interlanguage hypothesis. While others could be developmental errors most learners make in learning this language no matter what their native language is. Some errors may be due to the way a teacher or textbook presented or explained a given form. Selinker (1972) discusses these and other possible causes of systematic learner errors.

2.3.3.1 Interlingual Transfer

Interlingual transfers are errors that have an intermediate status between the two systems of the mother tongue and the second language. Brown (2000) maintains that interlingual errors are the result of the mother tongue interference. He believes that interlingual errors are most common in early stages of language learning. According to Ellis (1994), transfer refers to the “processes that lead to the incorporation of elements from one language into another” (p.201). He offers another definition of transfer by defining it as “the influence that results from the similarities and differences between the second language and any other language that has been previously acquired” (p.301).

There are two types of interlingual transfer that might take place. The first one is positive transfer. When the L1 system shares similar characteristics with the L2 system, the transferences are positive, because they match with the ones of the second language. Corder (1967) points out that they can be facilitative and provide information about one’s learning strategies. The second one is negative transfer. The transference is negative when it results in a problem with the rules of the L2, since it violates them.

2.3.3.2 Intralingual Errors

Richard (1974) maintains that intralingual interference refers to items produced by learners, which reflect not the structure of mother tongue, but generalisation based on partial exposure of the target language. This indicates that intralingual errors are originated in the L2 itself, and are not related to L1. Brown (1980) contends that intralingual and developmental errors reflect the learners’ competence at a particular stage. According to Richard (ibid), overgeneralisation, ignorance of rule restrictions, false concepts hypothesised and incomplete application of rules all together are examples of intralingual errors. Intralingual errors are common in any language learning process; they impose themselves as a universal phenomenon, and they are prominent when learners begin to acquire parts of the new system.

2.3.4 Errors Evaluation

It is in this step, according to Gass and Selinker (2008), that the different errors are being weighed in order to distinguish which errors should get more attention and be taught in class. The last step in Error Analysis is to evaluate and draw a conclusion on the gathered results.

Gass and Selinker (ibid) propose a pedagogical step that specifies the measures of errors which are going to be corrected since errors are distinguished from each other. In addition, there are errors that are regarded more serious than others. When tracing the students' written productions, this type of analysis is going to be implemented in the collected data.

2.4 Why Error Analysis is Done

Error Analysis is useful in language learning because it provides teachers, syllabus designers and textbook writers with the problem areas where they can focus more and give more attention, and it helps them rethink about learning materials and classroom procedures. As per Corder (1967), errors are a visible proof that learning is taking place, and they indicate that something is happening in the mind of the learner. He insists on the idea that errors are of a high importance if studied systematically as they would change the way in which language is actually learnt by a foreigner. He also believes that teachers can benefit from error analysis in the sense that they can assess the effectiveness of their teaching methods and procedures. In case something is not going as planned, they would be able to design remedial work and rethink their teaching methods and materials.

According to Ancker (2000), mistakes and errors are natural and necessary part of the learning process. Olasehinde (2002) agrees with Ancker concerning the importance of making errors. He states that learners must make errors in order to learn since errors are unavoidable and are signs of language learning. That is why teachers should not consider learners' errors as failure to grasp the rules, but rather to look at the positive side of errors. Errors should be considered as inevitable and natural features of the learning process according to Stark (2001).

Vahdatinejad (2008) confirms that teachers can use error analysis as a tool to define what the learner still needs to be taught, and also to fill the gaps in his/her competence. Gass and Selinker (2008) maintain that error analysis aims at easing learning and eliminating all what can stand in the way of learning. Since what error analysis aims to achieve is pedagogical remediation, it can be stated that its purpose is pedagogically orientated. Corder (1967) believes that errors are necessary for researchers, teachers and even learners. First, researchers can identify the significance of errors in language classroom and start to test them so as to achieve a better understanding of language development mechanisms. In addition, errors are of a great importance to the teacher because they tell him how far the learner progressed towards the goal of learning process and what remains for the learner to learn. Besides, errors are important for the learners themselves because errors are considered as a tool for learning and a natural and necessary part in the learning process. **2.5 Previous Studies**

Many researchers have approached the topic of prepositional errors analysis in different ways. In the following lines, we are going to deal with some of the previous studies that tackled this topic following an Error Analysis approach. We will focus on some aspects, such as the participants, the methods of collecting data, the goals and the results that these researchers came up with. These studies are ordered chronologically.

The first study was done by Jha (1991). In his study, the researcher analysed the errors committed in the use of prepositions by Maithili learners of English. He administered a test to Maithili learners of English in a university context. Since his aim was to highlight the possible interferences of the learners L1 and L2, the researcher made a comparison between the prepositional systems in both languages by conducting a contrastive study. After extracting the errors from the test, he classified them into types (omission, insertion and misselection). The researcher concluded that the mother tongue of the learners is the first source behind making prepositional errors. After that, he concluded this study by presenting some recommendations to the teachers in order to overcome the misuse of English prepositions.

The second study was carried out by Jansson (2006). The researcher in this study sheds the light on the problems that native Swedish speakers have in the area of prepositions by adopting an error analysis approach. After calculating the prepositional errors made in the compositions that were written by native Swedish senior high school students, the errors were classified into three types (substitution, addition and omission). After analysing these errors, the researcher came up with the result that learners' knowledge of their mother tongue strongly influences their acquisition of English prepositions.

In the third study, Gvarishvili (2012) aimed at examining the extent to which students rely on their L1 propositional knowledge in acquiring and understanding English prepositional usage. In order to achieve that purpose, 105 writings of Georgian ESL learners were collected and analysed following an error analysis approach. After the analysis of the errors in the writing composition, the researcher concluded that the main source of the misuse of prepositions is the negative interference of learners' L1. Gvarishvili did not propose any solutions to overcome these problems.

After reviewing the previous studies, we can conclude that what these pieces of research have in common is that they all adopted an error analysis approach in analysing the data save Jha (1991) who preferred to conduct a contrastive study. Some researchers limited their studies to present the analysis of the errors, without going onto proposing solutions or didactic solutions. Others did not only analyse the prepositional errors, but they also sought for providing any pedagogical implication or strategy to overcome such problems.

Conclusion

Chapter Two explores the relationship between error analysis and language learning. It described the various strategies that learners use and the difficulties that they face in the learning process. It also tackled how error analysis has its impact on understanding the language learning process. Chapter Two presented a general overview on error analysis, and the chapter that follows will discuss the results of this study.

Chapter Three: Methodology and Results

Introduction

3.1 Methodology

3.2 Research Design

3.3 The Sample

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

3.5 Data Analysis Procedures

3.6 Results

3.6.1 Description of the Results

3.6.2 Interpretation of the Findings

Conclusion

Chapter Three: Methodology and Results

Introduction

The ultimate aim of the present study is to investigate the use of spatial and temporal prepositions (in, on and at) by first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language - Kasdi Merbah University- Ouargla. In this chapter, the two researchers are going to collect data and analyse them by conducting an error analysis study in order to identify the frequent types of errors that first year LMD students make when using spatial and temporal prepositions (in, on and at), and to highlight the most common type of which. This chapter presents the analysis and the interpretation of data collected from the test that has been administered to the sample of first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language – KMUO to confirm or refute the aforementioned proposed hypotheses.

3.1 Methodology

In order to answer the research questions and prove or reject the suggested hypotheses, descriptive analytical approach has been adopted in this study. Ethridge (2004) contends that descriptive studies aim to determine, describe or identify the ‘what’, whereas analytical studies try to identify the ‘why’ or ‘how’ it comes to be.

The descriptive analytical approach has been followed in this study since it is appropriate to describe and analyse students’ errors in the use of spatial and temporal prepositions (in, on and at).

3.2 Research Design

To achieve the aim of the present study, the two researchers have used the descriptive quantitative method. Quantitative data are gathered from the test to present in numbers the types of errors that students made in the use of spatial and temporal prepositions (in, on and at), and to identify, on the basis of the statistics, the most common type of which. On the other hand, descriptive data are used in order to classify, describe and analyse students’ errors.

3.3 The Sample

The sample of the present study includes forty two first year LMD students from both genders (males and females) at the department of letters and English language – K MUO in the second semester during the academic year 2018/2019. Age and gender are not taken into consideration. The participants of this study are selected randomly, because it is regarded as the most reliable method in collecting data.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

Given 30 minutes, first year LMD students at K MUO were requested to answer a one- activity test. The test encompasses 20 sentences including one or two gaps for each, and the students are required to fill in the gaps with one of the prepositions (in, on or at). If no preposition is necessary, the space should be left empty. The main focus of this test is to classify, describe and analyse students' errors in the use of spatial and temporal prepositions (in, on and at).

3.5 Data Analysis Procedures

According to Corder's model (1974), there are certain steps to be followed when doing an error analysis study. These steps are data collection, description and explanation.

The analysis begins by collecting the tests from the participants. The second step is the identification of errors. Through reading, the two researchers have underlined students' errors concerning the misuse of (in, on and at). After that, a table is drawn in which one cell includes all errors committed by students on the misuse of (in, on and at). Another cell is drawn for the appropriate reconstruction of these errors. In addition, there is another cell for the error type, and there is another one for the sources of errors (see Appendix 3).

S	Error	Reconstruction of Error	Description of Error (Type)	Cause/Source of Error
S1	?	?	?	?
S2	?	?	?	?

Table 3: Steps of Doing an Error Analysis

The third step is the description of errors, which is done on the basis of Dulay's theory. The subcategories of surface structure taxonomy are considered as the basis for the selection and the classification of all errors. Errors are divided into four types in this taxonomy: Omission, addition, misformation and misordering. The detected errors are classified under the previous error types. Then, the frequency of each error type is counted. Then, the calculation of the results of the test is represented via percentage. After that, based on the previous calculation, a graphic is made in order to highlight the common types of errors.

Types of Errors	Frequency of Errors	Percentage (%)
Addition Errors	?	?
Omission Errors	?	?
Misformation Errors	?	?
Misordering Errors	?	?
Total	?	? %

Table 4: Frequencies and Percentages of Error Types

In order to get the quantitative data, errors are going to be quantified and then will be described in the table of frequency and percentage as follows:

$$P = F \times 100\% / N =$$

P: Percentage **F:** Frequency

N: Number of cases (Total of Frequency)

After the identification and classification of errors, the explanation of the sources of those errors is the next step according to Brown (2000). There are four types of sources of errors: interlingual errors, intralingual errors, context of learning errors and communication strategies errors.

Types of errors are computed according to their sources by using percentages as indicated in Table 5. After that, on the basis of this calculation a graphic is done.

Errors' Sources	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Interlingual	?	?
Intralingual	?	?
Context of Learning	?	?
Communication Strategies	?	?
Total	?	? (%)

Table 5: Frequency of Errors' Sources

These procedures are expected to provide significant information concerning students' errors, their types and their sources. They help in reconstructing those errors as well.

3.6 Results

The results of the test showed that first year LMD students at KMOU face difficulty in selecting the appropriate preposition, and they tend to add some prepositions in unnecessary places. They also tend to use some prepositions instead of others which lead them to fall in misinformation errors. It is also noticed that omission errors are the least frequent in the students' answers on the test with the lowest percentage of occurrence. Concerning the sources of errors, the results revealed that intralingual errors are considered to be the first source of errors followed by interlingual errors. In other words, the target language has a greater impact on the students' answers on the test in comparison to L1 interference.

3.6.1 Description of the Results

After gathering data, the two researchers have presented the number of errors made in the test of first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language – KMOU. The detected errors are huge. Their types and sources differ. The two researchers draw a table so as to clarify students' errors and analyse them (see appendix 3). The total number of errors is 552 errors. They differ in types. Errors of addition, errors of omission and errors of misinformation have been identified, and no misordering errors have been found in their answers.

Types of Errors	Frequency of Errors	Percentage (%)
Addition Errors	285	51,63 %
Omission Errors	30	5.43 %
Misformation Errors	237	42.93 %
Misordering Errors	0	0 %
Total	552	100 %

Table 6: Frequencies and Percentages of Error Types

The following figure elucidates the data given in the previous table in percentages:

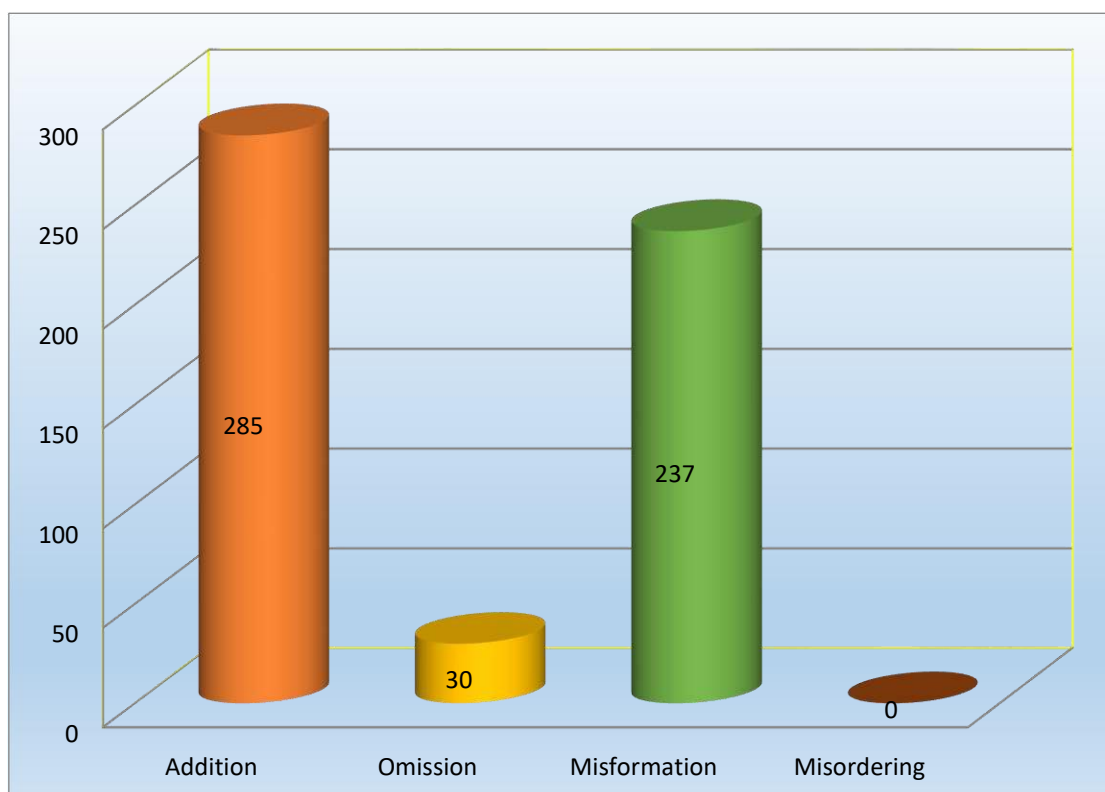


Figure 1: Error Types in Numbers

Table 6 and Figure 1 above show how many errors occurred in students' answers. In addition, they show the percentage of each error type. The most frequent error made by first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language – KMUO is Addition error with 285 errors of the

total 552 errors (51, 63 %). Due to the fact that students are confused and not able to decide when to use a preposition and when not to, they make such kind of errors. Then, misformation errors occurred 237 times (42.93 %). Next, omission errors take the third place in the classification of errors (5.43 %) of the total percentage of errors. Finally, the two researchers have noticed that misordering errors did not appear at all in the answers of students because the nature of the test itself makes it impossible to commit such an error.

After describing errors on the basis of their types, the next step is to classify them with reference to their sources. As shown in the table below, the source of the most frequent errors is intralingual with 322 errors from the total 552 errors (58, 33/%) whereas some detected errors are associated with language transfer from L1 to L2 with 41, 66/% (230 interlingual errors). Unlike interlingual and intralingual sources, none of the students' errors can be attributed to the context of learning or communication strategies.

Errors' Sources	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Interlingual	230	41,66/%
Intralingual	322	58,33/%
Context of Learning	0	0%
Communication Strategies	0	0%
Total	552	100 (%)

Table 7: Frequency of Errors' Sources

The previous table can be transformed into the following figure to clarify more the results and show the differences between errors' sources in portions (a portion for each gradually):

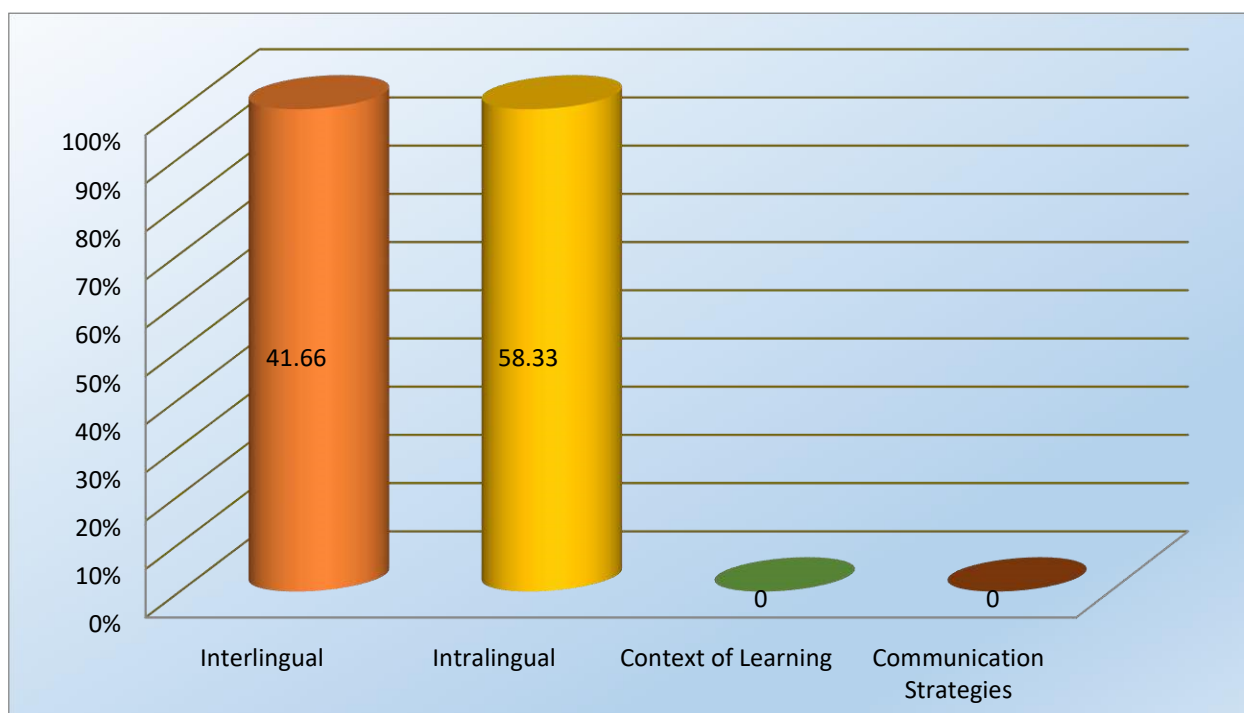


Figure 2: Errors' Sources

3.6.2 Interpretation of the Findings

After identifying and extracting all the errors that were committed in the test by first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language- KMUO, the appropriate correction is made for each error on the basis of the meaning. Here are some examples of the correction:

Errors	Correction of Errors
I'll never forget 'on' that week (Student 11) → Addition error	I'll never forget 'Ø' that week
I had to get up 'at' the night to close the window (Student 31) → Misformation error	I had to get up 'in' the night to close the window

Table 8: Examples of Error Reconstruction

Figure 1 shows the percentages of error types in which all errors were classified into types. Addition error is on the top of the classification in comparison to misformation and omission errors, which makes it the most frequent error in students' answers on the test. Student 21; for example, added an unnecessary preposition 'at' to the sentence 'I swim at every Friday evening.' It should be:

'I swim 'Ø' every Friday evening. Another error made by Student 30 is considered as an addition error. In the question 'In what day are we going to Pat's?' the student here added the preposition 'in' to the question, which is unnecessary in this situation. It is supposed to be written as: 'What day are we going to Pat's?'

Misformation error is another common error in students' sentences. It occupies the second place in the classification following addition errors. For instance, Student 9 made a misformation error when he wrote 'My parents' flat is 'at' the twenty-first floor' instead of writing 'My parents' flat is 'on' the twenty-first floor. Misformation error is realised by the wrong selection of the phonological, morphological, or grammatical element. In this case, the student used the preposition 'at' instead of 'on'. The same student made another misformation error when he used the preposition 'in' where it should be 'on' in the sentence 'When I was 14, I went 'in' a trip to France organised by my school'. Student 3 made another misformation error in the sentence 'I generally get my salary 'at' the fifth of the month.' but it should be 'on' the fifth of the month.

Another type of errors found in students' answers is omission error. This type is rarely committed, and it occupies the last position after addition and misformation errors respectively. It is characterised by deleting a preposition where it should stand to convey the appropriate meaning, such as in the sentence 'Technology has developed 'Ø' great speed.' produced by Student 32 where he omitted the preposition 'at' that should appear in the middle of the sentence to indicate the progress of development. Student 12 made the same error type in the sentence 'We didn't go 'Ø' holiday last year. We stayed at home.' The student omitted the preposition 'on'. Another omission error is committed by Student 18 when he deleted the preposition 'at' from the sentence: 'The woman sitting next to me left the train 'Ø' Chesterfield'. Unlike addition, misformation and omission errors, the students' answers did not include any misordering errors because the nature of the test itself makes it impossible to commit such an error.

Based on the percentages of sources of errors shown in table 7 and figure 7 , it is clear that intralingual errors are classified as number one and the major source for students' errors with 58,33%. Because there are no clear rules governing the use of prepositions in English and because English prepositions are polysemous, students are confused about the appropriate preposition to choose, and therefore they make such kind of errors. It is also probable that students memorise prepositional rules by heart without understanding the appropriate use of each preposition, and then they end up making many errors for their lack of understanding of the rules. For instance, Student 5 wrote the sentence 'the programme was shown on television 'at' one afternoon last week', which reflects his/her lack of understanding of the rule for there are some expressions in English where no preposition is needed. Because this student is not aware of this fact, s/he makes an error of addition where the sentence should be written as 'the programme was shown on television 'Ø' one afternoon last week'. Another intralingual error made by Student 31, which indicates ignorance of the rule. S/he wrote this sentence 'I had to get up 'at' the night to close the window.' In this case, Student 31 made a misinformation error. Instead of using the preposition 'in', s/he used the preposition 'at' for s/he does not differentiate between the use of 'in' and 'at' or s/he is likely using them interchangeably.

Interlingual transfer is another source of students' errors with 41, 66/%. Interlingual transfer is divided into two types according to its effect: positive transfer and negative transfer. Negative transfer, which is also known as 'interference', happens because the rules of L1 are different from the rules of L2. In this study, the L1 of the participants is Arabic. Students tried to build a new system that does not resemble the rules of the English prepositional system. For instance, Student 9 made a misinformation error when he wrote 'My parents' flat is 'at' the twenty-first floor.' instead of writing 'My parents' flat is 'on' the twenty-first floor. Student 9 imitates the habitual utterance that is used in Arabic and puts 'at', which means /fi/ in Arabic as one of its meanings, instead of 'on'. S/he used the wrong preposition 'at' due to the negative transfer of the Arabic Preposition /fi/. The same student made another error of the same kind when s/he used the preposition 'in' in lieu of 'on' in this sentence

‘When I was 14, I went ‘in’ a trip to France organised by my school’. In this sentence, the negative influence of his/her mother tongue is very clear.

Conclusion

Chapter Three tackled the main methodological points, including the approaches and methods and the data analysis procedures used in this study. The data were collected by means of a test distributed to a sample of first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language

– KMOU. After data collection, students’ errors were classified, described and analysed in order to come up with the major findings. After the interpretation of the results, it is revealed that the most common type of errors are addition errors followed by misinformation errors and omission errors respectively. It is also noticed that intralingual errors are considered to be the first source of students’ errors, and this is because English prepositions are polysemous and difficult to be mastered.

General Conclusion

The current study tried to shed the light on the use of the prepositions (in, on and at) among first year LMD students at the department of letters and English language - KMUO by conducting an error analysis study. It aimed at highlighting the reasons behind the misuse of these prepositions and identifying the common error types that are committed by students while utilising the prepositions (in, on and at).

In order to achieve the aims of this study, the two researchers adopted a descriptive analytical approach and designed a test to collect the data from the students' answers and then classify, describe and analyse students' errors gathered from the test.

The results of the test showed that addition errors are the most common in students' answers on the test followed by misformation and omission errors respectively. It was also noticed that students are confused and not able to decide when to use a preposition and when not to due to the complexity of English prepositions in the first place, and because of L1 interference in the second place.

The majority of students make errors while using the prepositions (in, on and at) because these prepositions have many functions and different meanings, which makes the task of using those prepositions properly challenging; prepositions can therefore present a major challenge for students, specifically, the common ones (in, on and at).

Another reason behind committing prepositional errors is L1 interference. When students are confused about whether to put a preposition or not or about the appropriate preposition to select, they refer to Arabic language to solve the problem. If the student translates a preposition directly from Arabic into English, s/he will probably make an error due to L1 interference or also known as negative transfer.

On the basis of the outcomes of this study, it is noticed that EA is a useful apparatus to locate prepositional errors that students commit and to describe the various strategies that learners use and the difficulties that they face in the learning process so as to achieve a better understanding of the language learning process.

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Appendices Appendix 1: The Test

Level: 1st Year Licence

Time: 30 Minutes

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her..... the day after tomorrow.
2. The programme was shown on television..... one afternoon last week.
3. I'll never forget.....that week.
4. My parents' flat isthe twenty-first floor.
5. When I was 14, I wenta trip to France organised by my school.
6. Natasha now lives32 The Avenue.
7. We didn't goholiday last year. We stayed at home.
8. I swim..... every Friday evening.
9. I was standing.....the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be served.
10. I'm pretty busy.....next week. I'm afraid I can't see you.....Friday.
11. I generally get my salarythe fifth of the month.
12. The woman sitting next to me left the trainChesterfield.
13. Technology has developed..... great speed.
14. I listened to an interesting programmethe radio this morning.
15. I'll be back home..... this evening.
16. Do you knowwhat time it starts?
17.his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five weeks in hospital.
18. I had to get up..... the night to close the window.
19. Let's go sailingone weekend.
20. what day are we going to Pat's?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Appendix 2: Samples of Students' Answers



Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her ~~in~~ the day ~~ad~~ ^{inter} after tomorrow.
2. The programme was shown on television. ~~at~~ one afternoon last ~~ad~~ ^{inter} week. ^{on}
3. I'll never forget.....that week. ✓✓
4. My parents' flat is ~~on~~ the twenty-first floor. ✓
5. When I was 14, I went ~~in~~ a trip to France organised by my ~~miss~~ ^{inter} school. ^{inter}
6. Natasha now lives ~~at~~ 32 The Avenue. ✓
7. We didn't go ~~on~~ holiday last year. We stayed at home. ✓
8. I swim ~~on~~ every Friday evening. ~~addition~~ ^{inter} ^{interlingual}
9. I was standing ~~in~~ the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be ~~x miss~~ ^{inter} served.
10. I'm pretty busy ~~on~~ next week. I'm afraid I can't see ~~but~~ you ~~on~~ Friday. ✓
11. I generally get my salary ~~on~~ the fifth of the month. ✓
12. The woman sitting next to me left the train ~~at~~ Chesterfield. ✓
13. Technology has developed ~~at~~ great speed. ✓
14. I listened to an interesting programme ~~in~~ the radio this morning. ~~miss~~ ^{inter}
15. I'll be back home..... this evening. ✓
16. Do you know ~~at~~ what time it starts? ~~addition~~ ^{inter}
17. ~~in~~ his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five ~~miss~~ weeks in hospital.
18. I had to get up ~~in~~ the night to close the window. ✓
19. Let's go sailing ~~on~~ one weekend. ~~addition~~ ^{inter} ^{interlingual}
20. ~~at~~ what day are we going to Pat's? ~~addition~~ ^{inter} ^{interlingual}

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

14/20 93

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her at the day after tomorrow. *addition*
2. The programme was shown on television..... one afternoon last week. *interday*
3. I'll never forget.....that week. ✓
4. My parents' flat is on the twenty-first floor. ✓
5. When I was 14, I went on a trip to France organised by my school. ✓
6. Natasha now lives in 32 The Avenue. *misplacement* *at* *interday*
7. We didn't go on holiday last year. We stayed at home. ✓
8. I swim..... every Friday evening. ✓
9. I was standing at the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be served. ✓
10. I'm pretty busy.....next week. I'm afraid I can't see you on Friday. ✓
11. I generally get my salary at the fifth of the month. *misplacement* *inter*
12. The woman sitting next to me left the trainChesterfield. *on* *inter*
13. Technology has developed..... great speed. *emission* *inter*
14. I listened to an interesting programme on the radio this morning. ✓
15. I'll be back home..... this evening. ✓
16. Do you know at what time it starts? *add* *inter*
17. on his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five weeks in hospital. ✓
18. I had to get up at the night to close the window. *misplacement* *interday*
19. Let's go sailing at one weekend. *add* *interday*
20. at what day are we going to Pat's? *add* *interday*

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

10/20

5/5

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

- ✗ 1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her ^{at} the day ^{add} ^{inter} after tomorrow.
- ✗ 2. The programme was shown on television ^{at} one afternoon last ^{add} ^{inter} week.
- ① 3. I'll never forget.....that week. ^{empty} ✓
- ✗ 4. My parents' flat is ^{at} the twenty-first floor. ^{misinformation} ^{inter}
- ✓ 5. When I was 14, I went ⁱⁿ a trip to France organised by my ^{misinformation} ^{inter} school.
- ① 6. Natasha now lives ^{at} 32 The Avenue. ✓
- ① 7. We didn't go ^{on} holiday last year. We stayed at home. ✓
- ① 8. I swim..... every Friday evening. ^{empty} ✓
- ① 9. I was standing ^{at} the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be served. ✓
- ① 10. I'm pretty busy.....next week. I'm afraid I can't see ^{empty} you ^{on} Friday. ✓
- ① 11. I generally get my salary ^{on} the fifth of the month. ✓ ^{inter}
- ✗ 12. The woman sitting next to me left the train ⁱⁿ Chesterfield. ^{misinformation} ^{inter}
- ✗ 13. Technology has developed ⁱⁿ great speed. ^{misinformation} ^{inter}
- ✗ 14. I listened to an interesting programme ^{on} the radio this morning. ^{inter}
- ① 15. I'll be back home ^{at} this evening. ^{empty} ^{misinformation} ✓
- ✗ 16. Do you know ^{at} what time it starts? ^{add} ^{inter} ✓
- ✗ 17. ⁱⁿ his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five ^{inter} weeks in hospital. ^{misinformation} ✓
- ① 18. I had to get up ⁱⁿ the night to close the window. ✓
- ✗ 19. Let's go sailing ^{on} one weekend. ^{add} ^{inter} ✓
- ✗ 20. ^{on} what day are we going to Pat's? ^{add} ^{inter} ✓

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

5.5
20

Sg

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

- ① 1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her..... the day after tomorrow. ✓
- ✗ 2. The programme was shown on television...in one afternoon last week. add intera
- ① 3. I'll never forget.....that week. ✓
- ✗ 4. My parents' flat is at the twenty-first floor. missformation inter
- ✗ 5. When I was 14, I went in a trip to France organised by my school. missformation inter
- ✗ 6. Natasha now lives in 32 The Avenue. missformation intera
- ① 7. We didn't go on holiday last year. We stayed at home. ✓
- ✗ 8. I swim on every Friday evening. addition intera
- ✗ 9. I was standing in the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be served. missformation inter
- ① 10. I'm pretty busy.....next week. I'm afraid I can't see you in Friday. missformation inter ✓
- ✗ 11. I generally get my salary at the fifth of the month. missformation inter
- ✗ 12. The woman sitting next to me left the train in Chesterfield. missformation inter
- ✗ 13. Technology has developed on great speed. missformation intera
- ① 14. I listened to an interesting programme on the radio this morning. ✓
- ✗ 15. I'll be back home at this evening. add inter
- ✗ 16. Do you know at what time it starts? add inter
- ✗ 17. in his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five weeks in hospital. intera
- ① 18. I had to get up in the night to close the window. ✓
- ✗ 19. Let's go sailing in one weekend. add intera
- ✗ 20. on what day are we going to Pat's? add inter

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

1.8
2.0
S₁₁

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her ~~on~~ the day after tomorrow. *add intera*
2. The programme was shown on television ~~at~~ one afternoon last week. *add intera*
3. I'll never forget ~~on~~ that week. *add intera*
4. My parents' flat is ~~in~~ the twenty-first floor. *no preposition inter*
5. When I was 14, I went ~~at~~ a trip to France organised by my school. *inter*
6. Natasha now lives ~~in~~ 32 The Avenue. *no preposition intera*
7. We didn't go ~~on~~ holiday last year. We stayed at home. ✓
8. I swim ~~at~~ every Friday evening. *no preposition inter*
9. I was standing ~~in~~ the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be served. *no preposition inter*
10. I'm pretty busy ~~at~~ next week. I'm afraid I can't see you ~~on~~ Friday. *add intera*
11. I generally get my salary ~~in~~ the fifth of the month. *no preposition inter*
12. The woman sitting next to me left the train ~~in~~ Chesterfield. *no preposition intera*
13. Technology has developed ~~in~~ great speed. *no preposition intera*
14. I listened to an interesting programme ~~in~~ the radio this morning. *no preposition intera*
15. I'll be back home ~~at~~ this evening. *add inter*
16. Do you know ~~at~~ what time it starts? *add inter*
17. ~~in~~ his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five weeks in hospital. *inter*
18. I had to get up ~~in~~ the night to close the window. *no preposition intera*
19. Let's go sailing ~~in~~ one weekend. *add intera*
20. ~~on~~ what day are we going to Pat's? *add inter*

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION



S, 12

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

- ✗ 1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her. ~~in~~ the day *add intera* after tomorrow.
- ✗ 2. The programme was shown on television. ~~on~~ one afternoon last *add intera* week.
- ① 3. I'll never forget.....that week. ✓
- ✗ 4. My parents' flat is ~~in~~ *at* the twenty-first floor. *miss ferda inter*
- ① 5. When I was 14, I went ~~on~~ a trip to France organised by my ✓ school.
- ① 6. Natasha now lives ~~at~~ 32 The Avenue. ✓
- ✗ 7. We didn't goholiday last year. We stayed at home. *omissia inter*
- ✗ 8. I swim. ~~on~~ every Friday evening. *add intera*
- ① 9. I was standing ~~at~~ the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be ✓ served.
- ① 10. I'm pretty busy.....next week. I'm afraid I can't see ✓ you. ~~on~~ Friday.
- ✗ 11. I generally get my salary ~~at~~ the fifth of the month. *miss ferda inter intera*
- ✗ 12. The woman sitting next to me left the trainChesterfield. *omissia on intera*
- ① 13. Technology has developed ~~at~~ great speed. ✓ *inter*
- ✗ 14. I listened to an interesting programme ~~in~~ the radio this morning. *miss ferda*
- ① 15. I'll be back home..... this evening. ✓
- ✗ 16. Do you know ~~at~~ what time it starts? *add inter*
- ① 17. ~~on~~ his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five ✓ weeks in hospital.
- ① 18. I had to get up ~~in~~ the night to close the window. ✓
- ✗ 19. Let's go sailing ~~on~~ one weekend. *add intera*
- ✗ 20. ~~in~~ what day are we going to Pat's? *add intera*

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

5.5
20

5.8

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her. ~~on~~ the day *add inter* after tomorrow.
2. The programme was shown on television. ~~at~~ one afternoon last *add inter* week.
3. I'll never forget.....that week. ✓
4. My parents' flat isthe twenty-first floor. *omission inter*
5. When I was 14, I went ~~at~~ a trip to France organised by my *miss for inter* school.
6. Natasha now lives ~~in~~ 32 The Avenue. *miss for inter*
7. We didn't goholiday last year. We stayed at home. *omission inter*
8. I swim. ~~on~~ every Friday evening. *add inter*
9. I was standing. ~~on~~ the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be *miss for inter* served.
10. I'm pretty busy ~~in~~ next week. I'm afraid I can't see *add inter* you. ~~on~~ Friday. ✓
11. I generally get my salary ~~on~~ the fifth of the month. ✓
12. The woman sitting next to me left the trainChesterfield. *omission inter*
13. Technology has developed. ~~in~~ great speed. *miss for inter*
14. I listened to an interesting programme ~~in~~ the radio this morning. *miss for*
15. I'll be back home. ~~on~~ this evening. ✓
16. Do you know ~~at~~ what time it starts? *add inter*
17. ~~On~~ his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five weeks in hospital. ✓
18. I had to get up. ~~on~~ the night to close the window. *miss for inter*
19. Let's go sailing ~~in~~ one weekend. *add inter*
20. ~~On~~ what day are we going to Pat's? *add inter*

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her... *in* the day after tomorrow. *add inter 2*
2. The programme was shown on television... *at* one afternoon last week. *add inter 2*
3. I'll never forget... *on* that week. *add inter 2*
4. My parents' flat is... *at* the twenty-first floor. *miss function inter*
5. When I was 14, I went... *on* a trip to France organised by my school. ✓
6. Natasha now lives... *in* 32 The Avenue. *miss function inter 2*
7. We didn't go... *on* holiday last year. We stayed at home. ✓
8. I swim... *at* every Friday evening. *add. has. inter 2*
9. I was standing... *at* the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be served. ✓
10. I'm pretty busy... *in* next week. I'm afraid I can't see you... *on* Friday. *add. has. inter*
11. I generally get my salary... *at* the fifth of the month. *miss function inter*
12. The woman sitting next to me left the train... *in* Chesterfield. *miss function inter*
13. Technology has developed... *on* great speed. *miss function inter 2*
14. I listened to an interesting programme... *in* the radio this morning. *miss function inter*
15. I'll be back home... *in* this evening. *add inter*
16. Do you know... *at* what time it starts? *add inter*
17. *In* his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five weeks in hospital. *inter 2 miss function*
18. I had to get up... *on* the night to close the window. *miss function inter 2*
19. Let's go sailing... *at* one weekend. *add inter 2*
20. *In* what day are we going to Pat's? *add inter*

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

us 30

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her. *in* the day *add inter 2*
after tomorrow.
2. The programme was shown on television. *at* one afternoon last *add inter 2*
week.
3. I'll never forget. *in* that week. *add inter 2*
4. My parents' flat is *on* the twenty-first floor. ✓
5. When I was 14, I went *on* a trip to France organised by my ✓
school.
6. Natasha now lives *at* 32 The Avenue. ✓
7. We didn't go *on* holiday last year. We stayed at home. ✓
8. I swim *at* every Friday evening. *add inter 2*
9. I was standing *on* the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be *inter*
served. *inter*
10. I'm pretty busy. *at* next week. I'm afraid I can't see *add inter*
you. *on* Friday. ✓
11. I generally get my salary *at* the fifth of the month. *miss Janaka inter*
12. The woman sitting next to me left the train *on* Chesterfield. *miss Janaka inter*
13. Technology has developed. *on* great speed. *miss Janaka inter 2 inter 2*
14. I listened to an interesting programme *at* the radio this morning. *miss Janaka*
15. I'll be back home. *at* this evening. *add inter 2*
16. Do you know *at* what time it starts? *add inter*
17. *in* his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five *miss Janaka*
weeks in hospital. *inter*
18. I had to get up. *at* the night to close the window. *miss Janaka inter 2*
19. Let's go sailing *at* one weekend. *add inter 2*
20. *in* what day are we going to Pat's? *add inter*

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Test

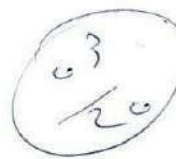
4.5
2

S31

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

- ✗ 1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her ~~on~~ the day *add inter?* after tomorrow.
- ✗ 2. The programme was shown on television *at* one afternoon last *add inter?* week.
- ✗ 3. I'll never forget ~~on~~ that week. *add inter?*
- ✗ 4. My parents' flat is *in* the twenty-first floor. *misfunction inter*
- ✗ 5. When I was 14, I went ~~at~~ a trip to France organised by my *misfunction inter* school.
- ✗ 6. Natasha now lives *in* 32 The Avenue. *misfunction inter*
- ✗ 7. We didn't go ~~at~~ holiday last year. We stayed at home. *misfunction inter?*
- ✗ 8. I swim ~~on~~ every Friday evening. *add inter*
- ① 9. I was standing ~~at~~ the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be served. ✓
- ① 10. I'm pretty busy ~~on~~ next week. I'm afraid I can't see *add inter* you ~~on~~ Friday. ✓
- ✗ 11. I generally get my salary ~~at~~ the fifth of the month. *misfunction inter*
- ✗ 12. The woman sitting next to me left the train *in* Chesterfield. *misfunction inter?*
- ✗ 13. Technology has developed ~~on~~ great speed. *misfunction inter?*
- ① 14. I listened to an interesting programme ~~on~~ the radio this morning. ✓
- ✗ 15. I'll be back home *in* this evening. *add inter*
- ✗ 16. Do you know ~~at~~ what time it starts? *add inter*
- ① 17. ~~on~~ his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five *add inter?* weeks in hospital. ✓
- ✗ 18. I had to get up ~~at~~ the night to close the window. *misfunction inter?*
- ✗ 19. Let's go sailing *in* one weekend. *add inter?*
- ✗ 20. *in* what day are we going to Pat's? *add inter*

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION



S32

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her *on* the day after tomorrow. *add inter*
2. The programme was shown on television *at* one afternoon last week. *add inter*
3. I'll never forget *on* that week. *add inter*
4. My parents' flat is *in* the twenty-first floor. *miss function inter*
5. When I was 14, I went *at* a trip to France organised by my school. *miss function inter*
6. Natasha now lives *in* 32 The Avenue. *miss function inter*
7. We didn't go *on* holiday last year. We stayed at home. *miss function inter*
8. I swim *at* every Friday evening. *add inter*
9. I was standing.....the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be served. *omission inter*
10. I'm pretty busy *at* next week. I'm afraid I can't see you.....Friday. *add / on inter omission inter*
11. I generally get my salary *in* the fifth of the month. *miss function inter*
12. The woman sitting next to me left the train *on* Chesterfield. *miss function in*
13. Technology has developed..... great speed. *omission inter*
14. I listened to an interesting programme *on* the radio this morning. *miss function inter*
15. I'll be back home..... this evening. *miss function inter*
16. Do you know *at* what time it starts? *add inter*
17. *on* his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five weeks in hospital. *miss function inter*
18. I had to get up *at* the night to close the window. *miss function inter*
19. Let's go sailing *in* one weekend. *add inter*
20. *on* what day are we going to Pat's? *add inter*

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

10/20 542

Test

Put (in/on/at) where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1. I'm afraid she's left now, but you'll be able to see her at the day after tomorrow. *add inter a*
2. The programme was shown on television in one afternoon last week. *add inter a*
3. I'll never forget.....that week. ✓
4. My parents' flat is on the twenty-first floor. ✓
5. When I was 14, I went in a trip to France organised by my school. *miss inter*
6. Natasha now lives at 32 The Avenue. ✓
7. We didn't go on holiday last year. We stayed at home. *miss inter*
8. I swim in every Friday evening. *add inter a*
9. I was standing at the counter in the baker's shop, waiting to be served. ✓
10. I'm pretty busy...x...next week. I'm afraid I can't see you on Friday. ✓
11. I generally get my salary on the fifth of the month. ✓
12. The woman sitting next to me left the train in Chesterfield. *miss inter a*
13. Technology has developed in great speed. *miss inter a*
14. I listened to an interesting programme on the radio this morning. ✓
15. I'll be back home...x... this evening. ✓
16. Do you know at what time it starts? *add inter*
17. On his arrival in Thailand, Mr Surat fell ill and spent the next five weeks in hospital. ✓
18. I had to get up in the night to close the window. ✓
19. Let's go sailing on one weekend. *add inter a*
20. On what day are we going to Pat's? *add inter*

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Résumé

La présente étude a pour objet d'investiguer sur l'utilisation des prépositions de lieu et de temps (in, on et at) (en, sur, et à) par les étudiants de première année du LMD au département des lettres et de l'anglais à l'université Kasdi Merbah - Ouargla en effectuant une étude d'analyse des erreurs (EA). Pour atteindre le but de cette étude, une approche analytique descriptive a été adoptée et un test a été lancé à 42 étudiants de première année du LMD au département des lettres et de l'anglais à l'université Kasdi Merbah - Ouargla au cours de l'année universitaire 2018/2019. Après l'interprétation des résultats, il est révélé que les erreurs d'ajout sont les plus fréquentes dans les réponses des étudiants au test, suivies des erreurs de fausse formation et des erreurs d'omission. On remarque également que les erreurs interlingual sont considérées comme la première source d'erreurs commises par les étudiants, car les prépositions en anglais sont polysémiques et difficiles à maîtriser.

Les mots clé : prépositions de lieu et prépositions de temps, analyse des erreurs, erreurs d'ajout, erreurs de fausse formation, erreurs d'omission, erreurs interlingual.

ملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تقصي استخدام حروف الجر المكانية والزمانية (in, on and at) بين طلبة السنة الأولى ليسانس من قسم الآداب واللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة قاصدددا مربا ورقة، وذلك من خلال إجراء دراسدددة تحليل للأخطاء. ولتحقيق الغرض من هذه

الدراسة، تم انتهاز المنهج الوصفي التحليلي كما أننا أجرينا اختبارا لعينة تشمل 42 طالبا من السنة الأولى ليسانس من قسم الآداب واللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة قاصدا مربا ورقة للسنة الجامعية 2018\2019. بعد تحليلنا لنتائج هذه الدراسة استخلصنا بأن أخطاء الإضافة هي الأكثر شيوعا ضمن إجابات الطلبة على الاختبار تليها في الترتيب أخطاء التركيب والحذف على التوالي. ولقد تبين لنا أيضا أن الأخطاء اللغوية هي المصدر الأول والرئيسي لأخطاء الطلبة، وذلك لتعدد معاني حروف الجر الإنجليزية، مما يحول دون الاستخدام الصحيح لهذه الحروف .

الكلمات المفتاحية: حروف الجر المكانية وحروف الجر الزمانية، تحليل الأخطاء، أخطاء الإضدددددافة، أخطاء التركيب، أخطاء الحذف، الأخطاء اللغوية.