

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE RIVIEW

This chapter discusses the theory of the study. It consists of the riview on error; review on preposition; review on preposition; review on article; review on descriptive text; and previous related study.

A. Review on Error

a. Definition of Error

Students who are learning a foreign language will undoubtedly make mistakes. Error may signal the emergence of a new linguistic system. Erdogan (1985:26), a research assistant at Mersin University's Education Faculty, claims that the errors are caused by the persistence of existing mother tongue practices in the new language. Hubard (1983:134) adds that errors are produced by a lack of knowledge of the target language (English) or by inaccurate hypotheses about it.

Brown (1980:217) also described error as a marked change from the native speaker's mature grammatical structures, which shows the learner's competency. Furthermore, Chomsky (1986:133), an American linguist, pointed out that even though a native speaker has a complete command of his common language, including grammatical rules, lexis, and the audio system, speakers make several errors when speaking (performance). Furthermore, Norrish (1983:7) explains that a mistake occurs when a student has not learned something and consistently gets it wrong. According to Gas and Selinker (1981:78), errors are likely to occur again and are not acknowledged as such by the learner.

Due to their ignorance of the language rules which are they learning, the students make mistakes. When students make mistakes, they will not be able to correct them on their own. As stated by James (1998:83), errors require additional relevant learning before they can correct it. It means that the students will almost certainly make mistakes at other times, and those mistakes should be corrected as soon as possible. The researcher would like to define error based on the definitions provided by the experts above. Error is an unacceptable performance of the student's work that is discovered on a regular basis and the students are unable to self-correct their own mistake. Error discussion can be an indicator of a student's level of mastery of their target language. The errors that students make can be used to determine their level of mastery of the language system.

The learners make mistakes because they do not understand the language rules they are learning. When students make mistakes, they will be unable to correct them on their own. As stated by James (1998:83), errors require additional relevant learning before they can be self-corrected. It means that the students will almost certainly make mistakes at other times, and those mistakes should be corrected as soon as possible.

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b. Distinction between Error and Mistake

Students often make error and mistake in language learning process. Errors and mistakes are different, so it is important to distinguish between errors and mistakes. As a teacher, it is important to analyze students errors and mistakes, so teacher should be able to distinguish both of error and mistakes.

1) Error

Brown (1987: 258) defines an error as a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker that reflects the learners' competence. Learners of English who ask "Can John sing?" are most likely displaying a level of competence in which all verbs require a pre-posed do auxiliary for question formation. As such, it is an error, most likely not a mistake, and it reveals some of the learners' proficiency in the target language. According to Selinker, as cited by Corder (1981: 103), these errors were considered a byproduct of the learner's attempt to express his meaning in spontaneous speech with the ability of the target language system. Corder (1981: 65) also stated that errors are all the result of the mother tongue's influence on the learning process, or interference from the first language's habits. According to Selinker (1977: 119), errors are a part of the learning process's circular progression, and they are viewed as a dynamic process involved in the learning process. Meanwhile, Corder (1973: 167) explains that "learners' errors are significant in that they provide evidence to the researcher of how language is learned or acquired, as well as what strategies or procedures the learner employs in the discovery of language."

Based on the theories presented above, it is possible to conclude that an

error is a process that indicates the learner's learning strategy. An error occurs when deviations occur as a result of a lack of knowledge and the learners are unable to correct them on their own. Errors continue to occur and are consistent. It indicates that the students have not grasped the linguistic system they are using. In other words, errors result from a lack of knowledge of the language's rules.

2) Mistake

A mistake and an error are not the same thing. Errors are caused by continuous and consistent competence factors. Mistakes, on the other hand, are frequently caused by performance factors such as fatigue and inattention. It is supported by the experts listed below.

According to James (1998:78), mistakes are generally caused by performance factors such as memory or forgetfulness limitations, tiredness, some situations of stress or uncertainty, or when our attention is divided. Native speakers can usually recognize their own errors, and if the learner concentrates or pays attention to them, they can be corrected. As a result, mistakes, according to Corder (1981:10), will be beneficial. Hereafter, therefore, we will refer to errors of performance as mistakes. Mistakes have no bearing on the process of language learning. Furthermore, Brown (1987:257) defines a "mistake" as a performance error that is either a random guess or a "slip" in that it is a failure to correctly use a known system. In both native and second language situations, everyone makes mistakes. These hesitations, slips of the tongue, random ungrammaticalities, and other performance flaws are also present in second language speech. When their

attention is drawn to them, they can self-correct.

A mistake is the result of an imperfection in the process of providing language, not a lack of competence. Meanwhile, Larsen (1994:59) defines a mistake as a random performance slip caused by fatigue, excitement, or other factors. It is self-correcting. According to James (1998: 78), mistakes are unimportant in language learning because they do not reflect incompetence (they are not caused by incompetence) but are traceable to performance failure. The learner is usually aware of them right away and can correct them with more or less certainty.

It is clear from these definitions of mistakes and errors that mistakes are distinct from errors. Mistakes are errors in performance caused by factors such as fatigue, nervousness, and other unpredictability in one's psychological state. Errors, not mistakes, reflect someone's language competence. If the teacher points out the error, the students can correct it themselves. On the contrary, students cannot correct their own mistakes.

According to the explanations above, errors are competence factors that learners possess. Errors occur when deviations occur as a result of a lack of knowledge and the learners are unable to correct them on their own. While mistakes refer to performance errors, that is a failure to correctly use a known system. This means that the learners understand the language and its rules, but they fail to apply them correctly.

Furthermore, a learner's errors reveal what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in language discovery. On the other hand, mistakes have no bearing on the process of language learning, and listing the rules for

making mistakes would be pointless. According to the definition above, errors are caused by performance factors. Impaired memory or forgetting can lead to errors in pronouncing language sounds, words, word order, or stressing words or sentences. Mistakes happen at random. That means that those errors can occur at any linguistic level. Mistakes happen at random. Because they understand the linguistic system of the language they use, learners can usually correct their mistakes by paying attention or concentrating on what they want to say. It is possible to conclude that mistakes are only temporary. These do not last very long. A slip of the tongue when a speaker says something is the best example of a linguistic error.

c. Source of Error

According to Brown (1994: 213), learner errors result from a variety of general sources, including Intralingual Transfer, Interlingual Transfer, Context of Learning, and Communicative Strategies.

1. Intralingual Transfer

Intralingual errors are those caused by the learner's mother tongue interfering. Because of interference from their native language, the students make mistakes. It is referred to as "mother tongue influence" by James (1998:179). An Indonesian student frequently makes mistakes when expressing English sentences, particularly when using singular or plural subjects, because there is no change in Indonesian verbs to indicate singular or plural subjects. According to Brown (1994: 213), the native language is the only linguistic system in the learner's previous experience that takes the

learner at this stage, before the system of the second language is familiar. Intralingual errors are caused by the structure of the target language.

Intralingual errors are referred to as developmental errors by Dulay (1982:165). He also claims that because children are learning their first language, they have no experience learning a previous language, and any errors they make cannot be due to any inference from the other language. Intralingual errors occur when the first language lacks a rule that the second language possesses.

2. Interlingual Transfer

Researchers usually translate the grammatical form of the learner's phrase or sentence into the learner's first language when identifying interlingual errors. Interlingual errors are errors in a second language that reflect the structure of the native language. Interlingual errors are the result of a complicated system in the target language itself. Furthermore, Dullay (1982:171) states that in order to identify an interlingual error, researchers usually translate the grammatical form of the learner's phrase or sentence into the learner's first language to see if there are any similarities.

3. Context Learning

The sources of error differ greatly from the two sources of error, interlingual transfer and intralingual transfer. According to Brown (1994: 74), in the case of school learning, context refers to the classroom with its teacher and materials. Students frequently make mistakes in their learning context as a result of the teacher's misleading exploration. Brown (1994: 215) also claims that students frequently make mistakes as a result of a misleading

explanation from the teacher, a faulty presentation of structure or words in a textbook, or even a pattern that was memorized incorrectly in a drill. Furthermore, Brown (1994: 215) argued that the social context of language acquisition can be raised to entertain dialect acquisition, which can be a source of error in and of itself.

4. Communicative Strategies

The final point of failure is communication strategy. First, the author will provide a definition of communication. Communication is the exchange of information from one person to another. There are two types of communication: verbal communication and nonverbal communication. When we communicate our message verbally to whoever is receiving it, we are using verbal communication, whereas nonverbal communication is when we transfer our message without using words. Gestures and body language can be used.

According to Brown (1994: 178), "a communication strategy is the conscious use of a verbal or nonverbal mechanism for communicating an idea when precise linguistic forms are not readily available to the learner at a point in communication." For example, a learner might say, "I got lost on the way." That obviously meant, I lost my way in this case, and a learner manages to devise methods of avoidance when expressing a thought becomes too difficult. Errors occur for a variety of reasons. Interference from the native language is one obvious cause. Learners may make mistakes because they believe the target language and their native language are the same, when in fact they are not. This type of overgeneralization is also the source of many

incorrect guesses. Another obvious reason is a lack of knowledge of the target language. The complexity of the target language is a third common source of errors. Certain aspects of English are difficult for all students, regardless of their native language (for example, the "s" in the third person singular present tense). Spelling is another issue for non-native English speakers, as well as many native speakers. Finally, success occurs when an individual achieves a satisfactory level of competence in the second language and is unconcerned about persistent errors that do not impede communication (Brown, 1994: 203-225). Overgeneralization, Ignorance of Rule Restrictions, Incomplete Application of Rules, and False Concept Hypothesized are some of the causes of errors mentioned by Richards (1970:8-14).

1. Overgeneralization

It occurs when students apply the previous rule they learned to a different pattern with a different rule.

2. Ignorance of Rule Restrictions

It is still linked to generalization. The students fail to observe the constraints of existing structures, i.e. they apply rules in contexts where they do not apply.

3. Incomplete Application of Rules

The structures appear as a representation of the evolution of the rules needed to produce acceptable utterances.

4. False concepts are hypothesized.

The errors occur as a result of a poor understanding of distinctions in the

target language. However, some linguists have stated that the target language and other sources can also cause errors. To determine the source of the errors, the researcher employs Richards' theory, which appears appropriate in this case to analyze the sources of the student's errors.

d. Types of Error

There are four types of classifications of student errors, according to Dullay (1982:143): linguistic category taxonomy, surface strategy taxonomy, comparative taxonomy, and communicative effect taxonomy.

1. Linguistic Category Taxonomy

This taxonomy categorizes errors based on either the language component or the specific linguistic constituent that the error affects. Phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse comprise the language component (style). Meanwhile, a constituent is made up of the elements that make up each language component. For example, within syntax, one might wonder whether the error is in the main or subordinate clause, and which constituent within the clause is affected (e.g., the noun phrase, the auxiliary, the verb phrase, the preposition, the adverb, the adjective, and so forth).

2. Surface Strategy Taxonomy

The surface strategy taxonomy emphasizes how surface structures are changed: Learners can omit necessary items (omission) or add unnecessary ones (addition); they can misform or misorder items (misformation) (misordering). Analyzing errors from the standpoint of surface strategy

entails identifying cognitive processes that underpin the learner's reconstruction of the new language. Knowing that learners' errors are based on logic, learners' errors are not the result of laziness or sloppy thinking, but rather the influence of the learner's internal principles to produce a new language.

a. Omission

An omission is the absence of a required item in a well-performed utterance, which can be any morpheme or word in a sentence. Errors can occur when either content morphemes or grammatical morphemes are missing. Content morphemes play an important role in conveying a sentence's meaning (e.g. nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs). Meanwhile, grammatical morphemes play only a minor role in conveying a sentence's meaning (noun and verb inflections, article, verb auxiliaries, and preposition). For example, in the sentence Maela is the new movie's producer. The content morphemes that convey the meaning are Maela, producer, new, and movie. If one heard Maela's new movie, he or she could still guess the sentence meaning. While is, the, and of are all grammatical morphemes. If one heard is the of the, he or she could not even begin to guess what the speaker was thinking.

b. Addition

The opposite of omission, addition is the presence of an item that should not be present in a well-performed utterance. It usually happens in the later stages of second acquisition, after the learner has already acquired some target language rules as a result of all-too-faithful application of

certain rules. Addition errors are classified into three types: double markings, regularizations, and simple additions.

I. Double Markings

When two items are marked for the same feature, such as failing to delete certain items required in some linguistic constructions, this is known as double marking. In the sentence, for example, she did not attend the birthday party.

II. Regularizations

It usually refers to a group of linguistic items, such as the group of main verbs or the group of nouns. Language has both regular and irregular forms and constructions. Learners apply the rules used to produce regular ones to irregular ones, resulting in regularization errors. For example, the verb begin becomes begined in the plural, and the noun man becomes mans in the plural, whereas men.

III. Simple Addition

The "grab bag" subcategory of additions is simple addition. Simple additions have no distinguishing characteristics other than those shared by all addition errors.

c. Misformation

A misformation error occurs when the incorrect form of a morpheme or structure is used. Regularization errors, archi-forms, and alternating forms are the three types of misformation.

i. Regularization Errors

Regularization errors are misformations in which a regular marker is substituted for an irregular one, as in run for run or goose for goose.

ii. Archi-forms

It is the selection of one form from a class to represent the others in the class. Learners, for example, may temporarily select only one member of the class of personal pronouns to function for several others in the class. As in the phrase "Give me that." I'm thirsty.

iii. Alternating Forms

The use of archi-forms often gives way to the apparent fairly free alternation of various members of a class with each other as the learner's vocabulary and grammar grow. He would have seen them, for example.

d. Misordering

Misordering errors occur when a morpheme or group of morphemes is incorrectly placed in an utterance. For example, she is constantly late. (This happens all the time.)

3. Comparative Taxonomy

The classification of errors based on comparisons between the structure of second language errors and certain other types of constructions is known as comparative taxonomy. In comparative taxonomy, there are four types of errors: developmental, interlingual, ambiguous, and other.

a. Development Errors

Development errors occur when students learn a target language as their first language. A dog, for example, eats it. The absence of the article and the use of the past tense marker may be considered developmental because they are also found in the speech of students learning English as a second language.

b. Interlingual Errors

Interlingual errors resemble a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner's native language in structure. A Spanish speaker's phrase, for example, the man is skinny, reflects the word order of Spanish adjectival phrases (e.g., el hombre fraco).

c. Ambiguous Errors

Ambiguous errors, like development or interlingual errors, could be classified similarly. This is because these errors reflect the learner's native language structure while also being found in the speech of children learning their first language. For example, the negative construction in the utterance I don't have a car reflects the native learner's native Spanish and is also typical of the speech of children learning English as their first language.

d. Other Errors

Other errors are made by the student's native language when he or she is not using his or her native language structure or second language developmental form. An error would fall into the second category. She is, for example, hungry.

4. Communicative Effect Taxonomy

The taxonomy of communicative effects focuses on distinguishing between

errors that appear to cause miscommunication and those that do not. While errors that affect the overall organization of the sentence (global errors) impede successful communication, those that affect a single element of the sentence usually do not (local errors). Brown's claim that global errors impede communication is correct; they prevent the hearer from comprehending some aspect of the message. Then, because there is only a minor violation of one segment of a sentence, local errors do not prevent the message from being heard, allowing the hearer or reader to make an accurate guess about the intended meaning. (Brown, 1982:147).

e. Procedure of Error Analysis

Errors are the bad language to avoid when learning a language. Investigating how learners acquire a second language through production is one method. As a result, error analysis is used to analyze learner language and investigate how learners acquire the language. Learner errors, according to Corder (1981:51), are significant in three ways: For starters, they serve a pedagogical purpose by displaying to teachers what students have learned and what they have yet to master. Second, they help researchers by providing data on how languages are learned. Finally, they serve a learning function by acting as tools for learners to discover the rules of the target language (i.e., by obtaining feedback on their errors). Corder (1981:46-60) divides the stapes into five types.

1. Collecting learner language samples
2. Error identification
3. The error description
4. Error Explanation

5. Error analysis

The first step is to gather a sample of the learner's native language. Its purpose is to provide students with data obtained by administering and collecting a test containing time and place prepositions. An cheval privategültig cheval actualgültig cheval privategültig cheval stuffgültig cheval actualgültig cheval avoidgültig cheval avoidgültig cheval private cheval cheval The process of identifying errors in students is based on the tested area.

The third step is to describe the errors. It entails describing or specifying how students make mistakes. The fourth component is an explanation of errors. This step attempts to explain why students made mistakes. It entails tracing their origins in order to explain why they were created. This is the most important stage in the analysis of errors, according to second language acquisition research.

The final step is error evaluation, which involves evaluating student errors. The analysis of learner errors as a supplementary product for applying the results of an error analysis is known as error evaluation. It entails determining the gravity of various errors in order to determine which ones should be instructed on.

B. Review on Preposition

a. Definition of Preposition

Thomson and Martinet (1986:91) define prepositions as words that are normally placed before nouns or pronouns. A preposition indicates that a noun or a pronoun will follow it. Meanwhile, according to Crystal (1995:232), prepositions are a type of word that indicates relationships between nouns,

pronouns, and other words in a sentence.

According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:143), a preposition expresses a relationship between two entities, one of which is represented by the presentational complement. Furthermore, according to Frank (1972:163), a preposition indicates that a noun or a noun structure follows it; the preposition + noun combination forms a prepositional phrase. Prepositions are words that demonstrate a relationship between a noun, a pronoun, and other words in a sentence.

b. Types of Preposition

A highly detailed explanation of all prepositions would be useless in a grammar text because such an explanation would have to include many items that belong more properly in the language's vocabulary than in the language's grammar. As a result, the following list will only include the more common meanings of prepositions. Many of these meanings are similar to the adverbial meanings discussed in the chapter on adverbs. Some meanings, however, are only shared by prepositions. According to Lingga (1987:104), the preposition expresses three types of relationships.

1. Preposition of place or position

It is the type of preposition used to express the relationship of place to about, above, across, among, under, beside, between, by, near, from, on, at, in, to, through, towards, and so on. *For example, the book is on the table. We are in the classroom. Ana sat beside her brother during the class.*

2. Preposition of Direction

It is the type of preposition used to show the relationship of direction movement with regard to a point, to-from, toward, around, through, to-from, and so on. An example: *The butterfly flies through the door. I always go to home from his school. The girls being happy toward the announcement. They found the bag around the pond.*

3. Preposition of Time

It is a type of preposition that is used to indicate the current relationship. At, after, before, since, from, during, until, with, pending, and so on. *You can eat at ten o'clock. I like to drink a cup of tea in the morning. I want to go with you during the week.*

4. Preposition of Manner

It is the type of preposition used to indicate a manner relationship. For example: *Maria goes to the market by bus.*

c. Function of Preposition

A preposition connects a noun or a pronoun to another word in a sentence, usually a noun, verb, or adjective (Frank, 1972:171). It can also be followed by a verb, but the verb must be in the gerund form, except after *but* and *except*. A preposition is a connective word that shows a relationship between the noun that comes after it and the sentence's basic elements: subject, verb, object, or complement. Prepositions also indicate relationships between their objects and sentence parts such as place, direction, time, date, manner, agent, travel movement, reference, possession, separation, and condition. Furthermore, prepositions can express time, place, direction, and possession. A preposition

connects words, clauses, and sentences and shows their relationship.

C. Review on Article

a. Definition of Article

An article is a type of grammar. Leacock and colleagues (2010, p. 48), Because they are among the most common targets for automatic error detection, articles are ideal targets. the most common English learner error Typically, research focuses on the use of The zero-article, as well as the indefinite and definite articles There are in English There are three articles: a, an, and the. Furthermore, Azar (1999, p. 112) states that the article A singular generic count noun is used with system a / an. Nonetheless, the is When used with a singular generic count noun (rather than a plural generic count noun), noun (rather than a generic non-count noun).

Fry et al. (1993), on the other hand, state that English articles (a, an) and the) are thought to be the most common words in English. Moreover, According to Master (1982, p. 2), the article is the most frequently used word. in English, and an is the fifth most common word. Berry, in addition (1993) states that the and an appear in nearly 8.5 percent of English text. Based on these statistics, it is clear that English articles are popular. a significant portion of the English language According to Kim and Lakshmana (1987), ESL/EFL students require more time to master the article system than any other group.

b. Application of Article an or an

According to Harmer (1981, p. 45), we use the definite article (the) when we are thinking. that the reader or listener understands what or who we are

discussing, or when there can only be one. When we speak, we do not use the definite article. are discussing people and things in general with plural or uncountable nouns However, just to confuse matters, we do occasionally make broad statements with a singular noun and the definite article The indefinite article (a or an) is used to refer to something. to a specific person or thing when the listener/reader is unsure which one is being explained A member of a group can also be referred to with an or an. in order to refer to the entire group

Eastwood (1982, p. 199) stated that article an or an is used. When dealing with an unidentified specimen. Before a word, the form an is used. starting with a consonant or ending with a consonant sound The shape of an is used before words that begin with a vowel (a, e, I o, u) or words that begin with a mute h or single letters spoken with a vowel sound, such as an MP and an SOS. Furthermore, Eastwood stated that an or an is used:

- a) Before a countable singular noun (i.e. one of which there are more than one). one) when it is mentioned for the first time and does not refer to a specific person or something. Examples: A shelf was erected.
- b) Before a singular countable noun that is used to illustrate a class of thing. A car, for example, must be insured (all cars must be insured).
- c) In the presence of a noun complement. This includes profession names. Example: There had been an earthquake.
- d) In a specific quantity expression. A couple of birds, for example.
- e) With a specific number. A hundred kilometers is an example.
- f) In terms of price, speed, ratio, and so on. For instance, sixty kilometers per hour.

- g) Before singular, countable nouns in exclamation. What a lovely young lady!

c. Absence of a/an

- 1) Prior to plural nouns.
- 2) Prior to uncountable nouns
- 3) Before meal names, unless they are preceded by an adjective. For instance, we have breakfast at eleventh o'clock. He made us a delicious breakfast.

d. Using the article the

According to Alexander (1998, p. 48), the is used when the noun When a named specimen is followed by a name, it is assumed that the hearer knows which person, place, or thing the noun refers to. According to Eastwood, the article was also placed;

- 1) When an object or group of objects is or is thought to be unique.
Example:
 - a) The planet
 - b) The celestial bodies
 - c) The atmosphere
- 2) Prior to a noun that has been made definite by the addition of a phrase or clause. For instance, the location where I met him.
- 3) Before a noun that can only represent one thing due to its location thin For instance, Ann is working in her garden (the garden of this house).
- 4) Only before superlatives. Example: a) This is the only thing in this room.

E. Review on Descriptive Text

a. The Definition of Descriptive Text

One of the text types or genres is descriptive text. According to Anderson (1983:26), a factual description describes a specific person, place, or thing. In other words, this composition goes into great detail about a specific person, place, or thing. It means that descriptive text is text that describes the characteristics of a thing, animal, or person. Its purpose is to describe and reveal a specific thing, person, or location. Furthermore, according to Corder (1990:163), descriptive text is a strategy for presenting a verbal portrait of a person, place, or thing. It can be used to supplement other types of writing or as the primary strategy for developing a picture of "what it looks like." It follows that descriptive text is a type of writing that includes descriptions, characteristics, and definitions of a place, object, or person. Furthermore, Wishon (1980:33) defines descriptive writing as "a type of writing used to describe a story, acts, or events." It will be used to generate a visual imagination of people, places, and events within a time, day, and reason unit. It could also be used to describe more than just people's outward appearance. It could reveal information about their character or personality traits. It means that descriptive text writing is the process of writing text that describes people, places, objects, or things. According to Schdes (1981:19), a descriptive text is one that describes a person, place, or thing and reveals a specific person, place, or thing. The goal of writing is to paint a picture or describe something. According to the preceding statement, descriptive text is a text that describes the characteristics of something, which can be a person, a place, or a thing, in such a way that a

mental image is formed in the reader's mind. Furthermore, students' descriptive text writing ability is the ability of students to correctly produce or compose a descriptive text, as demonstrated by the correct use of generic structure and language features.

b. Generic Structure of Descriptive Text

Anderson (1998:60) defines generic structure as "something that should be contained in the writing genre of text." It differentiates one text from another. The significance of descriptive text's generic structure is identification and description. The generic structure of descriptive text includes the following elements:

1. Identification

Identification is the process of identifying the phenomena that will be described. It indicates who or what is being described. The identification is usually stated in the first paragraph in order to introduce the reader to what will be described in the following paragraph. It can also be a form or a definition.

2. Description

The description function is used to describe parts, qualities, and characteristics. The researcher elaborates on the subject in this section. It's used to help with identification. A description is a series of paragraphs about a subject, each beginning with a topic sentence. The topic sentence foreshadows the details that will be included in the rest of the paragraph.

c. Language Features

Aside from the generic structure, genre includes language features as writing guidelines, which are part of the text's generic structure. It is concerned with grammatical features (Knapp, 1985).

1. Concentrate on specific participants, such as my mother, Anton's dog, and my favorite room.
2. The simple present tense is used. Be and have 'relational processes,' for example: my sister is fantastic; he has a lovely daughter.
3. Use of a descriptive adjective to add information to a noun by describing or modifying it.
4. Use action verbs to describe 'material processes,' such as: it runs fast, it eats grass.
5. Adverbial phrases are used to provide additional information about the subject's characteristics. An adverbial phrase is a phrase with a preposition as the head, followed by another phrase indicating location, time, purpose, and so on.

A. Previous Related Study

There have been studies on error analysis conducted by researchers. Lembayung (2017), for example, wrote a thesis titled "An Error Analysis of Preposition of Place in Students' Descriptive Text Writing at the First Semester of the Eleventh Grade of MTs Yapenbaya Katibung South Lampung in the Academic Year of 2017/2018." According to the findings of the study, there were 120 errors committed by students based on the Surface Strategy

Taxonomy. In each of them, the students made mistakes. They are errors of omission, addition, misformation, and misordering. The proportion (frequency and percentage) of each error type is as follows: 27 items of omission (22.50 percent); 32 items of addition (26.66 percent); 54 items of misformation (45.00 percent); and 7 items of misordering (22.50 percent) (5.83 percent). She discovered that misinformation and errors were the most common.

The second study is by Effendi (2018), who wrote a thesis titled "An Error Analysis on Preposition of Place In, On, and At Used by Eleventh Grade Students at SMPN 3 Batu." According to the findings of her study, many students still struggled with using prepositions and made mistakes. There were 351 errors in short answer tests and 55 errors in sentence making tests. Omission errors accounted for up to two errors, addition errors for thirteen errors, misformation errors for 43 errors, and misordering errors for four errors. Furthermore, the teacher assisted their students in dealing with the error by using jigsaw as a learning model and assigning enrichment tasks in addition to individual explanation.

Saravanan (2014) wrote the International Journal titled "The Use of English Prepositions: An Empirical Study." According to the findings of his study, students had more difficulty using prepositions of place and direction than prepositions of time due to interference from their mother tongue. The findings imply that teachers should pay more attention and provide adequate explanations of the prepositions of place, time, and direction to their students in the classroom. Sumaira Akhtar, Waqas Sohail, and Muhammad Rizwan are the authors of the other international journal (2017). The findings show incorrect use

of prepositions, specifically 'with, in, and of,' as well as unnecessary preposition insertion. It is discovered that errors are caused by L1 interference in L2. Furthermore, the results of the two tests revealed that prepositions (prepositional verbs, prepositional phrases, phrasal verbs, zero prepositions) are extremely difficult for ESL learners. The learners attempt to put prepositions in the same patterns as L1, which leads to errors. There were similarities and differences between the previous studies mentioned above. The similarities between this research and Lembayung's research are that they both analyze errors in writing prepositions and use Surface Strategy Taxonomy to analyze the students' writing; the difference is that the research includes prepositions of place and time, whereas Lembayung's research only included prepositions of place. The similarities between this research and Effendi's research are that both rely on analyzing errors in writing prepositions and use Surface Strategy Taxonomy to analyze the students' writing; the difference is that this research focused on the types and causes of errors made by eleventh grade students. While Effendi's study only looked at preposition errors made by students,