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Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of Letters and English

**The Effects of Responding to Students' Errors and of
Presenting the Semantics of Spatial Prepositions on their
Acquisition**

**The Case of Second Year Students of English at the
University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine.**

**Thesis submitted in fulfilment for the degree of LMD Doctorate in
"Didactique des Langues Etrangères"**

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DEDICATION

To my parents,

To my husband,

To all my family and my friends,

I dedicate this work.

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ABSTRACT

Most teachers of English as a Foreign Language agree that a great number of learners use spatial prepositions inadequately, and despite the different techniques they use in teaching them, most learners still consider learning to use these prepositions one of the most problematic issues. This research investigates if using error correction, presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions or using both techniques in combination would help teachers and students at the Department of Letters and English at the University “Des Frères Mentouri”, Constantine, in teaching and learning this type of prepositions. We set the following hypotheses: if teachers use error correction methods when teaching spatial prepositions, students will use them more appropriately; if teachers present the semantics of spatial prepositions, students will better their performance when using this type of prepositions; and if teachers combine between using both error correction and presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions, students will improve their use of this type of prepositions. Two means of research are used: the first is an experiment dealing with a sample of 119 Second Year students divided into one Control Group and three Experimental Groups. A pre-test was administered to the four groups. The Experimental Groups underwent three teaching instructions. A post-test was given to the four groups; subsequently, an analysis of the results was undertaken. Second, a Students’ Questionnaire was handed in to 132 Second Year students and a Teachers’ Questionnaire was handed in to 17 Grammar teachers about their attitude, beliefs and experience with teaching and learning spatial prepositions. The results have not confirmed the first hypothesis, have partially confirmed the second hypothesis, and have totally confirmed the third hypothesis. Based on the obtained results, and with reference to the literature review, pedagogical implications and recommendations are presented. These pedagogical implications and recommendations concern teaching/learning spatial prepositions, using semantics of spatial prepositions, using context of spatial prepositions, and using error correction of spatial prepositions.

Keywords: prepositions, semantics, spatial prepositions, semantics of spatial prepositions, error correction, acquiring spatial prepositions.

List of Abbreviations

CAT: Contrastive Analysis Theory

CG: Control Group

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL/EFL: English as a Second or Foreign Language

Exp. G1: First Experimental Group

Exp. G2: Second Experimental Group

Exp. G3: Third Experimental Group

ISBI: Image-Schema-Based Instruction

L1: First language

L2/FL: Second/Foreign Language

LM: Landmark

Nº: Number

TR: Trajector

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General Introduction

- 1. Statement of the Problem**
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- 3. Research Questions and Hypotheses**
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1. Statement of the Problem

Prepositions are crucial units of language that express relationships between two or more words. When using prepositions, it is usually accepted that a large number of learners of English as a Foreign Language do not use them adequately. They are generally considered one of the most problematic issues these learners face, and spatial prepositions are one type of prepositions that many of them find difficulty in acquiring, although they have been taught spatial prepositions for at least nine years. This difficulty is due to three major reasons: the differences in using spatial prepositions in the languages – Arabic and French; the multiple uses of each English spatial preposition according to the context where it occurs; and the way of approaching spatial prepositions, and prepositions in general, as grammatical elements that have no meaning by themselves rather than as lexical ones. These reasons do not only affect the process of learning spatial prepositions, but also the teaching method(s) adopted to teach them. Therefore, the solution to the problem of teaching and learning spatial prepositions may lie in the organisation of the meanings and uses of spatial prepositions for presentation and practice.

The main type of activities generally used when teaching spatial prepositions is the Fill-in-the-Gaps type. Though this type is easy to be completed by students and to be corrected by teachers, it cannot help in providing the context needed in teaching spatial prepositions; the presentation of the appropriate context is necessary in understanding and practising the different uses of spatial prepositions. Because text writing (paragraphs and/or essays) is one of the most effective ways to use grammatical elements in context (Thornbury, 1999), we believe that the spatial descriptive paragraph would be very useful in providing the context required to explain and use the different meanings and uses of spatial prepositions.

Students' errors are an expected outcome when using spatial prepositions. The errors made and repeated over an extended period of learning spatial prepositions (at least 9 years) indicate that learners may not be aware of their erroneous use. This situation may result from the way and the frequency students were alerted when making these errors because the aim of appropriate error correction is to make the students more aware of their errors in order to help them become successful independent writers (Frodesen, 1991).

2. Aims of the Study

The present study aims at checking the possible influence of correcting the errors these students made in their written productions on the appropriate use of spatial prepositions by Second Year students of English at the University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine. It also aims at investigating the effects of presenting the semantics and uses of spatial prepositions on the acquisition of this type of prepositions. In addition, we aim at examining the effectiveness of the combination of both methods to help students acquire using spatial prepositions.

The ultimate aim of this study is to help teachers and learners ease the difficulty of teaching and learning spatial prepositions. Moreover, this research seeks to help the teachers present spatial prepositions in an organised way and deal with the errors related to their use more effectively, and to enable the students to understand the meaning of spatial prepositions and use them spontaneously correctly.

3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on what has been said and in order to achieve the aims of the research, we pose the following questions:

1. To what extent using error correction would help students use spatial prepositions more appropriately?

2. What would the effects of presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions be on the acquisition of this type of prepositions?
3. To what extent the combination between presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions and error correction would help students acquire the use of this type of prepositions?

To answer our research questions, we set the following hypotheses:

1. If teachers use error correction methods when they teach spatial prepositions, students will use them more appropriately.
2. If teachers present the semantics of spatial prepositions when they teach them, students will better their performance of using this type of prepositions.
3. If teachers combine both methods – presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions and error correction – when they teach spatial prepositions, students will improve their use of this type of prepositions.

4. Means of Research

To verify the validity of the research hypotheses, we adopt two means of research, an experiment and a questionnaire. Both tools of research are used during the second semester of the academic year 2012-2013.

The experiment is carried out with 119 Second Year students of English at the University “Des Frères Mentouri”, Constantine. It is carried out to test the students’ performance when using spatial prepositions before and after the treatments. The sample of the experiment is divided into four groups, one control group and three experimental groups. The control group receives no treatment and each of the three experimental groups receives a different instruction; the first experimental group receives the error correction treatment, the second experimental group receives the explanation of the semantics of spatial prepositions treatment, and the third experimental group is taught using the combination of

error correction and explanation of the semantics of spatial prepositions simultaneously. Both the pre-test and the post-test are common to the four groups. The pre-test and the post-test have the same form where the students are asked to describe two pictures in two paragraphs in each test so that they can use as many prepositions of place and of movement as possible. The analysis of the results is based on the number and type of errors when using each of the spatial prepositions.

Moreover, the questionnaire is divided into two types, a Students' Questionnaire and a Teachers' Questionnaire. The Students' Questionnaire is administered to 132 Second Year students of English at the University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine, while the Teachers' Questionnaire is administered to 17 teachers of Grammar at the same university. The aim of both questionnaires is to gather more information concerning the teaching/learning of spatial prepositions, the difficulties faced in the teaching/learning process, the methods used and the practice adopted, in addition to collecting data concerning opinions and attitudes towards using error correction and its different forms and categories during the Grammar session.

The two tools of research are important in achieving the aims of the research and investigating the validity of the hypotheses. These two tools are complementary for the information taken in the experiment supports, clarifies and justifies the data collected through the questionnaires.

5. Structure of the Study

The thesis is composed of six chapters. The first three chapters are about the literature survey that settles a theoretical basis for the research. The next three chapters are about the practical part where the analysis and discussion of the data are presented, and pedagogical implications and recommendations are suggested.

In the first chapter, we deal with semantics as a linguistic field. Because the main subject of semantics is meaning, we have approached the notion of meaning from different linguistic points of view, the traditional and the cognitive. In this chapter, definitions, different aspects and characteristics of meanings are explained from the two different linguistic perspectives. In the second chapter, definitions of prepositions as well as the differences between prepositions and other grammatical elements are highlighted. The main focus of this chapter is the presentation of the semantics of the spatial prepositions that are most used by students based on the geometrical and functional characteristics. The relationship between the different meanings of each spatial preposition and the differences between close meanings are stressed. The third chapter is about practising the use of spatial prepositions as part of the teaching/learning process. This chapter focuses on how the descriptive paragraph can best help in practising the different meanings of each spatial preposition. Moreover, different views concerning the effectiveness and ineffectiveness of error correction are presented. We focus on the different forms and types of error correction, in addition to their effects on arousing students' awareness of their errors and on improving their language.

The fourth chapter is devoted to the experimental procedure. It deals with the description of the experiment and the analysis of the results obtained in the pre-test and post-test concerning the use of spatial prepositions. The fifth chapter deals with the analysis of students' and teachers' opinions and attitudes through their respective questionnaires. The analysis focuses on both students' and teachers' opinions in relation to their attitudes, beliefs and experience of teaching/learning spatial prepositions and using error correction in the Grammar class. The sixth chapter is about the pedagogical implications and the recommendations that would contribute to enhancing teaching/learning spatial prepositions in English as a foreign language.

Chapter One

Semantics

Introduction

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Introduction

The basic role of language is to exchange or communicate meaning. When communicating, the intended goal is to transmit a specific idea through using words. It is undeniable that some specific words in a sentence, which have been ordered in a particular grammatical structure, can convey a specific meaning to the receiver. Similarly, there is no doubt that not all words have equal degrees of meaningfulness; however, the separate meanings of words – regardless their degree of meaningfulness – are all essential to the construction of the meaning of the whole sentence. Moreover, the various relationships between meanings of words allow the formation of a great number of sentence meanings. The nature of word and sentence meanings and their sense relations in languages are the concern of *linguistic semantics*.

1.1. Semantics: The Study of Meaning

Semantics deals with meaning from different perspectives and, thus, it is related to but different from Pragmatics. However, its relationship to Grammar is still debatable.

1.1.1. Definition of Semantics

Semantics is defined by Crystal (1997) as the study of the properties of meaning in language in both a systematic and an objective way. Therefore, the scientific methodical study of meaning is the main interest of structural semantics. Geeraerts and Cuyckens (2007) insist that semantics is one of the domains of cognitive linguists whose primary concerns are represented in understanding meanings of language elements and identifying them. Hence, as a field of linguistics, semantics is agreed to be the study of meaning in both Traditional and Cognitive Linguistics. However, linguists have not yet reached an agreement about the essence of meaning. Structural and Cognitive Linguistics have each tried to provide different approach to describe the concept of meaning and how to identify it: the Traditional View of the nature of meaning, and the Cognitive View of the nature of meaning.

1.1.1.1. The Traditional View of the Nature of Meaning

It was the linguist De Saussure (1959) who first suggested that language was a system of signs. He considered the sign as the basic unit of communication (Culler, 1976); that is to say, the sign is the smallest unit of meaning.

For De Saussure (1959: 15), language is “a system of signs in which the only essential thing is the union of meanings and sound-images”. Consequently, for De Saussure (1959), the sign is like a coin whose one side is meaning, and the other is the sound-image. Accordingly, the word composed of the letters C-H-A-I-R or the sounds /tʃ-e-r/ are the sound-image, and the idea of *the piece of furniture that has four legs and people use to sit on* is the meaning related to it. De Saussure (1959) named the sound-image the *signifier*, and the meaning the *signified*; the relationship between the signifier and the signified was labelled *the sign*. The signifier and signified are related to each other by a psychological “associative bound” (Palmer, 1976: 25).

De Saussure (1959) was the first linguist to draw attention to the notion of the arbitrariness of the linguistic sign and its importance (Cruse, 1990); “[De Saussure insists that] a particular combination of signifier and signified is an arbitrary entity. This is a central fact of language and linguistic method” (Culler, 1976: 19). The arbitrary nature of the sign means that if one is provided with the signifier, they cannot predict the signified; similarly, if one is provided with the signified, they are not able to guess what the signifier is. This is due to the absence of any logical relationship between the two. The relationship between the signifier and the signified is a matter of conventions in the speaking community (Cruse, 1990). The arbitrariness of the word CHAIR appears in the fact that when writing *CHAIR* or uttering /tʃer/ to someone who does not have any prior knowledge of the word, they cannot guess the notion of this word from its form. The notions are the same but are differently named in different languages because they are named randomly.

Words in a language are related, De Saussure (1959) suggests, according to two types of relationships; the first are relations of addition – or what De Saussure called *syntagmatic* relations – and relations of substitution – or what he called *paradigmatic* relations (Culler, 1976). This means that the sentence meaning is formed, according to De Saussure (1959), by adding words' meanings in a linear way; for example, 'The +boy +ate+ the + apple'. Moreover, new sentences are formed by replacing one word or more in the sentence by new words of the same category. The previous example may change into the following:

The boy ate the apple.

A girl ate the apple.

A girl drank water.

De Saussure's notions have been very significant in modern linguistics; however, linguists have found many shortcomings in his theory concerning identifying linguistic meaning. The first criticism concerns the notions of signifier and signified. The notions of signifier and signified can be applied only to objects in the real world, but cannot refer to words that do not exist in the real world (Cruse, 1976). Abstract words, like freedom and success, cannot be reflected in any particular signified, which is also the case for imaginary words or words in fairy tales and taken from fantasy like *hobbits* in the trilogy of *The Lord of the Rings* written by Tolkien (1954). Furthermore, we sometimes have more than one signifier related to one signified in real world; which one of them is to choose to fit with that signifier (Crystal, 1997). For instance, there are several kinds and shapes of chairs, which one of them is related to the form *chair* to make up its concept? Can a sofa be included in the concept of *chair* though it is used to sleep on sometimes? The second criticism is the fact that, when forming sentences, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations between words cannot be applied on metaphorical and idiomatic expressions, nor can they be applied to complex sentences.

1.1.1.2. The Cognitive View of the Nature of Meaning

One of the principles of Cognitive Linguistics is that semantics is mainly cognitive in nature, and does not just reflect a correlation between the real world and the language one uses (Verhagen, 2007: 49). Hence, meanings of language elements and identifying them are considered the main concern of Cognitive Linguistics. Identifying meaning in Cognitive Linguistics is composed of many elements which are conceptualisation, image schema and schematicity, construal, and usage-based model.

_ Conceptualisation

Most cognitive linguists see meaning as essentially conceptual in nature. Accordingly, Tyler and Evans (2003) argue that language does not simply refer to the real world but, more importantly, it attempts to represent what is in people's minds through their *conceptual structures*. In other words, when human beings experience and interact with the real world, they build up a structure of concepts about it. This structure of concepts is determined and limited by what they have experienced, how they have experienced it, and how they have perceived it.

According to Langacker (2008), meaning is linked to *Conceptualisation*. This relationship is described as follows:

[Conceptualisation] is understood as subsuming [...] both novel and established conceptions; [...] not just "intellectual" notions, but sensory, motor, and emotive experience as well; [...] apprehension of the physical, linguistic, social, and cultural context; and [...] conceptions that develop and unfold through processing time. (Langacker, 2008: 30)

This definition indicates that people construct meanings after they go through several types of experiences that have resulted from the contact with the different aspects of life and the real world: physical, interactive, cultural and social. These conceptual meanings will be developed and refined consistently according to the experiences people will subsequently

face. Langacker (2008) has pointed out two characteristics of conceptualisation. First, both conceptualisation and meaning are established and expanded after one engages in experiences represented on the physical, linguistic, social and cultural ground. Cognitive linguists have labelled this feature “embodiment and experientialism of meaning” (Rohrer, 2007: 26). Second, conceptualisations – and therefore meanings – are neither static nor final; they are rather changeable, flexible and are subject to development through time. This characteristic refers to the “dynamic nature of conceptualization” (Langacker, 2008: 31).

_ Image-schema and Schematicity

Schematicity is defined as “[the] level of specificity, i.e. the fineness of details with which something is characterized; the notion always pertains [...] to precision of specification along one or more parameters” (Langacker, 1987: 132). To say it differently, schematicity is the relationship between general words (schemas) and more specific word or words related to them. For example, the word *creature* is the schema for the word *human*, which is itself the schema for the word *male*. Therefore, schema is a mental process that is used to organise information according to the level of specificity.

On the other hand, image-schemas are defined by Lakoff (1987: 267-268) as follows:

[R]elatively simple structures that constantly recur in our everyday bodily experience: containers, paths, links, forces, balance, and in various orientations and relations: up-down, front-back, part-whole, center-periphery, etc. These structures [image-schematic together with basic-level] are directly meaningful, first, because they are directly and repeatedly, experienced because of the nature of the body and its mode of functioning in our environment.

Image-schemas, thus, are configurations taken from daily physical experiences that happen continuously, and this is what makes them quite straight forward. These structures are related to space and visions, strength, steadiness and motion, which cause their expressive significance.

According to Johnson (2005), “[i]mage schemas are the recurring patterns of our sensory-motor experience by means of which we can make sense of that experience and reason about it, and that can also be recruited to structure abstract concepts and to carry out inferences about abstract domains of thought” (p. 15). In other words, image-schemas can be defined as the mental representations of repeated physical events and experiences that help a human in understanding those events and experiences and that can be used to understand further abstract entities. Langacker (2008: 33) gives an example about image-schemas of the verb *to enter* in the following figure:

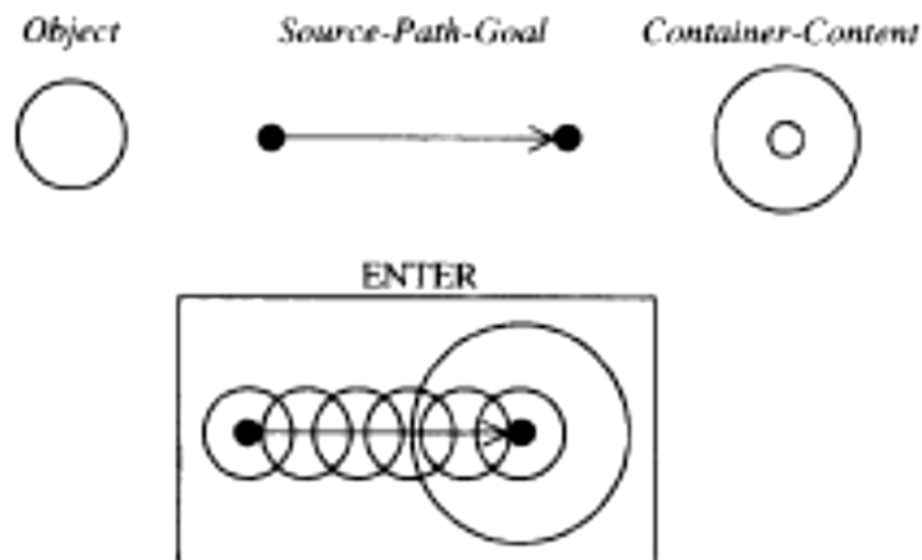


Figure 1.1: Image-schemas of the Verb *to Enter*

In Figure 1.1, one can notice that the nature of the mental experience for the verb *to enter* is reflected more directly in such image-schemas.

When comparing schema and image-schema, it is worth mentioning that the former is a more general sense, whereas the latter is a more restricted one. According to Oakley (2007), schema is a fixed concept in terms of the relationship between a superordinate concept and one or more specific concepts or *elaborations*, whereas image-schema is a more flexible pattern in the sense that “[image-schemas] have topological characteristics, in so far as they constitute space sectioned into areas without specifying actual magnitude, shape, or

material” (p. 217). Image-schemas are flexible because they are general mental images that have been taken out from several individual experiences without any specific reference to any particular content or identified experience. Nonetheless, both schema and image-schema share the notion of a relationship between one superordinate concept and many specific concepts (Tuggy, 2007). Schema and image-schema are equally related to human experiences with the real world and, therefore, they are in the same way important in constructing linguistic meaning.

_ Construal

The meaning that any expression can be given will not merely be a description of a situation; it will rather be the way in which an individual views that particular situation as important in constructing a specific meaning. In Cognitive Linguistics, this particular way in which a specific conceptual content is constructed is called *construal*.

According to Verhagen (2007: 48-49), the term construal is defined as “a feature of the meaning of all linguistic expressions, if only as a consequence of the fact that languages provide various ways for categorizing situations, their participants and features, and the relations between them”. This definition asserts that the way an individual classifies situations, participants involved in those situations, and their characteristics drives him to perceive and to express an identified conceptual content in different ways.

Langacker (2008) provides another definition for the term *construal*; he states that construal can be seen as “our manifest ability to conceive and portray the same situations in alternative ways” (p. 43). Consequently, construal is related to how an individual visualises the same situation mentally and exposes it in different ways. To explain this concept, Langacker (2008: 44) gives the following example:

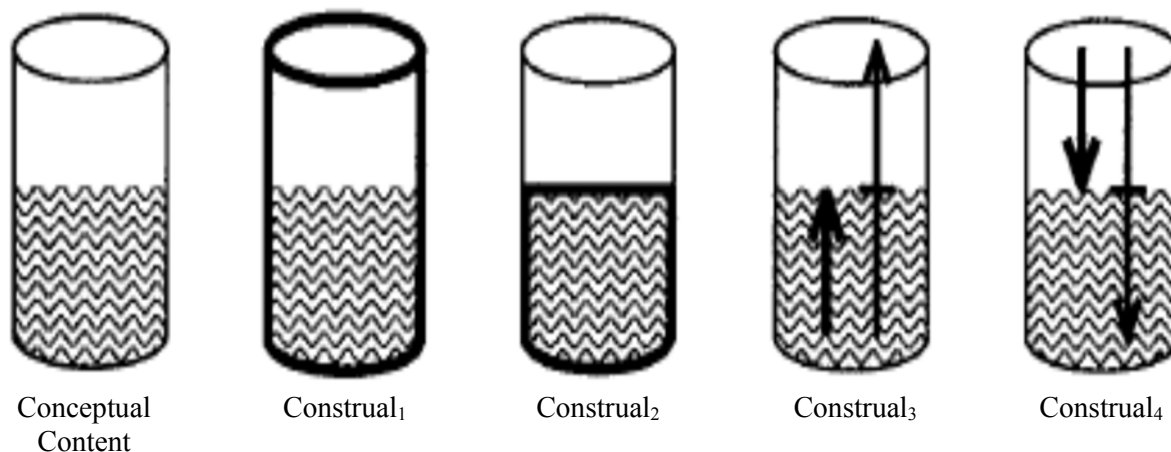


Figure 1.2: Different Ways of Visualising Construal

Figure 1.2 explains that what one can see and how they can express it depends on how closely they examine it; what one chooses to look at, which elements they give more attention to, and where they view it from. These elements can play an important part in describing the same situation in different ways. In the last figure, one can focus attention on the whole glass itself, on what is inside the glass, on the glass as half full, or on the glass as half empty.

Usage-Based Model

One of the tenets of the cognitive view in identifying linguistic meaning is *the usage-based model*. Langacker (2001) points out that the usage-based model claims that “all linguistic units are abstracted from usage events, i.e., actual instances of language use” (p. 144). According to this claim, usage-based model is the generalisation of linguistic meanings from their usage events, which are the real situational uses of language. Therefore, meaning in cognitive linguistics is extracted from a number of actual uses of the language, usage events. Langacker (2008) adds that usage events include all the aspects in relation to expressions such as cultural, social and contextual. Consequently, the abstracted meaning involves the speaker, the listener and the different contexts related to it.

Langacker (2008, 2009) suggests that the process of abstracting meanings from usage events should focus on strengthening the repeated features of meanings in a number of usage events. This means that the features repeated in a satisfactory number of uses should be

reinforced, for they are necessary in identifying the meanings of that linguistic unit; the other features are related to a more specified use. The aim of the usage-based model, according to Langacker (2009), relates phonetic description, meaning and contextual use of the same linguistic unit together. In other words, the abstraction of meanings from their usage events would make form, meaning and contextual usage of the linguistic units connected together in human knowledge.

1.1.2. Semantics or Pragmatics

In the traditional view of meaning, semantics and pragmatics are totally separate and distinct. Traditionally, semantics is defined as “the study of the relationship between linguistic forms and entities in the world; that is, how words literally connect to things” (Yule, 1996: 4). Semantics deals with what the words and sentences would mean by themselves without taking into consideration the speaker or the interpretation provided by the specific contexts in which they are produced. Pragmatics, on the other hand, is identified as “the study of the relationship between linguistic forms and the users of those forms” (Yule, 1996: 4). This means that pragmatics deals with the linguistic form and how it is actually used in certain contexts. According to this view, Griffiths (2006) insists that pragmatics and semantics are totally separated branches of linguistics and distinct disciplines.

However, in the cognitive view of meaning, semantics and pragmatics are not totally distinct. Langacker (2008) argues against the fixed separation between semantics and pragmatics. He states that in addition to the fact that semantics and pragmatics are two disciplines of linguistics, they are related and not totally separated by identified boundaries. In fact, since both disciplines are interested in studying the linguistic meaning, they are related in some way. Evans (2007) argues that because the cognitive view of semantics is based on the conceptual nature of meaning and the usage events, it is not possible to suggest

that semantics and pragmatics are totally unrelated. In Cognitive Linguistics, pragmatics and semantics are different domains but not completely separate because of how meaning is identified under this view. Lakoff (1987) and Langacker (1987) suggest that in studying meaning, there is a continuum made by semantics and pragmatics, and some cases fall into both semantics and pragmatics.

1.1.3. Meaning and Grammar

Words in languages are conventionally categorised into two sets, major – or primary – parts of speech and minor – or secondary – parts of speech. According to Lyons (1968), in the traditional view of meaning, only major parts, which include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, have meanings. This conventional perspective was the basis of classifying words into lexical items, which are meaningful, and grammatical items, which are only functional.

Lexical items are also known as open-class items, while grammatical items are referred to as closed-class items (Cruse, 1990). Allerton (1990) defines open-class elements as words that can be substituted by a large number of alternatives having the same function in the sentence. On the other hand, closed-set elements are words that can only be substituted by a limited number of options or cannot be replaced at all. According to Lyons (1968), the parts of opened-set include a large numbers of elements, while the parts of closed-set consist of a limited number of items. Therefore, traditional linguists think that grammatical elements or closed-set elements do not have significant meaning; they rather function merely as relating meanings that are carried by lexical items. Furthermore, Trask (1999: 42) explains that “grammar and meaning are two entirely distinct aspects of language”.

In opposition to this opinion stands the cognitive view of meaning. Langacker (2003) explains that “grammar is not distinct from semantics, but rather incorporates semantics as one of its two poles” (p. 41). In other words, all linguistic forms, according to Langacker

(2003) – from single morphemes to words, phrases, idioms, clauses and sentences – contribute to and express meaning. However, Langacker (2008: 23) emphasises the idea that though all words, whether lexical or grammatical, are all similarly viewed as meaningful, their meanings are presented in significantly different degrees.

1.2. Sense Relations

Meanings in language do not stand alone; they are rather related to each other in different ways. These relations are based on the notions of lexeme and lexical field, and they can be either paradigmatic, syntagmatic or polysemous.

1.2.1. Definition of Lexeme and Lexical Field

Most linguists agree on the identification of the *lexeme* as the basic unit of meaning in semantics (Crystal, 1997: 104). The term *word* does not have the same reference as the term *lexeme* because forms like *eat*, *eats*, *eating* are all considered to be three different words; in semantics, however, the three forms are said to refer to variants of the same unit of meaning – or lexeme – *eat*. Another reason is found in the fact of considering idiomatic expressions, like *to pass away*, as composed of two words; nevertheless, the same expression would be seen as one lexeme in semantics because it is one piece of meaning, which is *to die*. When language is used, units of meaning do not occur separately. They are rather used in relation with one another and with other elements of meaning. The relationship of meanings represented in lexemes in language is known as *sense* (Cruse, 1990: 80). These relationships have different degrees of strength or co-occurrence in the same contexts; for instance, the lexemes *dog* and *cat* have a stronger degree of relationship in language than the lexemes *dog* and *fish* – as in *to fight like cat and dog*.

Lexical field, or semantic work, refers to how lexemes are organised in groups according to their meanings (Cruse, 1990). The lexemes that have relations with others can all together form a semantic structure of the words categorising them in different groups or

fields. For example, the lexeme *cat* can be incompatible with *dog*, *horse*, *camel*, or *mouse*; it has *Siamese*, *Balinese*, *Burmese* which are names of its breed – as hyponyms – and *whiskers*, *paw*, *fur*, and *tail*, which are names of its body parts – as meronyms – and it is itself a hyponym of *mammal*, *animal*, and *a living thing*. The lexeme *cat* can also be used with the words *chase*, *purr*, and *mew*. All these words are included to form the lexical field of the lexeme *cat*.

Lexical fields of a lexeme are different from one language to another. Crystal (1997) uses the colour lexical field to explain that the lexical fields of languages are different because they are related to the way communities approach the real world. In his example, Crystal (1997) explains that the number of colours and the names given to them are not the same in all the languages. For example, Latin languages have no generic term for *green* or *brown*, while English (a Germanic language) has; Japanese has only one term for *blue*, *green* and *pale*. Thus, languages' lexical fields reflect the differences among societies and communities and how they divide the real world.

Traditionally, linguists seem to agree that there are two types of relationships that exist between lexemes to create a lexical field. These relationships are known as paradigmatic relations and syntagmatic relations. However, Cognitive linguists have included polysemy as another relationship between meanings that can be added to form the lexical field.

1.2.2. Paradigmatic Relations

Paradigmatic relations are those “meaning relationships which hold between words which can be chosen at a particular structure point in a sentence” (Cruse, 1990: 83). This means that paradigmatic relations are relationships that take place between two lexemes that can occupy exactly the same position in a particular grammatical structure. This kind of relations includes the following sense relationships: synonymy, relations of exclusion and

inclusion (hyponymy, meronymy, and incompatibility), and relations of oppositeness (antonymy).

1.2.2.1. Synonymy

Crystal (1997: 105) identifies synonymy as “the relationship of “sameness” of meaning”. This means that two lexemes are said to be synonymous if they have the same meaning; for example, *kingly* and *royal*. Cruse (1990: 84) further suggests that two lexemes can be perfectly synonymous only when they can be used interchangeably in all the possible contexts without having any slight effect on the degree of the acceptability of the semantic meaning. In other words, exact synonyms must have exactly the same meaning in all the possible usages in language so that either lexeme can be used without any minor effect on the overall meaning of the sentence.

Following the criterion of synonymy as stated in the definition of Crystal (1997), it is difficult to find some, if any, absolutely perfect synonyms in natural languages. Crystal (1997) explains that there are rare exact synonymous items because there are regional, stylistic, emotional discrepancies, as well as other differences that could influence words that seemingly have the same meaning. Therefore, synonymy is a matter of degree of meaning depending on how many contexts the items may occur in, and to what extent lexemes can replace each other without any minor change in meaning. For example, the terms *fairness*, *equality* and *justice* are sometimes used interchangeably in more than one context; however, in some other contexts this substitution is impossible because of the small differences in these meanings of lexemes.

1.2.2.2. Relations of Exclusion and Inclusion: Hyponymy, Meronymy and Incompatibility

Paradigmatic relations consist also of relations of exclusion and inclusion. These relations are hyponymy, meronymy and incompatibility.

Hyponymy is a relation of *inclusion*. According to Cruse (1990), it is a relationship based on classifying meanings as large categories that entail smaller ones. For example, *plant*, *flower*, and *rose* have hyponymic relationships. If an item refers to *a rose*, it necessarily refers to a *flower*, and it is consequently a *plant*. However, if an item refers to *a plant*, it will neither be inevitably *a flower*, nor will it mean *a rose*. Hyponymy is, therefore, a relationship between the general meaning on the one hand and, on the other hand, the more specific meanings related to it. According to Cruse (1990), the more general word is referred to as a superordinate, whereas the more specific word is known as a hyponym. In the last example, the term *plant* is the superordinate term of the meaning *flower*, which is in turn the superordinate term of the meaning *rose*. The term *rose* is the hyponym of the term *flower*, which is in turn the hyponym of the term *plant*. Lyons (1968) insists on the idea that the relationship is not between classes in the world, but it is rather between meanings of the words themselves. Crystal (1997) sheds light on the fact that languages differ in their superordinate terms as well as in the hyponyms that they accept under them; he gives the example of the term *potato*, which is a hyponym of the term *vegetables* in English while *kartoffel* (*potato* in English) is not included in *gemüse* (*vegetables* or *greens* in English) in German. The reason behind these differences could be explained by the fact that languages do not provide a categorisation of the world in the same way because speaking communities of those languages have different perceptions of the world.

Meronymy represents a relationship between the names of things and the names of their parts (Cruse, 1990). This relationship is what exists between words like *body* and *arm*, *hand* and *finger*, *finger* and *nail*. As the definition suggests, this relationship does not refer to the type of connection between what is seen as whole and its part in the real world, but it rather refers to the relationship between the meanings of the words in language. The term

that refers to what is seen as the whole is *holonym* and the term that refers to what is considered as the part is *meronym*.

Incompatibility denotes, according to Cruse (1990: 86), “mutually exclusive categories [of items]”. To understand the notion of incompatibility, one should consider the following example: the terms *horse* and *dog* refer both to animals; if a creature is a *horse*, that creature cannot be a *dog* and vice versa. The relationship between the words *horse* and *dog* is said to be exclusive because a creature cannot be both, and the presence of one in a specific situation excludes the presence of the other in that same situation; the two words are, therefore, incompatible. Crystal (1997: 105) states that incompatible items are “mutually exclusive members of the same superordinate categories”. All the hyponyms of the same large category are incompatible between each other, for instance, the types of flowers, kinds of animals, varieties of colours. We cannot think of one flower and that flower being *a rose* and *a tulip*, one animal and that animal being *a lion* and *a zebra*, or one colour and that colour being *red* and *yellow* at the same time.

Both hyponymy and meronymy are relations of inclusion. However, these relations are quite different. On the one hand, hyponymy is a relationship between categories and their sub-categories; on the other hand, meronymy is a relationship between wholes and their parts. *A dog* is a kind of animal, but not a part of *an animal*; nevertheless, *a finger* is a part of *a hand*, not a kind of hand.

1.2.2.3. Relations of Oppositeness: Antonymy

Antonymy is a word that is used to refer to all the types of relationships of oppositeness to be presented (Palmer, 1976; Crystal, 1997), but it is also used sometimes in a specific meaning (Lyons, 1968; Cruse, 1990). The relationship presented by antonymy is a relation of oppositeness, and the opposite words are called antonyms. Antonymy consists of three types; gradable antonymy, non-gradable antonymy, and converse (Crystal, 1997).

Gradable antonymy, which is also known simply as antonymy (Lyons, 1968; Cruse, 1990), is what exists between items like *big* and *small*, *short* and *long* (Lyons, 1968: 63). Such words are opposite in the sense that they both represent two sides of a quality, a characteristic or meaning in general. Additionally, Crystal (1997) states that one can modify the lexemes having this relationship using modifiers (or intensifiers) like *very*, *quite*, *extremely*, *slightly*, and so on. This simply means that these items accept grades (levels) and order that can be explicitly shown using such expressions of degree. Consequently, there is a scale of meaning between the two extremes, at which the words stand, of the gradable antonyms. For example, a house can be *very big*, *big*, *small* or *very small*. For this reason, it is possible to make a comparison of two things in the scale of gradable antonyms, and to use the superlative forms. For instance, a factory is *bigger than* a house, which is *bigger than* a garage; hence, the factory is *the biggest* building. Cruse (1990) further explains that gradable antonyms are those items that describe values in reference to the average or the expected values. For example, the term *big* in *big insect*, *big hand* or *big house* does not describe the same value, but each of the items *insect*, *hand*, and *house* is *big* in reference to the average size or the size expected that is specific to each of these categories of items.

Lexemes like *male* and *female*, *single* and *married*, *dead* and *alive* can neither be modified by expressions of degree, nor can they be compared in natural use of language. This category of opposite relationships under which these pairs fall is called non-gradable antonyms, also labelled complementary antonyms (Lyons, 1968; Cruse, 1990). According to Cruse (1990), complementary antonyms are defined as “a pair [...] of conceptual area exhaustively divided into two components in such a way that anything that does not fall under one of the terms must [...] fall under the other term” (p. 85). In other words, the world is mentally and logically divided into the two lexemes represented by the antonyms; when a word is not one of the non-gradable antonyms, it is necessarily the other. For example, if

someone is not *alive*, he must be *dead*. Non-gradable antonyms differ from gradable antonyms in two distinct ways (Cruse, 1990). First, non-gradable antonyms cannot be compared in natural use of language; as an example, it is unacceptable in normal cases – in real life situations – to say that someone is *deader* than the other is. Second, with non-gradable antonyms, denying one term asserts the other and vice versa, which is not the case in gradable antonyms; for instance, when saying ‘*I am not dead*’ means that ‘*I am certainly alive*’. However, when a house is *not big*, it does not mean that it is necessarily *small*. In some special cases, the person can be *unmarried* and *not single* at the same time; however, they will be either *engaged*, *divorced*, *widow* or *living with a partner*. A human also can be neither alive nor dead, but in the coma out of consciousness.

Converse relationship, also named relational opposites (Palmer, 1976), is another sense relationship that expresses oppositeness. Converse terms are “two-way contrasts that are independent, such as buy/sell, parent/child; one member presupposes the other” (Crystal, 1997: 105). In the pair *sell/buy*, if Sam *sold* a car to John, then it takes as a fact that John *bought* a car from Sam. In the pair *precede/follow*, if Sam *preceded* John, it guarantees that John *followed* Sam. It can be said, therefore, that converse opposites express exactly the same situation but with a slight difference in stressing different doers. Palmer (1976) suggests that pairs such as *come/go* are included in this category; these pairs are named by Cruse (1990) reverses. This kind of pairs indicates oppositeness at a spatial level of the situation. The term *come* implies a movement in the direction of the speaker, whereas the term *go* implies a movement in the opposite direction from – or away from – the speaker. Another example is the word *increase* that implies movement upwards, while the word *decrease* implies movement downwards. Converse relationship can also be expressed through the comparative form of the gradable antonyms (Cruse, 1990). For instance, the sentence *the sofa is bigger than that table*, on the one hand, and the sentence *that table is*

smaller than the sofa, on the other hand, describe exactly the same situation using the gradable antonyms *big* and *small*. This situation expresses converse relationship because one sentence implies the other, which has the same meaning.

1.2.3. Syntagmatic Sense Relations

Syntagmatic sense relations refer to linear relations between meanings. They include collocation and idioms

1.2.3.1. Definition of Syntagmatic Sense Relations

Syntagmatic relationships are defined by Cruse (2006: 164) as “relations that hold between items in the same grammatical structure”. This means that in sentences which are related according to correct grammatical structures, the linear relationship between items is the factor that determines the meaning and the appropriateness of the sentence. When considering the following sentences, which have the same grammatical structures, *John ate dinner* and *dinner ate John*, one could notice that both sentences have a similar grammatical structure that consists of ‘subject + verb + object’. Nevertheless, the second sentence is inappropriately used because the verb *to eat* requires semantically a doer that performs this action, a human or an animal but not a thing. Therefore, the verb *to eat* is more appropriately to be performed by *John* than by *dinner*.

According to Cruse (1990: 87), there are two types of abnormality in semantic linear sense relationships; the first type is “semantic clash”, whereas the second is “semantic redundancy”. Semantic clash refers to what relates words that cannot occur simultaneously next to each other in the same context, like *a handsome dog* and *radiant scowl*. These words can include the relationship between contradictions. Conversely, semantic redundancy refers to what implies clear repetition of meaning, like *dental toothache* because it is clear that all that is related to tooth is dental. Another example can be found in *female daughter* since *daughter* implies *a female child*.

1.2.3.2. Categories of Syntagmatic Sense Relations: Collocation and Idioms

Palmer (1976: 94) explains collocations as the tendency of lexemes to work together. For instance, in the sentence ‘*it was very auspicious ...*’, the words that can be predictable are words such as *event*, *occasion*, and so on. Crystal (1997: 105) states that there exist degrees in predicting the probable collections of lexemes. In other words, some words are predictable to collocate with each other like *hear* and *sound*. Others are less predictable; however, they can occur together like *have* and *get*. Cruse (2006) suggests that there is another type of collocations, in addition to the previous one, that is named “compositional collocation” (p. 27). Compositional collocations refer, according to Cruse (2006), to the use of words with different collocates to have different meanings from the original one. This means that one can compose – construct – a different meaning to the same word each time they combine it with a different collocate. Palmer (1976) has given the example of the word *chair* to clarify this type of collocations. *A chair* can mean a piece of furniture in ‘*to sit on the chair*’, it can also mean *president* in ‘*the chair of the meeting*’, the word *chair* may refer to a position as in ‘*university chair*’, and it can mean death sentence or punishment in the electric chair in ‘*sent to the chair*’. Accordingly, collocations are those sequences of words that have a semantic unity; nonetheless, their meanings can be understood by understanding the possible meanings of words composing them.

Idioms are considered a special type of collocations (Palmer, 1976). They are characterised by the fact that their meanings cannot always be recognised simply from knowing the meaning of individual elements that constitute them. For example, the expression *first lady* refers to a woman whose husband is the political leader of a country; the meanings of the separate words, *first* and *lady*, hold no reference to the meaning of the combination *first lady*. The expression *to open doors for somebody*, which means ‘to provide somebody with opportunities to do something and be successful’, does not hold a meaning

that stems from the combination of the meanings of the words that constitute the idiom. Cruse (2006) gives another characteristic feature of idioms. He suggests that idioms cannot always be changed by pluralising or by adding modifiers, adjectives or adverbs. For example, to say that one considered something when they were making a decision or planning something, we can use the expression ‘*to make allowance(s) for something*’; in such a case, using the word *allowance* in the singular or plural will not affect the meaning of the idiom. However, the same word would be exclusively used in the plural in ‘*to make allowances for somebody*’ to mean ‘to allow somebody to behave in a way that one would not usually accept’. Similarly, adding the adjectives *great* or *firm* to the expression ‘*to be a believer in something*’, meaning ‘strongly believe that something is good, important or valuable’, will in no way affect its meaning. Yet, adding the adjectives *small/big* or *far/close* to the idiomatic expression ‘*walls have ears*’ is impossible and would affect the intended meaning.

1.2.4. Polysemy and Prototypical Meaning

Polysemy is a relation that holds between meanings of the same item. These meanings are all related, in one way or another, to one prototypical meaning.

1.2.4.1. Polysemy Approach: Polysemy, Homonymy and Monosemy

Some linguists (Palmer, 1976; Cruse, 1990; Crystal, 1997) suggest that when a word has more than one meaning, it represents either polysemy or homonymy. Polysemy is “a word which has more than one distinct, established sense [...]. To be considered as belonging to the same word, multiple senses must be felt by native speakers to be related in some way” (Cruse, 2006: 130). In other words, polysemous words are those words that have different connected meanings represented in one single form. For example, the word *dissertation* would mean ‘*the collection of the papers*’ or ‘*the knowledge presented in those papers*’; both meanings are connected in some way. The meanings of the same polysemous

words are said to be related. Palmer (1976) explains one kind of this relationship – which is the contrast between their literal use of words, on one side, and their metaphorical use, on the other. For example, the word *leg* can be found in expression such as *human leg* and *chair leg*; although the chair does not have a leg that is made of flesh like the human leg, both kinds of legs have the function of carrying the whole body of a specific thing. Homonymy, however, is the reference to the situation where “unrelated meanings are signalled by the same linguistic form” (Cruse, 2006: 80). Homonymy is the case where two completely different and unrelated meanings have arbitrarily the same form as a matter of coincidence. For instance, the word *bank* has exactly the same spelling whether the reference is to ‘*an organisation where people and businesses can invest or borrow money*’, or to ‘*raised land along the sides of a river*’.

While polysemous words are presented under the same entry but are distinguished with numbers, homonyms are shown in dictionaries as separate entries; every possible meaning that is related to one form is considered as a unique entry. Cruse (1990, 2006) argues that these ways of presentation are not based merely on meaning relatedness; they are based on the origin of the words as well. If the meanings that are related to the forms have the same origin, they are said to be polysemous; if, however, the meanings that are related to the forms come from different origins, then they are considered homonyms. According to Cruse (1990), the distinction between polysemous and homonymous words is based on the extent of closeness and relatedness of the meanings of those words; however, the boundaries of this closeness are not always clearly established.

In addition to words that fall under polysemy and homonymy, there are some words that have exactly the same spelling and the same pronunciation but with different uses. Ruhl (1989) explains this phenomenon by what he calls the Monosemy Approach. He argues that these words are related to one specific abstract meaning, whereas the different meanings

taken from it are highly contextual variants of the original meaning. For instance, the meaning of *cousin* is the son or the daughter of the uncle or the aunt; however, the context enables us to know if the reference is to a female relative or male relative, as in the following sentences:

My cousin had wonderful presents for her twentieth birthday.

My cousin's wife is lovely.

Taylor and Evans (2003) criticise this point of view arguing that “some meanings are demonstrably context independent” (p. 6); that is to say, the contextual situation is not the only factor to determine all the possible meanings that are related to a specific form because, sometimes, many of those probable meanings can simply be known without any reference to contexts. In addition to that, it is sometimes extremely difficult to identify the abstract general meaning that all other meanings are derived from, especially when these meanings are not related to each other.

1.2.4.2. Prototype Theory

Cruse (2006) has distinguished between two ways to approach the meanings of words, dictionary meaning against encyclopaedic meaning. According to him, the dictionary meaning includes the semantic characteristic features that are needed to distinguish a thing from other entities in the world; by contrast, encyclopaedic meaning “includes everything that is known about the referent of a word” (Cruse, 2006: 47). In other words, encyclopaedic meaning is more detailed, as it takes into consideration all the possible descriptions, characteristics, and exceptions that can be related to the meaning of a word. The meaning of a word might be similar to an article in an encyclopaedia, whereas, the dictionary meaning contains simply the necessary features that would shed light on the difference between a word and others; the meaning, in this case, might be like a definition in the dictionary. For example, the encyclopaedic meaning of the word *cat* would include physical appearance,

behaviour, the games they prefer to play, the possible illnesses they would get and how to cure them, how to take care of them, the types of cats, and so on. However, the meaning of the word *cat* according to the dictionary view will include *small animal, with fur, tail and claws, and kept at home to catch mice*. Langacker (2008: 39) suggests the following figure to show the difference between encyclopaedic and dictionary meaning:

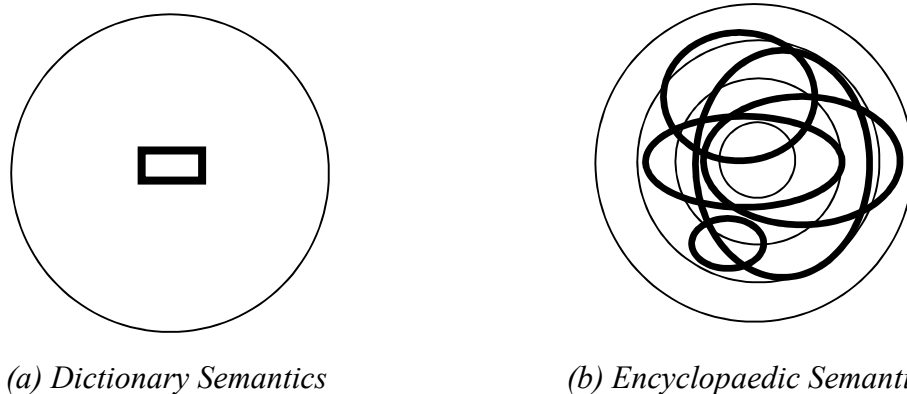


Figure 1.3: Difference between Dictionary and Encyclopaedic Meanings

Figure 1.3 represents the difference between dictionary meaning and encyclopaedic meaning. In Figure 1.3(a), the circle represents the total amount of knowledge users of the language have about the type of the entity in question, and the small box inside refers to the group of features composing the meaning of the lexical item. In Figure 1.3(b), a number of co-central circles representing the idea that knowledge components have “degrees of centrality” (Langacker, 2008: 39) indicate the meaning of the lexical item. This means that certain features in the lexical meaning are so important that they are present in the majority of the usages, others are less present when the word is used, and others are activated only in special contexts.

The bold lines represent the features and the specifications used in every possible context; it is noticeable that each time the item is used, distinctive specifications may be involved to determine the meaning of that item. According to the encyclopaedic view, the lexical meaning is not completely contextual because it depends on some central

characteristics that should be included most of the time to have a certain specific meaning without referring to any context. According to Figure 1.3(b), it appears that the encyclopaedic meaning can give an explanation of the way (or ways) meanings are related in polysemous words. This point of view is supported by Taylor (2008: 49) as he takes into consideration both the different meanings that compose the category of the polysemous words and the most representative meaning of these polysemous words as the prototype. He gives the example of the word *fruit*, which refers to things like *banana* and *apple* in “I ate the fruit”, and to other different things in ‘*the fruit of my efforts*’; yet, both share the meaning of ‘*the positive final result of something*’ (Taylor, 2008: 49).

In Figure 1.3(b) (Langacker, 2008: 39), it can also be noticed that some words have meanings that are more central than others are. These central meanings are called prototypical (Langacker, 2008). The prototype theory is identified by Cruse (2006: 146) as “a concept [that] is centred round a representation of an ideal example, or prototype”. This means that the lexical item in the prototype theory is considered as one category, while the variant meanings are identified as possible elements of this category. In the category, some fundamental characteristic features are more suitable for the ideal example of this category, or what is called *prototype*. Other meanings are said to belong to this category or not, depending on how many features they have in common with the prototype. As a result, meanings belong to the category of a particular word with different degrees (Figure 1.4(a)). It is also possible to have two elements that share some characteristics with the prototype; however, they have very little, if any, closeness with the meaning between them (Figure 1.4(b)).

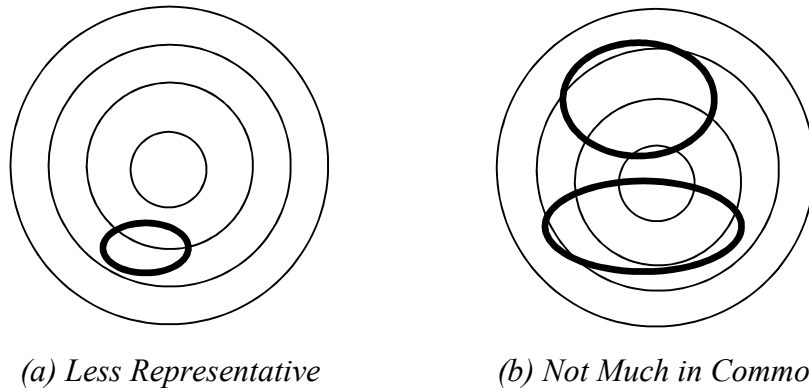


Figure 1.4: Different Prototypical Meanings

Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk (2007: 145) has given four characteristics of both prototypes and prototypical categories. The first feature is that “[p]rototypical categories exhibit degrees of typicality; not every member is equally representative for a category”. This means that elements’ membership to a category is ordered in terms of their representation of the category; some elements are more representative of the category than others are. The category of *fruits*, for example, would have *apples* as more representative for that category than *dates* are. The second feature is that “[p]rototypical categories are blurred at the edges”. Considering central meaning means that it is not always clear where to put the boundaries of a specific concept. For instance, in the concept ‘*old person*’, it is not that clear when we start considering a person old; at which age, 35, 40, 45,50, or more? It is, then, sometimes unclear if elements belong to a certain category of meaning or not. The third characteristic is that prototypical categories “cannot be defined by means of a single set of criteria [...] attributes”. In other words, the category has more central features – according to which it can be comprehensively defined – and specific features whose presence is necessary for the category. Hence, the definition of category is less rigid because it contains combinations of partial descriptions instead of one essential description. For example, the word *game* does not have one single definition, but there are as many definitions as there are games; this is due to the fact that the word ‘*game*’ is a *game* only when it shares a sufficient number of features with all that can be considered a game without necessarily identifying

with any specific one. The last feature is that prototypical categories “exhibit a family resemblance structure [...]”. This characteristic is a result of the third characteristic because, when there is no single strict definition of a category, its appropriate description is the collection of the descriptions of classes included in it, which is called *family resemblance*. None of the elements in the category, however, is satisfactory to be representative of the whole category. The example of the word ‘*game*’ refers to this feature because the description of this word includes shared aspects that pertain to all games; yet, no single game can be – by its own – representative of the whole category of games.

1.2.4.3. Prototype and Schema

Schema and prototype are considered to be related in the sense that both concepts are used in categorising meanings (Langacker, 1993). Taylor (2008) explains that the presence of a prototypical relation does not exclude the presence of a schematic relation. Langacker (2008: 37) gives the following example about the word *ring* that explains both relations.

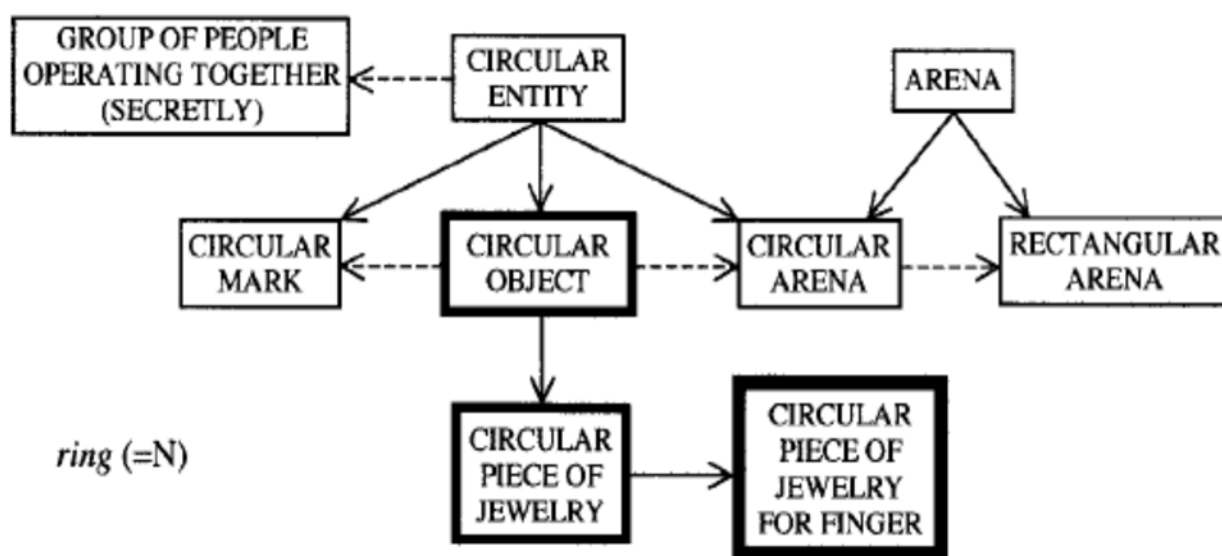


Figure 1.5: Schema and Prototype for the Word *Ring*

Figure 1.5 explains that both schema and prototype can co-occur. Nevertheless, a difference is to be noted. Schema is a vertical relationship between meanings, whereas prototypical relationship is a horizontal one.

Langacker (1987) states that if a schema is an abstract characterisation that is fully compatible with all its instances, a prototype is a typical instance and other elements are assimilated to a category in virtue of some kind of similarity to this prototype (p. 371). In other words, a schema is the abstract entity that has relationships with its subclasses of meanings; on the other hand, a prototype is a specific instance that is related to other elements in one or more features, and they all belong to a large category.

Conclusion

When communicating orally or in writing, the complexity of the meaning underlying any used structure originates from the interaction of different linguistic, cultural, and social factors. These factors do not only determine the diverse meanings expressed in a particular language, but they also account for the various meanings expressed in different languages. In order to understand the essence of meaning, one needs to take into consideration structural notions – like sense relations and lexical field – as well as cognitive notions – such as prototype, polysemy and schematicity. These ways of approaching semantics are complementary despite their difference to understand and identify word and sentence meaning. Additionally, they both assert the complexity of meaning and testify for the huge amount of on-going research in the field of semantics.

Chapter Two

Spatial Prepositions

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Introduction

As a part of speech, prepositions are an essential component of language and communication since they express different meanings and various relationships. Spatial prepositions hold a special significance because they are used to show the position and/or movement of one or more items in relation to another item or other items. The most common spatial prepositions are divided into three categories as follows: spatial prepositions of position (*in, on, at, between, among, behind, in front of, beyond, near/close to, by, next to, and beside*), spatial prepositions of movement (*up, down, into, out of, through, along, to, for, and from*), and spatial prepositions of position and movement (*over, above, under, below, across, opposite to/from, and to/on the right/left of*). These spatial prepositions are considered common because they are the most widely used when one wants to describe a spatial scene. The semantics of these prepositions will be provided in detail, with both the primary meaning and other spatial distinct meanings of each, and a physical description of the scenes wherein they occur.

2.1. Spatial Prepositions: Grammatical or Lexical Words

Prepositions are traditionally seen as one of the eight parts of speech in English which are nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, determiners, conjunction, and prepositions. Parts of speech are divided into open-classes and closed classes according to the number of elements included in each subcategory, and the possibility of adding new elements to it (Talmy, 2000). Nouns, for example, are an open-class category because a large number of words are classified as nouns; in addition, new words are added to language as nouns consistently in relation to the changes in language. Prepositions, however, are included in the closed classes (Talmy, 2000); the reason is the limited number of prepositions in language.

Kroeger (2005) suggests that all words in language are lexical ones; however, he divides this category syntactically, according to the position of the word in the phrase, into major category and minor category. The major category includes words that can function as heads of phrases – nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, since in English, there can be a noun phrase, a verb phrase, an adverbial phrase, and a prepositional phrase – and the minor category includes words that cannot function as heads of phrases – conjunction, interjections, determiners and quantifiers.

The division of parts of speech can also be based on a semantic basis, rather than the number of elements, as content words and structure (function) words. Harley (2008) asserts that content words have most language meanings, whereas function words perform most language grammatical functions. Some linguists (Willis, 2003; Harley, 2008) argue that nouns, verbs, adjectives and most adverbs are considered content (lexical) words; determiners, conjunctions, pronouns and prepositions, on the other hand, are regarded as function words. This division is not totally agreed on among linguists. Cook (2008: 24), for example, thinks that prepositions can possibly be included in content words. This classification of prepositions is based on the idea that some prepositions can have meaning, while others cannot.

Whether based on number, on syntax or on semantics, these categories are not clearly set. Kroeger (2005) states that major categories are open-classes and minor categories are closed-classes excluding prepositions, which are members of a major class and a closed class. Equally, Harley (2008) explains that content (lexical) words are a closed-class, while functional (structure) words are an open-class. It is clear, then, that prepositions have the grammatical function of relating nouns or noun phrases in the sentence. Moreover, it is a fact that the category of prepositions has a small and fixed number of words with new words added very slowly through time. However, according to Langacker (2008), the category of

prepositions is the part of speech linguists could not agree if it is purely lexical or totally grammatical. A number of linguists (Tyler & Evans, 2003; Svorou, 2007; Gass & Selinker, 2008) deal with prepositions as completely lexical words; on the other hand, traditional linguists deal with them as totally grammatical. This categorisation is built on the assumption whether or not prepositions have meanings. Since changing a preposition may change the meaning of the sentence, the following examples show that it is sometimes hard to deny that prepositions have meanings:

We sat *on* the grass.

We sat *in* the grass.

In the first example, one could understand that *the grass* is short; in the second, it could be understood that *the grass* is long. However, in the phrase '*the book of the student*', the preposition *of* gives no meaning about *the book* nor about *the student* but that of reference, and its function is relating both nouns. Hence, it is possible to conclude that prepositions have meanings, but in a gradable way, depending on the preposition itself; this view point is adopted by cognitive linguists, who think that all grammatical elements are meaningful, but their meanings have degrees (Langacker, 2008). Consequently, nouns and verbs are more meaningful than prepositions, and some prepositions are more meaningful than other prepositions.

2.2. Identifying Spatial Prepositions

The identification of a spatial preposition requires knowing the characteristics of its subject and object, differentiating it from other categories of the same forms – particles, adverbs and adjectives – and understanding its polysemous nature.

2.2.1. Subject and Object of Spatial Prepositions

Spatial prepositions are said to relate words in some way. Their function is to locate or direct one object or entity in reference to another object or entity. Langacker (1987, 2003, 2008, and 2009) refers to the entity that is being located or oriented, or subject of the preposition, as the *trajector* (TR), and the entity that is taken as reference, or object of the preposition, as the *landmark* (LM). In the example ‘*The book is on the table*’, *the book* is the trajector that is being located, and *the table* is the landmark, and the relationship between the two entities is profiled through using the preposition *on*. The meaning of the sentence is where *the book* is; therefore, the primary focus of the sentence is *the book* (TR), whereas the secondary focus is *the table* (LM). Herskovits (1985) and Talmy (2003) refer to the focal located object as *figure* and to the referent object as *the ground*. This terminology is based, according to Tyler, Mueller and Ho (2011), on the Gestalt psychology which establishes that we unconsciously “organise our conceptualization of the spatial scenes we encounter in terms of foreground and background” (p. 184). In other words, we create new knowledge based on the previous one that is already known.

Some characteristics suggested by Zlatev (2007: 327) describe the *trajector* as “static [...] dynamic; a person or an object. It can also be a whole event”. In the example *Kim is in the schoolyard*, the TR in this sentence is *Kim* and its place according to the LM is *motionless* or *static*. However, in ‘*Kim went out of school*’, the TR, *Kim*, is moving according to the LM *school*; it is then *dynamic*. In the example ‘*The flowers are in the vase*’, the trajector (*The flowers*) is a thing. Considering the examples ‘*The pencil is next to the book*’ and ‘*The book is next to the pencil*’, the first one seems more appropriate in English. *The pencil* is the TR and *the book* is the LM and the relation between the two is one of closeness expressed by the use of the preposition *next to*. This relationship is the same one presented in the second example between the same two entities; however, the second sentence is considered odd

unlike the first because, in the same scene that contains both *the book* and *the pencil*, the former could be easier to be seen than the latter. Thus, *the book* is more logically the referent object (the LM) instead of *the pencil*. The sentence ‘*Mary is at the gate*’ is more acceptable than ‘*The gate is at Mary*’ though both the TR and the LM would be visible enough in the same scene. The first sentence is more appropriate because in this sentence *Mary* is identified in relation to a fixed thing, which is *the gate*, since *Mary* is more movable and cannot stand as a fixed referent object. What might characterise the TR and the LM is summarised in Table 2.1 from Talmy (2003: 18):

	Figure	Ground
<i>definitional characteristics</i>	has unknown spatial (or temporal) properties to be determined	acts as a reference entity. having known properties that can characterize the figure’s unknowns
<i>associated characteristics</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • more movable • smaller • geometrically simpler (often point-like) in its treatment • more recently on the scene/in awareness • of greater concern/relevance • less immediately perceivable more • salient, once perceived • more dependent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • more permanently located • larger • geometrically more complex in its treatment • more familiar/expected • of lesser concern/relevance • more immediately perceivable • more backgrounded, once Figure is perceived • more independent

Table 2.1: Characteristics of the Trajector and the Landmark

Accordingly, the TR is a conceptual moving object whose location or direction is recognised at a particular situation in reference to another object, and the LM is a static reference in comparison to the TR in a particular situation. The situation described is then the relation between the LM and the TR and the use of prepositions depends, sometimes, on how one perceives these two objects. Svorou (2007) states that the LM “has to undergo a process of idealization and abstraction” (p. 735); this can be explained through the examples

‘*We sat on the grass*’ and ‘*We sat in the grass*’. In the first example, the LM is perceived as a surface because *the grass* was not long while, in the second example, *the grass* is idealised as a container (volume) because *the grass* was long. Nevertheless, the relation between the TR and the LM does not depend exclusively on their nature but, occasionally, it depends on the context wherein they are situated. Herskovits (1985) argues that if the TR is already known while, in the scene, there are more than one object similar to that TR, the latter can be specified in relation to other references even if it is smaller or more movable. She gives the following examples to explain this point (p. 346-7):

Give me the book next to the pencil.

The mountain under the plane just now is Mount Shasta.

Though in the first example, *the pencil* (the LM) is smaller than *the book* (the TR), and in the second example *the plane* is more movable than *the mountain*, both sentences can be accepted because one book among many is specified in the first example, and one mountain among many is specified in the second.

2.2.2. Spatial Prepositions, Particles, Adverbs and Adjectives

The same item can sometimes be a preposition, a particle (a verb-particle), an adverb, or an adjective; “an expression’s word class is determined by the nature of its profile [...]. The relationship [is] profiled by an adjective, an adverb or a preposition [and] is said to be atemporal” (Langacker, 1992; cited in Tyler & Evans, 2003: 61). This means that the same word can express many relationships depending on the nature of the expression; it can be an adjective, an adverb, or a preposition.

In the following examples adopted from O’Dowd (1998: 37), the word *up* is used differently, both syntactically and semantically.

- a. Jack ran *up* the hill: “*up*” is a preposition; it is used to locate *Jack* in relation to *the hill*.

- b. Jack ran *up* the bill: “*up*” is a particle; it is rather attached to the verb *ran* than to the noun phrase *the bill*, and together with the verb, they form an accumulated unit of meaning.
- c. It is time to get *up*: “*up*” is a particle; it is combined with the verb *to get* to form the verb *to get up* meaning *to stand*.
- d. There used to be a place *up* in Toledo: “*up*” is an adverb; it is more related to the prepositional phrase *in Toledo*. It is possible to say *up in Toledo, there used to be a place*. The word *up* is modifying the place, meaning somewhere north.
- e. ... laid off a bank of really high *up* people: “*up*” is an adjective; it is modifying the noun *people* and it means *important*; it is thus an adjective.

Prepositions differ from adverbs and adjectives in having a TR/LM, whereas adjectives and adverbs have only a focal participant (Langacker, 2008). Particles are different from adverbs because the latter is a wider category expressing manner, degree, place or time. An adverb may modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or the whole sentence; a particle is attached to the verb and sometimes it changes its general meaning (for example, *to run up*), adds some meaning (for example, *to get up*), or merely forms a collocation with the verb without any change of the meaning (for example, *to wake up*). O’Dowd (1998) states that a particle is different from a preposition in the sense that the former can change its position in the sentence, while a preposition cannot as in the following examples:

Jeff got his car out of the garage quickly; but not Jeff got out his car of the garage quickly.

They called the fire department to put the fire out; or they called the fire department to put out the fire.

The main differences between a preposition and a particle are listed below (Yule 1998:

157):

Verb + preposition	Verb + particle
Preposition is unstressed	Particle is stressed
Pronoun after preposition	Pronoun before particle
Adverb before preposition	Adverb not before particle
Preposition before <i>wh</i> - form in questions, relative clauses	Particle not before <i>wh</i> - form in questions, relative clauses

The following examples explain the differences between a preposition and a particle:

Verb + preposition	Verb + particle
They walked <i>over</i> the bridge.	They had to think <u>over</u> the project.
They walked <i>over</i> it.	They had to think it <u>over</u> .
They walked happily <i>over</i> the bridge.	They had to think <u>over</u> the project quickly.
<i>Over</i> which bridge did they walk ?	Which project did they have to think <u>over</u> ?

Furthermore, a preposition is different from an adverb because it has a lower degree of meaning than an adverb; its meaning is secondary (Williams 2005: 91).

We will meet *outside* (outdoors).

We will meet *outside* the classroom (out of).

Words can be either prepositions or particles (O'Dowd 1998: 12):

about	along	between	off	through
above	around	by	on	to
across	before	down	out	under
after	behind	in	over	up

2.2.3. Spatial Prepositions as Polysemous Words

Spatial Prepositions are viewed as polysemous words that have prototypical meaning and distinct but related extended meanings.

2.2.3.1. Prototypical Meaning of Spatial Prepositions

As a part of foreign language teaching and learning, spatial prepositions are said to be difficult to acquire because of the various meanings they have. Lakoff (1987) and Langacker (1987) point out that prepositions can be regarded as conceptual categories, and the various meanings related to every category are a group of networks centred around one core meaning. The networks of the other meanings and senses of the same preposition are related to this central meaning; thus, a preposition is a polysemous word, and its meanings are related to a prototypical meaning (Herskovits, 1985; Pütz, 2007; Tyler, 2007).

In a polysemous network, the elements of the category have distinct but related meanings (Tyler & Evans, 2003). Consequently, a spatial preposition is considered a category in Cognitive Linguistics, and the various meanings and uses of that preposition are distinct but linked to one prototypical meaning (ideal meaning) (Herskovits, 1985). Since these meanings are related to one prototypical meaning, they are related to each other in one way or another. Some spatial prepositions, however, have limited use and meanings. Their polysemous network is not that large nor that complicated (Saint-Dizier, 2006), for example, *in the west of* and *in the north of*. In this sense, Tyler and Evans (2003: 39) identify the attempt of overstating the number of distinct senses related to a particular form as “polysemy fallacy”; in other words, adding senses that are too detailed and the differences among which are not that considerable or that are too far in meaning and are barely related to any of the other senses is considered exaggeration that might not help in identifying the polysemous networks of a specific form.

Most of the distinct meanings are built around the prototypical meaning. The latter is the primary sense in the network of polysemous words, in general, and spatial prepositions, in particular. Langacker (1987) uses the following criteria to identify the primary sense in a specific network:

1. historically earliest sense;
2. predominance in the semantic network;
3. use in composite forms;
4. relations to other spatial particles and grammatical predicts;
5. grammatical predictions.

The primary sense is identified in the network of meanings of the word when it fits these conditions. First, it is the first meaning diachronically adopted to the word. For instance, spatial meanings are more appropriate to be primary senses than metaphorical meanings because language starts from the real world. Second, it shares characteristic(s) with most of the other distinct senses in the same network; hence, it has relationship with the large number of the senses included in the category. Third, this meaning is part of the whole meaning in words containing that word, like compound nouns or phrasal verbs. Fourth, the primary sense has a physical relationship with other particles like the meaning of *higher than* in *above* and the meaning of *lower than* in *below*, which are geometrically symmetrical. Finally, the primary meaning should not be contextually predictable and does not need a sentence to get its possible meaning.

Prototypical meaning reflects the functional geometrical descriptions in what Tyler and Evans (2003) call a *proto-scene*. They define a proto-scene as “an idealized mental representation across the recurring spatial scenes associated with a particular spatial scene; hence, it is an abstraction across many similar spatial scenes” (p. 52). In other words, a proto-scene is a functional geometrical representation of reality that describes a prototypical meaning of a spatial preposition in this representation. Entry objects and place are symbolised in forms of lines and points.

The examples ‘*The pencil is in the drawer*’ and ‘*The ring is in the bag*’ have the following proto-scene as suggested by Tyler and Evans (2003: 52):

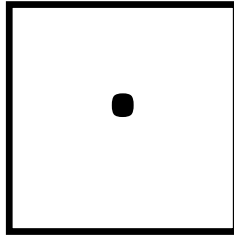


Figure 2.1: Proto-scene for Spatial Scenes involving the Relation “in”

In order to identify distinct senses, Tyler and Evans (2003) suggest two conditions. The first condition is that “a distinct sense must involve non-spatial meaning or a different configuration between the TR and the LM than found in the proto-scene” (p. 43). The second condition consists of the fact that the distinct sense must exist in cases “in which the distinct sense could not be inferred from another sense and the context in which it occurs” (p. 43). This means that the sense is a distinct one only if it includes some other spatial meanings than the prototypical one, and/or if it adds some extra non-spatial meaning(s) that is (are) not found in the prototypical one nor reflected in the proto-scene. Moreover, the distinct sense must be independent from the context.

2.2.3.2. Distinct but Related Extended Meaning of Spatial Prepositions

Many linguists and philosophers (Lakoff, 1987; Langacker, 1987; Tyler & Evans, 2003; Pütz, 2007; Langacker, 2008; Lindstromberg, 2010) think that most meanings, in language, are derived from space. Luraghi (2003: 12) stipulates that “[space] serves as the source for understanding other more abstract domains”. Since human experience starts from the physical world, it is assumed that meaning is obtained and then extended from physical space. Most spatial senses are derived from the prototypical ones. Boers and Demecheleer (1998) argue that non-spatial meanings of prepositions are metaphorically drawn from the spatial meaning. This means that prepositions’ meanings, like most other words’ meanings in language, are basically spatial and their other non-physical meanings are derived from the physical meaning.

The different meanings included in the networks of a certain spatial form are not necessarily all used as spatial prepositions or even not all prepositions. In his explanation of the polysemous nature of the word *over*, Lakoff (1987) presents data of native English sentences that contain that word. He explains that the related meanings of the word *over* in those data make it fall “in several grammatical categories, e.g. preposition, particle, adverb, prefix” (p. 419). The related meanings of the networks of the same spatial preposition would be non-spatial and non-visual ones. Pütz (2007) gives the example of the preposition *on*, which has the meaning of direct physical contact – as in ‘*The pencil is on the book*’ – or physical support – as in ‘*The man is standing on the chair*’. However, one of its polysemous meanings is extended metaphorically to mental contact, like in ‘*I spoke to her on the phone*’, or to mental support ‘*You can rely on me*’.

The non-spatial meanings of prepositions can be extended straight forward from the spatial primary meanings of the prepositions. The spatial preposition *under*, for example, has the primary senses of the TR being located lower than the LM with possible contact or influence between both the TR and the LM, which is the same meaning expressed metaphorically in the following sentence: ‘*He works under her supervision*’. The spatial preposition *below* is not appropriate in this sentence because the primary meaning of *below* entails that the TR is lower than the LM, and both are totally separate and not influencing each other. The non-physical meaning of prepositions can also be derived from the distinct spatial meaning rather than the core one.

2.3. Classification of Spatial Prepositions

Spatial prepositions can be classified according to the linguistic bases (phonological, morphological and syntactic), geometrical basis, and functional basis.

2.3.1. Linguistic Bases: Phonological, Morphological, and Syntactic

Spatial prepositions can be classified phonologically according to the number of syllables (Lindstromberg, 2010). According to this basis, monosyllabic spatial prepositions include prepositions such as *at*, *in*, *like* and *through*. Two-syllable spatial prepositions are prepositions like *about*, *along*, *behind*, *beyond* and *over*. Three-syllable spatial prepositions include items like *in front of* and *opposite*.

One-Syllable	Two-syllable	Three-syllable	Four-syllable
in /ɪn /	over /'əʊ.vəʳ /	opposite /'ɒp.ə.zɪt/	to the right of /təðəraɪtəv/
on /ɒn/	above /ə'baʊv/	in front of /ɪnfrʌntəv/	to the left of /təðələftəv/
at /æt/	under /'ʌn.dəʳ /		
up /ʌp/	into /'ɪn.tu:/		
down /daʊn/	out of /aʊtəv/		
through /θru:/	across /ə'krɒs/		
to /tu:/	along /ə'lɒŋ/		
for /fɔ:ʳ /	between /bɪ'twi:n/		
from /frɒm/	among /ə'mʌŋ/		
by /baɪ/	behind /bɪ'haɪnd/		
	beyond /bɪ'jɒnd/		
	near to /nɪəʳtə/		
	close to /'kləʊstə/		
	next to /'nekstə/		
	beside /bɪ'saɪd/		

Table 2.2: Phonological Transcription of Spatial Prepositions and their Classification according to the Number of Syllables

Spatial prepositions are classified according to their morphology depending on the number of morphemes composing the word. On this basis, there are simple spatial prepositions and compound spatial prepositions. Simple spatial prepositions are represented by items such as *above*, *up*, and *over*. Compound spatial prepositions, on the other hand, have more than one morpheme and include items like *in front of*. Yule (1998) suggests that compound prepositions contain a noun and, hence, they are more lexical than simple ones.

Spatial prepositions can sometimes be classified syntactically, when they are more related to the words before them. Downing and Locke (2006) divide prepositions into bound

and free words depending on how much their meaning can be predicted in relation to the word preceding them. Some spatial prepositions form collocations with some other words; for example, *link + to*, *base + on*, *derive + from*, and so on. Other prepositions, on the other hand, are used freely according to the situation and the speaker's intentions. Depending on the situation, different spatial preposition can be used with the word *stand* as in the following examples:

They *stand on* the floor.

They *stand in* the corridor

They *stand at* the house's door.

2.3.2. Geometrical Basis

The geometrical basis refers to the spatial visual matters of representing a physical scene, whether the TR and the LM are close, far, in contact, one higher than the other, and so on. According to Talmy (2003), the geometrical basis has two characteristics, "irrelevance of magnitude" and "irrelevance of shape" (p. 21). Concerning the first characteristic, Talmy (2003) explains that in most of the situations neither the size of the ground (the LM) nor its shape is variable in the use of the prepositions.

The book is on the table.

The apple is on the plate.

The needle is on the palm.

In the examples above, the variety in size between the LMs in the three sentences (*the table*, *the plate*, *the palm*) does not affect the use of the spatial prepositions; similarly, the different shapes of the LMs (*square*, *round*, *unspecific shape*) cannot have any influence on the choice of the spatial prepositions. Coventry and Garrod (2004: 7) suggest the following diagram to present the classification of spatial prepositions according to the geometrical description.

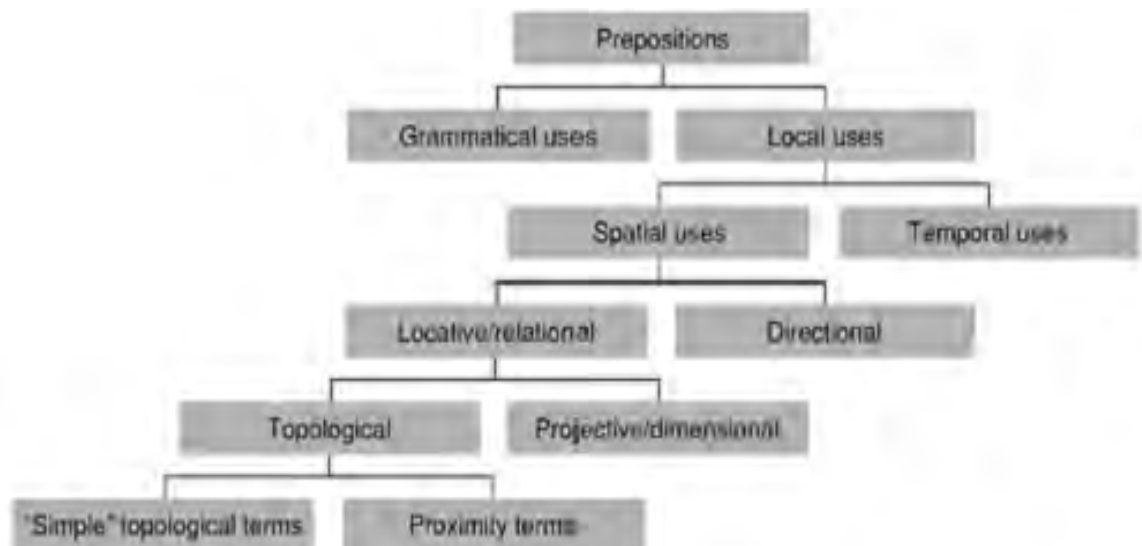


Figure 2.2: Classification of Prepositions

According to this diagram, spatial prepositions can be locative or directional. Locative spatial prepositions (relational) describe the relation of one entity in reference to the other (for example *in*, *on*, *at*, and *near*); directional spatial prepositions describe a change of the position (such as *from* and *to*) or which object is directed or located. Locative prepositions can be divided into topological prepositions and projective ones. The former are static prepositions that do not include any point of view or reference, while the latter include the points of view and/or references of description (such as *in front of*, *in the right of*). Topological prepositions can include two types, simple topological prepositions (like *in* and *on*) and proximity terms (like *near to* and *close to*) that cannot show exactly how *near* something is (Coventry & Garrod, 2004).

2.3.3. Functional Basis

The functional basis reflects what the roles assigned to the use of spatial prepositions are (Lindstromberg, 2010). These functions include concepts such as containment, support, existence and/or absence of contact, goal and path (Tyler & Evans, 2003). The functions of each spatial preposition are to be details in the following section.

When relating the geometrical descriptions and the functional results, the result will correspond to what Lakoff (1987: 267-8) explains through the notion of image-schema, which he identifies as follows:

Image schemas are relatively simple structures that constantly recur in our everyday bodily experience: CONTAINERS, PATHS, LINKS, FORCES, BALANCE, and in various orientations and relations: UP-DOWN, FRONT-BACK, PART-WHOLE, CENTER-PERIPHERY, etc.

These structures are directly meaningful [...] because they are directly and repeatedly experienced because of the nature of the body and its mode of functioning in our environment.

The combination of geometrical meanings and functional roles of spatial prepositions offer larger categories of these prepositions to better explain and describe the real world.

2.4. The Semantics of Spatial Prepositions: Basic Meaning and Distinct Spatial Meanings of Spatial Prepositions

Spatial prepositions relate the TR and the LM. Their semantics is identified according to the type of this relation and takes into consideration both the TR and the LM. In the following, the semantics of the spatial prepositions of position (*in, on, at, between, among, behind, in front of, beyond, near/close to, by, next to, and beside*), spatial prepositions of movement (*up, down, into, out of, through, along, to, for, and from*), and spatial prepositions of position and movement (*over, above, under, below, across, opposite to/from and to/on the right/left of*) will be presented.

2.4.1. Spatial Prepositions of Position

Spatial prepositions of position include the following: *in, on, at, between, among, behind, in front of, beyond, near/close to, by, next to, and beside*. These spatial prepositions describe the position of the TR according to the LM.

2.4.1.1. The Spatial Preposition “In”

Geometrically, the main physical meaning of the spatial preposition *in* entails a relation of enclosure (Garrod, Ferrier & Campbell, 1999). If the TR is in the LM, it is then included in and surrounded by the interior or all of the LM. Consequently, the LM is perceived by the speaker as a three dimensional entity (Herskovits, 1985), or as a bound LM (Tyler & Evans, 2003), which is the one that has an interior, an exterior and a boundary. This meaning is represented in the following proto-scene (Tyler & Evans 2003: 184).

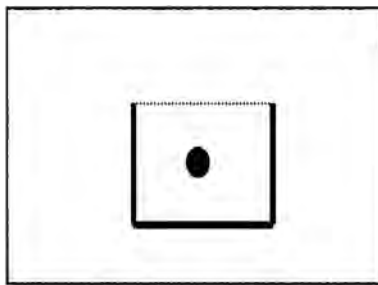


Figure 2.3: The Proto-scene for “In”

The geometrical description cannot be, all by itself, satisfactory for the description of the semantics of the spatial preposition *in*. Garrod, et al. (1999: 168) suggest the following figures (Figure 2.3) to explain the semantics of the spatial preposition *in* in the sentence ‘*The pear is in the bowl*’:

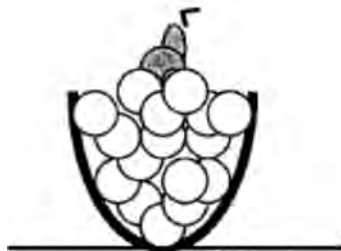


Figure 2.4(a)

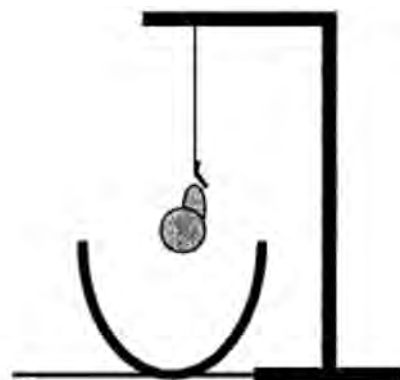


Figure 2.4(b)



Figure 2.4(c)



Figure 2.4(d)

Figure 2.4: The Semantics of the Spatial Preposition “In”

In Figure 2.4 (b), *the pear* is enclosed by *the bowl* but is pending by a string and, thus, we cannot say ‘*The pear is in the bowl*’; the reason behind this is the absence of the function of the spatial preposition *in*. Luraghi (2003) states that when the TR is enclosed by the LM, the LM is perceived as a container (p. 23); hence, the relationship between the TR and the LM is one of containment. According to Garrod et al. (1999: 173), the relationship expressed by the spatial preposition *in* means that the container controls the movement of the containment. This is to say that the use of the spatial prepositions *in* has the function of linking the movement of the container and the content; if the container moves, the content will move with it. Consequently, it is inappropriate to say ‘*The pear is in the bowl*’ for both figures 2.4(a) and 2.4(b) because the function of movement is not fulfilled. Some types of enclosure are not usually concrete but, sometimes, it is understood from the context as the enclosure of atmospheric conditions in “The flag flapped in the wind” (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 185).

The spatial preposition *in* has, in addition to its basic meaning, distinct spatial meanings. In a sentence like ‘*The flowers are in the vase*’, the TR (the flowers) is not totally contained in the LM (the vase) but just a part of it (their lower part). Tyler and Evans (2003) explain that because when moving the vase, the flowers move with it and because the vase is also limiting the placement of the flowers, then the side function of the meaning of the

spatial preposition *in* still exists. Hence, it is appropriate to use the spatial preposition *in* to profile this relationship. However, when there is a partial enclosure between the LM and the TR and the functional element is not satisfied, the spatial preposition *in* cannot be used. This point of view is supported by Jackendoff (2002: 355) when he describes a plane whose wing is only partially surrounded by clouds as Figure 2.5 below shows, where it cannot be said that ‘*The plane is in the clouds*’ because there is no function of *in* shown by the LM and the TR:



Figure 2.5: ‘The Plane is the clouds’

Another type of enclosure is what Garrod, et al. (1999: 172) name *scattered enclosure* and which they represent in the following figure:

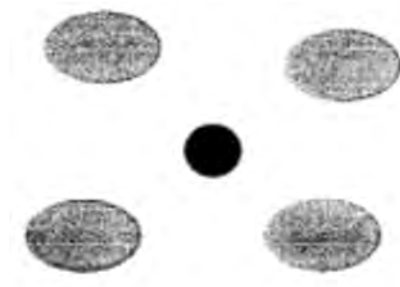


Figure 2.6: Scattered Enclosure

Scattered enclosure refers to the situation where the TR is surrounded by many members of the same entity; (Garrod et al., 1999: 172). In the example ‘*The child is in the crowd*’, the TR (*the child*) is surrounded by the LM (*the crowd* which is the result of gathering many people). Lakoff (1987: 428) names this “multiplex mass transformation”. The members of the same entity are perceived as a mass and, hence, conceptualised as one entity occupying

one bounded place like *the crowd* in the last example. In the example “The cow munched grass in the field” (Tyler & Evans 2003: 184), the LM (*the field*) is not a volume, yet it allows the use of the spatial preposition *in*. Since the LM is a surface with an interior (the part of the field), an exterior (the part out of the field) and boundaries that separate the two latter parts (the road and/or the gate), it can be considered a bounded LM. Tyler and Evans (2003: 184) named this type of bounded LM *non-canonical*. This type of LMs is a container because it is bounded and, sometimes, it controls the movement of animals inside it. Consequently, areas, countries, and seas are considered bounded LM. Sometimes, the LM is omitted when it is clearly understood from the context as in ‘*The workers stayed in for the strike*’, where it is understood that *the workers* were inside the workplace (LM).







2.4.1.2. The Spatial Preposition “*On*”

At the geometrical level, the spatial preposition *on* is used to express a relationship where a surface of the TR or a point(s) of it has a direct contact or contiguity with a surface of the LM (Garrod et al., 1999). This means that the primary meaning of *on* refers to a direct contact between the TR and the LM at a point or more of the TR. According to Tyler and Evans (2003), the LM is perceived as a two-dimensional entity represented through the surface of LM. The proto-scene of the primary use of this preposition is represented in Figure 2.7 (Lindstromberg, 2010: 51) below:



Figure 2.7: The Proto-scene for “*On*”

According to Garrod et al. (1999), there is an important function when the TR is in contact with the LM (Figure 2.7). For example, if ‘*The book is on the table*’, the LM (*the table*) supports the TR (*the book*) and prevents any possibility of falling caused by gravity.

The diversity in the use of the spatial preposition *on* may occur when there is a change of the physical arrangement or if the LM is a vertical surface. Lindstromberg (2010: 52) suggests the example “the mirror on the wall”, “the security light on the outside/inside of the house” and “chewing-gum on the bottom of the table”. In these three examples, there is contact and support between the TRs and the LMs expressed by the use of the spatial preposition *on*. In the first example, the geometric description is vertical rather than horizontal ; hence, it is rotated from  to . In the second example, it is an outside or inside vertical surface,  and . In the third example, the LM is a bottom surface .

There is occasionally a distinct spatial meaning in the absence of one of the characteristics of the semantics of the spatial preposition *on*. In such a case, the spatial preposition *on* can be used even if the notion of support is not considered (Herskovits, 1985). For example ‘*There is a point on the line*’, the LM (*the line*) does not support the TR (*the point*), and the TR and the LM are merely in contact. Lindstromberg (2010: 52) uses the example “Both of *these campgrounds* are right *on the ocean*” to illustrate that even if there is no support function between the TR (*these campgrounds*) and the LM (*the ocean*) and, though there is an indirect contact at only one end, it is appropriate to use the spatial preposition *on* since there is still some contact between the TR and the LM. Sometimes, the absence of contact does not exclude the use of the spatial preposition *on*, especially if the function of support still exists. For example, in a situation where there is a dictionary on another book, and both are supported by a table, it is appropriate to say ‘*The dictionary is on the table*’ though the TR is not in direct contact with the LM and separated by another book; both the dictionary and the book are supported by the LM (*the table*).

In addition, there might be a situation where contact happens only at one end of the LM (Lindstromberg, 2010). For example in the sentence ‘*The ball is on the string*’, the TR (*the ball*) is in contact with the end of the LM (*the string*), which is neither a surface nor

two-dimensional, but the LM keeps the ball from falling; therefore, it is appropriate to use the spatial preposition *on*.

Another distinct meaning is used when there is no support between the TR and the LM, and the contact found between them is either unreal (Herskovits, 1985) or a reflection and an illusion (Lindstromberg, 2010). The first case can be found in the phrase “wrinkles on his forehead” (Herskovits, 1985: 351). There is no way for the LM (*forehead*) to support the TR (*wrinkles*), and the contact between the two is not real as the one in the proto-scene, but it resembles contact since it is a part of the surface skin of the forehead. The second situation appears in the phrase “a shadow on the floor” where the contact is a matter of illusion because the TR is a reflection of the real object and it is not a real contact (Herskovits, 1986).

The situation described often accepts more than one preposition, *in* or *on*, depending on the intension of the speaker and how the LM is perceived. When the wrinkles are not deep in the skin but just superficial, *on* is used as in “wrinkles on his forehead”; however, when the wrinkles are deep, *in* is used as in “wrinkles in his forehead”. The sentence ‘*There is oil on the pan*’ refers to the case when oil is just on the surface of the pan, but the sentence ‘*there is oil in the pan*’ means that oil occupies a volume in the pan.

2.4.1.3. The Spatial Preposition “At”

The physical description of the relationship between the TR and the LM expressed by the spatial preposition *at* denotes that both of them are very close to each other. Tyler and Evans (2003) suggest that using the spatial preposition *at* expresses a relation of co-location between the TR and the LM wherein the location is perceived as a point (p. 178). In other words, in a physical relation expressed by the spatial preposition *at*, both the TR and the LM are supposed to be very close to each other or both are at the same location. Lindstromberg (2010: 174) compares the situation of using the spatial preposition *at* to the scene when it is

zoomed out, and the very close items will look like two very close points. For this reason, it is logical to state that the use of *at* is the most appropriate when the LM refers to intersections, crossroads, corners and junctions. Tyler et al. (2011: 194) suggest the figure below as a proto-scene to describe the geometrical use of the spatial preposition *at*:

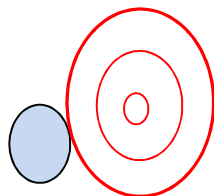


Figure 2.8: The Proto-scene for “At”

When the LMs are cities and countries and are conceptualised in a situation as points of maps or roads, it is more appropriate to use the spatial preposition *at* to describe that situation. The function that could co-exist with the use of the spatial preposition *at* appears clearly when emphasising the TR as a place at a particular point mainly for a specific reason (Tyler et al., 2011). For example, the sentence ‘*There is someone at the door*’ can be understood as a person waiting at the door for someone or waiting to get in; the most important is that the person is there for a particular purpose. Another instance is the sentence ‘*The man is at the kitchen table*’; it is clear that the man is there to eat when he is at the kitchen table, which is a particular purpose.

One of the distinct spatial meanings of the spatial preposition *at* is expressed when the LM is not merely considered as a point but as a target point (Lindstromberg, 2010). In both sentences, ‘*He threw the ball at him*’ and ‘*He looked at her*’, there is the notion of focusing on the LMs (*him, her*) for a specific reason, causing pain in the first and showing anger, wonder and so on in the second. Tyler et al. (2011) claim that when the speaker wants to stress the intensive focus of the TR covering the LM, the spatial preposition *at* is the most appropriate option. To illustrate, the sentence ‘*She has been at her book all morning*’ does not only imply that the TR (*she*) is very close to the LM (*her book*), but also that she is

scrutinising and has invested the whole morning paying attention to the details of the LM (*the book*). According to Lindstromberg (2010), when there is some vagueness about the exact place of the TR, it is advisable to use the spatial preposition *at*. In the sentence ‘*The party is at his house*’, there is some vagueness about where exactly the party is, whether inside the house, in the garden next to the house or in the backyard. It is a specific point of the house, but the speaker does not know where or it is not important where it is taking place. Consequently, the use of the spatial preposition *at* is more appropriate in such a situation.

2.4.1.4. The Spatial Prepositions “*Between*” and “*Among*”

The spatial prepositions *between* and *among* are different from other spatial prepositions in the sense that each suggests a position of the TR in reference to more than one object or sets of objects (Coventry & Garrod, 2004). This means that the LM used to locate the TR using *between* or *among* is a multiple entity. The spatial preposition *between* is used when the LM is seen as two or more separate entities (things or individuals), while the spatial preposition *among* is used with a LM is composed of three or more entities considered as a group or a mass (Hewings, 1999). When the TR is separating two entities or two sets of entities, the spatial preposition *between* is used; however, when the TR is surrounded by three or more entities of the same type or a mass noun, the spatial preposition *among* is used.



Figure 2.9: The Proto-scene for “*Between*” (Lindstromberg, 2010: 89)

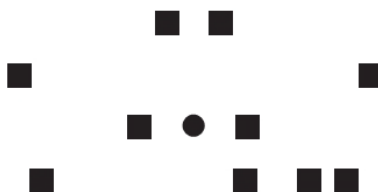


Figure 2.10: The Proto-scene for “*Among*” (Lindstromberg, 2010: 93)

According to Coventry and Garrod (2004) and Downing and Locke (2006), the spatial meanings of the prepositions *between* and *among* are imprecise. When using any of these two spatial prepositions, the exact position or place of the TR cannot always be known. For example, the sentence ‘*Our house is situated between the school and the supermarket*’ does not mean that the TR (*our house*) is necessarily in mid distance from each of the LMs (*the school* and *the supermarket*) but it could be, as well, closer to any (Figure 2.24). Similarly, the sentence ‘*There is a beautiful large garden among the buildings*’ does not mean that the TR (*a beautiful large garden*) is necessarily at equal distance from the LMs (*the buildings*) (Figure 2.23).



Figure 2.11: Approximate Spatial Meanings of “Between”

Lindstromberg (2010: 94) suggests that in the example “Some octagons among some squares”, where the LM has a multiple nature, the TR can sometimes be more than one also. In this last example, every octagon is surrounded by two or more squares.



Figure 2.12: Multiple Trajectors with Multiple Landmarks

The spatial preposition *among* can be used with multiples referent objects, and so is the case of the spatial preposition *between* as it can be used when the LM is more than two objects but a small number and perceived as separate or individual entities (Eastwood, 1994). In the sentence ‘*Sam’s house is somewhere between the school, the supermarket and the bus station*’, the LM is composed of three individual separate entities. However, in the example, ‘*The ball is moving between the players*’, it is clear that the ball is moving between two of the players at a time.

2.4.1.5. The Spatial Prepositions “Behind”, “In Front of” and “Beyond”

The spatial prepositions *behind*, *in front of*, and *beyond* are used when the TR is located according to a LM that has a front and a back. Tyler and Evans (2003: 132) name this type of LM “oriented LM”. Entities that have back and front include our bodies, and extend to houses, cars, hills, and so on.

The basic meaning of the spatial preposition *in front of* is that the TR is facing the LM in the sense that the LM is directed towards the TR (Tyler & Evans, 2003). In other words, when using the spatial preposition *in front of* to describe the physical relation between the TR and the LM, the TR is supposed to be located at some place near the front or face of the LM; however, it is not necessary for the TR to be also facing the LM. In the example ‘*The children are in front of the theatre*’, it can be understood that the TR (*the children*) is located somewhere around the front (*the door*) of the LM (*the theatre*).

The spatial preposition *behind* is the opposite of the spatial preposition *in front of*. While *in front of* is used to describe a situation where the TR is faced by the LM, *behind* is used to describe a situation where the TR is in back of an oriented LM (Tyler & Evans, 2003; Lindstromberg, 2010). Lindstromberg (2010) adds that, as a characteristic of the LM, it should be higher than the TR and, mainly, not at a lower surface. Therefore, it is possible to say ‘*The boy is behind the hill*’, but it is not possible to say ‘*The hill is behind the boy*’ as the LM (*the boy*) is lower than the surface of the TR (*the hill*). Boers and Demecheleer (1998) insist that the primary sense of the spatial preposition *behind* entails that the TR should be hidden by the LM. Nonetheless, Tyler and Evans (2003: 170) explain that the TR should not necessarily be hidden by the LM as the example they suggest, “Behind the married couple, there is a large table covered with presents”, where the TR is not totally hidden by the LM but only partially. This point of view is supported by Lindstromberg (2010: 104) through the example “When throwing the dart, a player must stand *behind the toe line*”; the TR is not

hidden by the LM and which is lower than the TR, but this is a special case where the LM stands as a barrier or a limit.

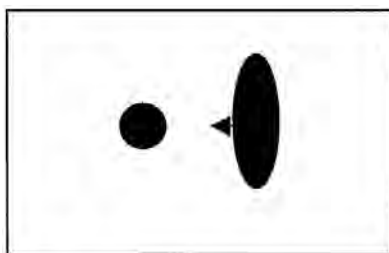


Figure 2.13: The Proto-scene for “*In Front of*” (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 159)

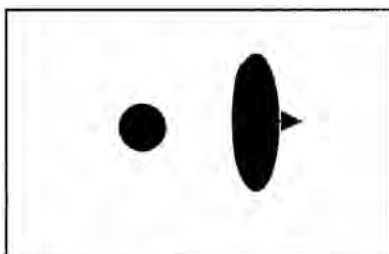


Figure 2.14: The Proto-scene for “*Behind*” (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 170)

The spatial prepositions *in front of* and *in back of* are usually mistakenly replaced, respectively, by *in the front of* and *in the back of*. Lindstromberg (2010: 108) gives the diagram of a boat to explain the distinction between these expressions.



Lindstromberg (2010: 108) explains that *i* is located *in back of* (or *behind*) the boat, while *X* is situated *in the back of* the boat. On the other hand, *Z* is located *in front of* the boat whereas *Y* is *in the front of* boat.

The spatial preposition *beyond* is very close in meaning to the spatial preposition *behind*; the difference lies in the fact that the spatial preposition *beyond* means behind and far from the LM (Lindstromberg, 2010). For instance, saying ‘*The house is behind the hill*’ means that the house is close to the back of the hill; however, saying ‘*The house is beyond*

the hill means that the house is from the back side of the hill and far from it. Boers and Demecheleer (1998: 201) add that when using the spatial preposition *beyond*, the TR and the LM are situated in different areas and, hence, far in distance. In other words, the place of the TR and the place of the LM are perceived by the speaker as two different scopes, and the result is that the TR and the LM are separated by a considerable distance.

2.4.1.6. The Spatial Prepositions “Near/Close to”, “By”, “Next to” and “Beside”

The spatial prepositions *near/close to*, *by*, *next to* and *Beside* express approximate relation between the LM and the TR (Downing & Locke, 2006). When using any of these prepositions, the location of the TR according to the LM is not exact, nor is the direction of both the TR and the LM; for example, two people or more may be near a building, yet they would not be at the same place. Lindstromberg (2010) states that the difference between *near/close to*, and *by* is that the former is more general than the latter. This means that *near/close to* are used to express proximity not only horizontally from both sides and from the front and the back, but they also express vertical approximation from top and bottom sides, while the spatial preposition *by* expresses approximation only from two sides, right and left. At the level of meaning, *near/close to* are more general than *by* and *next to*.

Eastwood (1994: 294) explains that using *near/close to* means that the TR is “not far from” the LM, while *by* means that the TR is “at the side of” the LM, and *next to* means that the TR is “directly at the side of” the LM. Consequently, the level of proximity is presented in degrees when using these spatial prepositions. Lindstromberg (2010: 144) further explains that when using the spatial preposition *by*, a function of connection is implied whether physical or warmth connection, as in the example “come sit/stand by me” where there is a possible connection that could happen between the TR and the LM, and warmth implied between them.

Moreover, the spatial preposition *beside* expresses closeness of distance. According to Lindstromberg (2010), *beside* is the spatial preposition that indicates a relationship of closeness but not contact between the LM and the TR. For instance, sayings ‘*Stop the cars beside the building*’ indicates that the LM should be placed close to the TR in no specific arrangement and there is no physical contact between them. Moreover, the example shows that when using the spatial preposition *beside*, the relationship between the TR and the LM is static.

2.4.2. Spatial Prepositions of Movement

Spatial prepositions of movement are the following: *up*, *down*, *into*, *out of*, *through*, *along*, *to*, *for*, and *from*. They describe the direction of the TR according to the LM.

2.4.2.1. The Spatial Prepositions “Up” and “Down”

According to Tyler and Evans (2003), the spatial preposition *up* is used to indicate a relation in which the TR is directed towards the top of the LM, while the spatial preposition *down* indicates a relation in which the TR is directed towards the bottom of the LM. In other words, in a spatial scene where the relation between the TR and the LM is represented by *up* or *down*, the LM must be perceived as a thing that has a top and a bottom. In the examples ‘*He ran up the hill*’ and ‘*The bird flew down the chimney*’, the TRs (*he*, *the bird*) are oriented and moving in the direction of the LM (*the top of the hill* and *the bottom of chimney*). It is argued that when using these two spatial prepositions, the LM is compared to the human body that has a top, which is the head, and the bottom, which is represented by the legs (Tyler & Evans, 2003; Lindstromberg, 2010). The following proto-scenes are suggested by Tyler and Evans (2003) to clarify the prototypical meaning of both spatial prepositions:

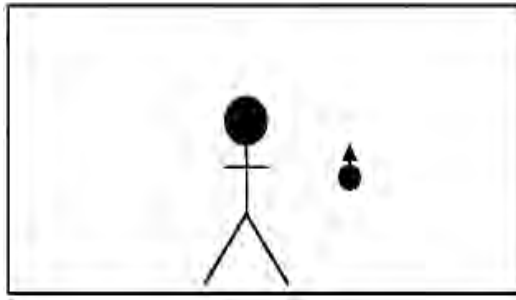


Figure 2.15: The Proto-scene for “Up” (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 137)

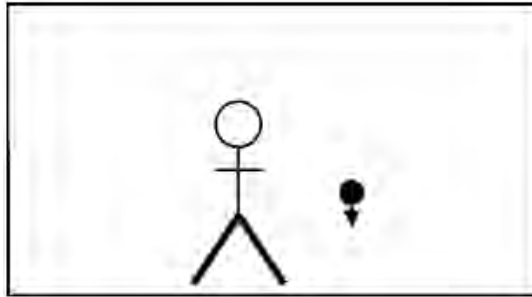


Figure 2.16: The Proto-scene for “Down” (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 142)

Both prepositions *up* and *down* are used, most of the time, as parts of phrasal verbs (Lindstromberg, 2010). This means that they are used mainly as particles instead of spatial prepositions; hence, their distinct spatial meanings are very restricted.

One of the distinct spatial meanings of *up* and *down* appears in their uses for horizontal relations between the TR and the LM as suggested by Lindstromberg (2010). The spatial prepositions *up* and *down* are used to describe a movement with no reference to elevation. The reference is not to altitude between the TR and the LM. In the following example ‘*Come up/go down the main road and you will find the cinema*’, it is rather a reference to the location of the speaker as a starting point of a movement in the direction of the increasing street numbers in the case of the spatial preposition *up*, and as a movement in the direction of the decreasing street numbers in the case of the spatial preposition *down* (Lindstromberg, 2010: 192).

2.4.2.2. The Spatial Prepositions “Into” and “Out of”

The spatial prepositions *into* and *out of* are used to express a relation of movement between the TR and the LM. Tyler and Evans (2003) insist that when using any of these

spatial prepositions the LM is seen by the speaker as bounded with an interior, exterior and boundaries whether three dimensional (volume) or two dimensional (area). Lindstromberg (2010) suggests the following proto-scenes for *into* and *out of* (p. 29).

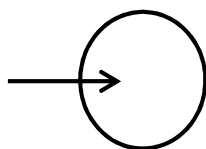


Figure 2.17a: The Proto-scene for “*Into*”

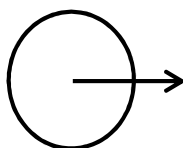


Figure 2.17b: The Proto-scene for “*Out of*”

According to these proto-scenes, it can be understood that while *into* relates between the TR and the interior of the LM as the goal or end point, *out of* is a relation between the TR and the interior of the LM as a source. For this reason, Downing and Locke (2006) consider the semantics of *into* and *out of* as converse. Tyler and Evans (2003) further explain that the functional element associated with *into* is that the LM is a goal in which the TR is oriented or moving to be contained; on the other hand, the functional element associated with *out of* is that the LM is a source which the TR is not being contained in.

2.4.2.3. The Spatial Prepositions “*Through*” and “*Along*”

The spatial prepositions *through* and *along* seem to be close in meaning; however, there is a difference between them.

The spatial preposition *through* is used to relate the TR which occupies “a contiguous series of spatial points with respect to the LM [...] [T]hese points are located on the exterior side of the LM coincident with the entrance point, within the LM and on the exterior side of the LM opposite to the entrance point” (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 217). When using the spatial preposition *through*, the TR starts moving from its position at one side on the exterior of the

LM and goes to sequenced points to its interior and ends at some point on the other side of its exterior. Consequently, the function assigned to the spatial preposition *through* is that of path (Tyler & Evans, 2003). This meaning of the spatial preposition *through* is shown in the following proto-scene suggested by Lindstromberg (2010: 29):

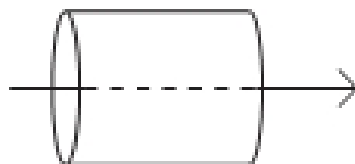


Figure 2.18: The Proto-scene for “Through”

The examples ‘*He went through the forest*’ and ‘*There is a tunnel through the Alps between France and Italy*’ show that the spatial preposition *through* does not only have movement meaning – as in the first example, but it also has static meaning – which is the case of the second example.

The spatial preposition *along* shares the horizontal relationship between the TR and the LM with *through*. The difference, according to Downing and Locke (2006), appears in that *along* is used when the LM is perceived as a line and the TR and the LM have the same axis or are parallel to each other. In other words, the use of *along* implies that the LM is considered as a horizontal line and that the TR is situated or is moving in its same direction. The example ‘*He walked along the road*’ means that the TR (*he*) is moving parallel to the LM (*the road*) and very close to it, as if the TR is following the same horizontal axis of the LM. Lindstromberg (2010: 82) suggests the figure below as the proto-scene for the spatial preposition *along*:

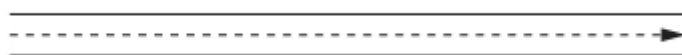


Figure 2.19: The Proto-scene for “Along”

2.4.2.4. The Spatial Prepositions “To”, “For” and “From”

The spatial prepositions *to* and *for* are similar in the sense that when using them, their TRs are directed towards the LMs (Tyler & Evans, 2003). When using *to* and *for* to express a spatial relation, the TR is oriented in the direction of the LM. According to Tyler and Evans (2003) and Lindstromberg (2010), while the spatial preposition *to* is used to describe a LM as an end in itself, the spatial preposition *for* indicates that the LM is not an end in itself, but it refers to the LM as a means to another end. In the examples ‘*I am travelling to London*’ and ‘*I am leaving for London*’, the first example suggests that the LM is an end in itself (London is the place where I live, or where I visit someone); in the second example, however, it means that I am moving toward London for another purpose that can be achieved through going there like studying for a short period. This means that when using *to*, the main goal is the LM; conversely, when using *for* the LM is used as a way to get another goal in a planned and calculated way. The figures below suggested by Tyler & Evans (2003: 148) represent the proto-scenes of “*to*” and “*for*”:

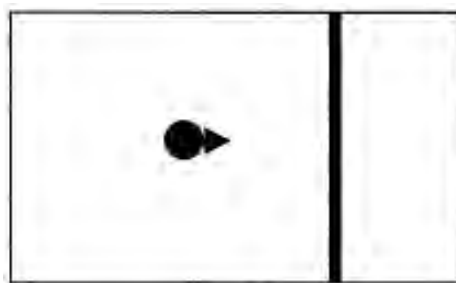


Figure 2.20: The Proto-scene for “*To*”

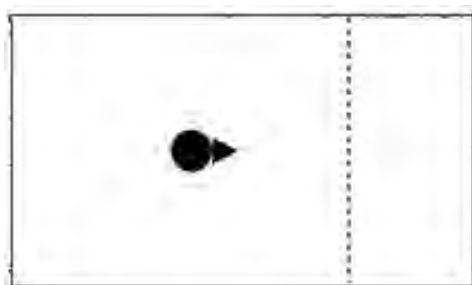


Figure 2.21: The Proto-scene for “*For*”

The spatial preposition *to* can have distinct spatial meanings. According to Tyler and Evans (2003), the spatial preposition *to* is sometimes used to mean that the TR is located

according to but not necessarily oriented to the LM. In the example ‘*You can take the seats to the front of the classroom*’, the TR is not directed toward the LM (the front of the classroom) but is situated according to it. Furthermore, the LM in the previous example is not an end in itself but a reference of the situation of the TR. The second distinct spatial meaning is when the relationship between the TR and the LM entails direct or near contact (Tyler & Evans, 2003). In other words, the LM is not merely an end for the TR, but it also has contact with it; for example, ‘*Apply the medicaments directly to the wound so that it heals*’.

The spatial preposition *from* is symmetrical with the spatial preposition *to*. The LM is the ultimate goal when using the spatial preposition *to*, but it is the source when using the preposition *from* (Lindstromberg, 2010). Therefore, saying ‘*I am travelling from London*’ means that my source of movement is the LM (*London*); my departure is London.



Figure 2.22: The Proto-scene for “From” (Lindstromberg, 2010: 43)

The last three prepositions – *to*, *for*, and *from* – entail path whether directed toward the LM (*to* and *for*) or starting from the LM (*from*). However, according to Tyler and Evans (2003), this path does not always involve physical movement. Using these prepositions is not always related to a physical movement. For instance, ‘*I am pointing to the dress I like*’ does not need a physical change of the location but it involves beckoning/indicating.

2.4.3. Spatial Prepositions of Position and Movement

A spatial preposition of position and movement describes the location and/or direction of the TR according to the LM depending on the context in which it is used. Spatial prepositions of position and movement are the following: *over*, *above*, *under*, *below*, *across*, *opposite to/from*, and *to/on the right/left of*.

2.4.3.1. The Spatial Prepositions “Over” and “Above”

The two spatial prepositions *over* and *above* both express a vertical relation between the TR and the LM. According to Lakoff (1987), both spatial prepositions share the physical semantics “higher than” (p. 425). However, Tyler and Evans (2003) argue that the physical difference lies in the fact that the spatial preposition *over* is used when the TR is “within potential contact of the LM” (p. 65), while the spatial preposition *above* is used when the TR “is not within potential reach of the LM” (p. 111). In other words, *over* is used when the TR is higher than the LM and in its scope, where there is a possibility that – under some conditions – the TR could be in contact with the LM; on the other hand, *above* is used when the TR is higher than the LM but there is no possible contact that could happen between the TR and the LM. Lindstromberg (2010: 109) describes the main use of the spatial preposition *over* as “neutral about geometrical separation”, while the spatial preposition *above* entails that the TR and the LM are totally separated.

When describing a spatial situation where the TR is higher than the LM, the spatial preposition *over* is used if there is a possibility that the TR gets into contact with the LM. By contrast, if the possibility of contact between the TR and the LM is very remote, then it is more appropriate to use the spatial preposition *above*. For example, both prepositions are used in the sentence ‘*The bird is over/above the bridge*’ because, when flying, birds can have some contact with the bridge from time to time; however, in the sentence ‘*the plane circled above the airfield*’ only *above* is used because the TR (*the plane*) has no contact with the LM (*the airfield*). The following proto-scenes are suggested by Tyler and Evans (2003) for the spatial prepositions *over* and *above*.

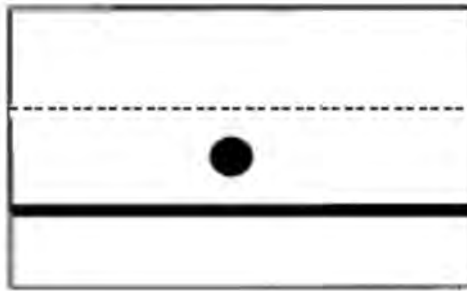


Figure 2.23: The Proto-scene for “Over” (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 66)

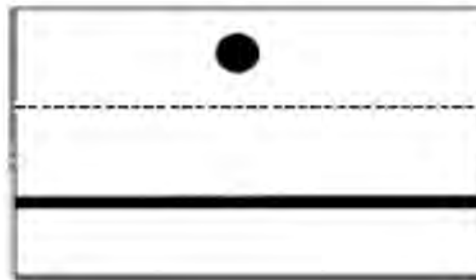


Figure 2.24: Proto-scene for “Above” (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 112)

Another proto-scene is the one represented by Lindstromberg (2010: 110).

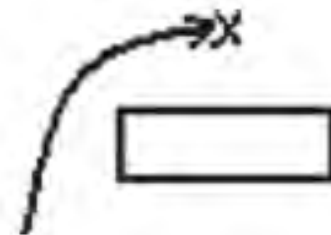


Figure 2.25: Proto-scene for “Above”

Both proto-scenes of the spatial prepositions *over* and *above* show that the ratio of the dimensions of the TR to the LM does not affect the use of this spatial preposition if other conditions exist. If the TR is higher than the LM and if there is a potential contact or influence, it is appropriate to use the spatial preposition *over* whether the TR is bigger than the LM as in ‘*the sky is over us*’, or the TR is smaller than the LM as in ‘*the bird is over the bridge*’.

Tyler and Evans (2003) argue that the difference between the use of spatial preposition *over* and that of *above* is not merely being in the physical scope, but also in a functional consequence of this physical difference, which is the possible influence of the TR on the LM

or vice versa. For example, it is more appropriate to say ‘*The plane flew over the city*’ because it has an influence on the inhabitants of the city, which is represented by the sound it produces that attracts their attention or the smoke that it leaves behind it. However, when the TR is higher than the LM and the speaker does not insist on any influence or possible contact, the use of either spatial preposition, *over* or *above*, is possible. The examples provided by Tyler and Evans (2003: 110) illustrate this situation since “The picture is over the mantel” is the same as “The picture is above the mantel”.

Many distinct spatial senses of the spatial preposition *over* can be derived from the primary meaning. The first one is what Lakoff (1987: 419) names “above and across”, and is represented in the sentence “The plane flew over the city”. This sense expresses a movement and a path of the TR, which is higher than the LM. The primary meaning of *over* exists; the TR (*the plane*) is higher than the LM (*the city*) and it has influence on the LM (attracting the inhabitants attention by the sound it makes), while the additional meaning is path. However, Tyler and Evans (2003) argue that the meaning expressed in the last sentence is the same of the primary sense and the additional meaning (path) is derived from the verb before the preposition (*to fly*), which contains the meaning of path.

The second distinct meaning can be derived from the sentence ‘*The boy jumped over the fence*’. The sentence suggests that there is a movement from one side of the fence to the other. Tyler and Evans (2003: 82) explain that the spatial preposition *over* has the meaning “on the other side”. The point at which the boy was located and the arc shape mean that the boy went through a path where there is a point higher than the LM (*the fence*), which was itself considered an obstacle for the TR (*the boy*) and caused it to have that arc shape of movement (influence), as the following figure suggests:

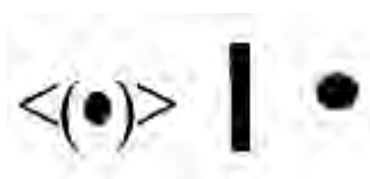


Figure 2.26: On-the-other-side Meaning of “Over”

This meaning can also be presented without reference to movement and path, nor to higher point, as in the example ‘*There is beautiful scenery over the bridge*’. In this case, there is the notion of “end-point focus” (Lakoff, 1987: 423); yet, the meaning of *on-the-other-side* is still implied in the sentence. Another meaning of the spatial preposition *over* is the one expressed in the example ‘*The ball flew over the goal and landed in the spectators’ area*’. This example refers to the situation where the TR (*the ball*) was too high to enter the LM (*the goal*) as it was intended because of too much power produced and it went beyond it to stop at a certain point. This meaning is the “Above-and-beyond (Excess I)” meaning (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 80). Sometimes, when the TR is too close to the LM and broader than it, using the spatial preposition *over* emphasises the fact that the TR is hiding all the LM or a large a part of it. The sentence ‘*Put the blanket over the bed*’ explains that the additional meaning of the spatial preposition *over* is to show that the TR functions as a cover for the LM. This distinct meaning is called the *Covering sense* (Lakoff, 1987; Lindstromberg, 2010; Tyler & Evans, 2003).

One of the distinct meanings of the spatial preposition *above* is related to the nature of the LM. When the LM is a river – water flow – it is a geographical fact that the source is higher than the point which it falls into because of the gravity principle. According to Tyler and Evans (2003), when the TR is identified in reference to a point lower than it and both the TR and the LM are points of the river, it is better to use the spatial preposition *above*. In the sentence “The nearest bridge is about half a mile above the falls”, it is not that perfectly vertical distance of half a mile, but the meaning is “a half mile from the fall in the direction of the source” (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 121). The other distinct spatial meaning of the spatial preposition *above* refers to the addition of the notion of contact (Tyler & Evans, 2003). The notion of contact added in this meaning is the one expressed in the sentence ‘*Give me the*

box just above the one you are touching now’, it means the next box in a vertical sequence higher than the LM. In this meaning, total contact is found between the TR and the LM.

2.4.3.2. The Spatial Prepositions “*Under*” and “*Below*”

The spatial prepositions *under* and *below* are considered symmetrical with the spatial prepositions *over* and *above* respectively in their basic meanings and spatial configurations (Tyler & Evans, 2003; Lindstromberg, 2010). On the one hand, the spatial preposition *under* is used to refer to a relation where the TR is lower than the LM, but does not exclude their contact; the spatial preposition *below*, on the other hand, represents a situation where the TR is lower than the LM but excludes any possibility of contact between the two (Lindstromberg, 2010). Both prepositions *under* and *below* are used to represent situations where the LM is higher than the TR; however, the spatial preposition *under* is used when the TR has contact with the LM while the preposition *below* is used when the TR and the LM are totally separate. The following proto-scenes suggested by Tyler and Evans (2003: 122) show this difference:

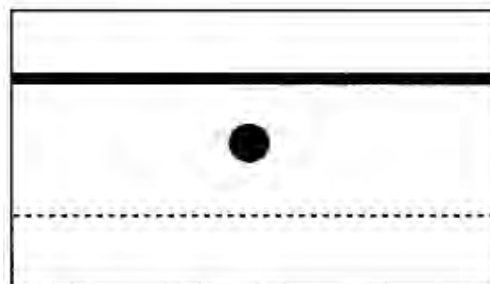


Figure 2.27: The Proto-scene for “*Under*”

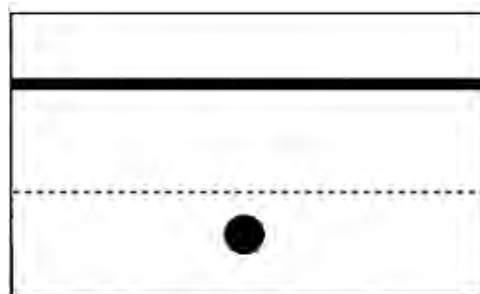


Figure 2.28: The Proto-scene for “*Below*”

Hence, a relatively small distance of *lower than* is represented by the use of the spatial preposition *under*, and a relatively large distance is represented by the use of the spatial preposition *below*. Lindstromberg (2010) insists that there is neither effect nor influential function that could appear in using both *under* and *below*. Since the only difference between the TR and the LM in a situation where there is no contact between the TR and the LM and the distance between them is not stressed (a matter of subjective interpretation), both prepositions can be used interchangeably (Tyler & Evans, 2003). In the example ‘*The picture of the employee of the month is under/below that of the manager*’, using either *under* or *below* is possible and it might not affect the meaning of the sentence since the reference is to the position of the TR in relation to the LM, with no focus on the distance and in the absence of any contact.

One of the distinct meanings of *under* is named the *Control Sense* and expressed in the example “The boy trapped the fly under his hand” (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 125). The hand is restricting the fly’s movements; the fly is under the hand and in its proximal distance. This case represents the *Control Sense* because the LM (*the hand* in the last example) is in control of the movement of the TR (*the fly*). Lindstromberg (2010) states that the spatial preposition *under* has another spatial distinct meaning that resembles *over*’s ‘*from one side to another*’ sense. The TR is higher than the LM in the case of *over*; while in the case of *under*, the TR is lower than the LM. In the example, ‘*the dog ran under the fence*’. It means the TR (*the dog*) moved in the shape of an arc which is caused by the obstacle LM (*the fence*) until it came to a point lower than LM vertically, then moved again to stop on the other side. The example ‘*My keys are under these clothes*’ entails that the TR (*my keys*) is covered by the LM (*these clothes*) and hiding it from sight. This extended meaning is what Tyler and Evan (2003: 125) name the *Covering Sense*. The covering sense of the spatial preposition *under* implies that the TR is lower than the LM, in possible contact with it and is hidden by it.

Like the two distinct spatial meanings of the spatial preposition *above*, the spatial preposition *below* has two distinct spatial meanings. The first one is related to the notion of distance when the LM is a river, or a water flow, and the TR is related to it (Tyler & Evans, 2003). In the example ‘*They stood half a mile below the river*’, the preposition *below* has the conventions of distance, but it is used to present geographical distance not to reveal a vertical distance. The second additional meaning is expressed when the TR is lower than the LM with contact between the two (Tyler & Evans, 2003: 128). The TR is lower than the LM and in contact with it, as in the example ‘*Can you give me the box below the one you are touching*’.

2.4.3.3. The Spatial Prepositions “*Across*” and “*Opposite to/from*”

The spatial preposition *across* indicates that the TR is facing the LM (Lindstromberg, 2010). This means that when using the spatial preposition *across*, the TR is separated from the LM by a relatively short distance. Hewings (1999) insists that *across* is used when the LM is perceived as a flat surface. Downing and Locke (2006) claim that when using the spatial preposition *across*, the axis of movement of the TR is forming a cross symbol with the LM. For example, when saying ‘*He walked across the street*’, it means that his way of movement is forming a plus symbol (+) with the street. The figure below represents proto-scenes for *across* as suggested by Lindstromberg (2010: 97):

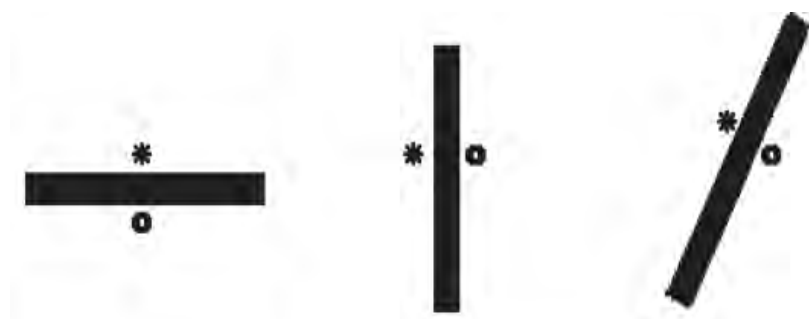


Figure 2.29: Proto-scenes for “*Across*”

It is worth noticing that both *through* and *across* have the meaning of form-one-side-to-another. However, the difference between the two spatial prepositions is that the two sides

of the LM used with the spatial preposition *through* are separated by the interior of the LM, while the sides of the LM used with the spatial preposition *across* are separated by something perceived by the speaker as a line.

While the spatial prepositions *opposite to/from* and *across* are so related in meaning, *opposite to/from* is more general than *across*, and it is used when the TR is more directly facing the LM (Lindstromberg, 2010: 97). Put differently, when the TR is not exactly facing the LM and simply not on the same side, the spatial preposition *across* is more appropriate; conversely, when the TR is facing the LM and on the same side, the spatial preposition *opposite to/from* is more appropriate. In addition to that, *opposite to/from* can be used when the TR and the LM are relatively distant but facing each other. Lindstromberg (2010: 98) suggests the following proto-scenes to show the basic meaning of opposite:



Figure 2.30: Proto-scenes for “*Opposite to/from*”

2.4.3.4. The Spatial Prepositions “*To/On the Right/Left of*”

To/on the right/left of are spatial prepositions that are used to identify the TR according to a LM that has two sides, right and left, such as animate bodies, and can be generalised to objects that have two side like cars, buildings, planes, and so on. Vandeloise (1986) suggests that the right and left are identified by the placement of the shoulders of the human body as a primary way, or by the direction of the sight or movement as a secondary way. Put differently, when the LM is human, the TR is *to/on the right* or *to/on the left* according to the shoulders of the LM if it is stable, or according to where the sight or movement is directed if the TR is moving. According to Herskovits (1985), the use of *to/on the right of* to identify

a position of the TR according to the LM depends on the number of other objects to the right of the LM in the environment. That is to say, if there is more than one object to/on the right of a LM, the closest one is the one that is said to be to/on the right of that LM.

2.5. Difficulty of Learning Spatial Prepositions

For many teachers and learners of English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL), teaching and learning prepositions is seen as one of the main challenges in second/foreign language teaching and learning. Their acquisition is sometimes considered one of the most problematic issues ESL/EFL learners face (Tyler & Evans, 2005). Many ESL/EFL teachers agree on the fact that a large number of their learners do not use spatial prepositions adequately. Boers and Demecheleer (1998) and Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) suggest several reasons behind this difficulty.

First, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) argue that “in their spatial meanings, prepositions do not match up well from language to language” (p. 401); this means that languages do not use the same spatial prepositions to describe the same physical scenes. Hence, learners who try to translate the use of spatial prepositions from their native language to English could face problems. Langacker (1987, 2008) states that people perceive the same spatial view differently depending on what to focus on and how to interpret it. Boers and Demecheleer (1998) explain this difference by the cross-cultural dissimilarities in approaching the same physical world. In other words, depending on the culture of the speaking community, native speakers may perceive differently the same scene. Though used to describe the same physical world, spatial prepositions in languages differ in terms of position in the sentence, their meanings and the number of their meanings. For example; English speakers say, ‘*The woman is walking in the rain*’, for French speakers it is said, ‘*La femme marche sous la pluie*’. In English, for example, there are four words to identify an object lower than another – *under*, *below*, *underneath* and *beneath* – while in French there

are only two ‘*sous, en dessous de*’, and in Arabic there is only one, ‘*Tahta /taḥta/*’. Another example presented by Levinson (1992; as cited in Boers and Demecheleer, 1998) is that Australians locate objects according to north/south/east/west in contrast with the European front/back/left/right system.

The second reason behind the difficulty of studying spatial prepositions in general is the diversity of meanings that can be expressed when using them (Boers & Demecheleer, 1998). Spatial prepositions can be used in different contexts to have different meanings; hence, presenting all the meanings of all the spatial prepositions of a language and all the contexts they can be used in is not practical and may confuse the learners concerning their use. For example, the spatial preposition *over* can be used in ‘*The girl is jumping over the rope*’ to mean ‘*The girl is jumping from one side of the rope to the other*’ and in ‘*The new restaurant is over the bridge*’ to mean ‘*The new restaurant is at the end of the bridge*’.

Conclusion

Several researchers have explained that spatial prepositions help to make communication clearer because they locate people and things in relation to others. Furthermore, they show how and where these people and things are moving in different physical scenes in the real world. Spatial prepositions have geometrical and functional features that are reflected in their primary and their secondary meanings. The primary meanings – basic meanings – are those which represent the core meaning, while secondary ones – distinct meanings – are those related to but different from the core meaning. Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that the complexity and diversity of these meanings are not the same for all the spatial prepositions.

Chapter Three

Practice and Error Correction in Teaching Spatial Prepositions

Introduction

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Conclusion

Introduction

The great number of spatial prepositions, their meanings and the complex relationships between them constitute a problem in learning this type of prepositions. To face this difficulty, many approaches and methods have been adopted. Paragraph writing is a way of practising foreign language items, both grammatical and lexical. One type of paragraph development is the descriptive paragraph, which includes the spatial development. The latter has proven to be one of the effective means to practise spatial prepositions. While writing a paragraph, learners misuse foreign language items because of different reasons. Error analysis is the field of linguistics that has attempted to identify the errors, the reasons behind them and explore possible solutions. One of these solutions is error correction.

3.1. Teaching Spatial Prepositions

There have been different views about teaching spatial prepositions that originated from approaches to Grammar teaching. One of these views concerns the use of pictures to teach spatial prepositions.

3.1.1. Different Views about Teaching Spatial Prepositions

As attempts to overcome the difficulties L2/FL learners face when using spatial prepositions took place, different approaches to teaching Grammar have suggested different methods to teach spatial prepositions to ESL/EFL learners. On the one hand, approaches to teaching Grammar in the traditional view of meaning propose rote learning as a way of teaching the different uses of one preposition (Tyler & Evans, 2005). Since the Grammar-Translation Method considers prepositions purely grammatical items that have little or no semantic value, the memorisation technique has been adopted in teaching prepositions. According to Lindstromberg (1996), though some rote learning is inevitable while learning prepositions, it cannot be relied on alone because it is not helpful for the learners to memorise all the uses of all the spatial prepositions while learning L2/FL. In other words, memorisation

would not help the learners to use prepositions in new contexts or new sentences but only in the ones they learnt by heart. Hinkel and Fotos (2002) suggest translation as an additional technique to memorisation used in traditional approaches to teaching and learning prepositions, along with the other parts of speech. For example, the English preposition *in* is equivalent to the French preposition ‘*dans*’ and an English sentence like ‘*The woman is in the room*’ is equivalent to the French sentence ‘*La femme est dans la pièce*’.

Cognitive linguistics, on the other hand, suggests a solution to the reasons behind the difficulty of acquiring spatial prepositions as a way to teach and learn them. According to Langacker (1987), the use of words, like prepositions, in languages is not arbitrary; the meanings of words are rather conceptualised according to the different human experiences with the world (cultural, physical, social and linguistic). Hence, the same physical scene or the same entity would be described differently by different speaking communities depending on those cultural, linguistic, physical and social factors. Tyler and Evans (2003) explain that the meanings of spatial prepositions are not randomly used but are rather organised in a *principled polysemy* as they affirm that in cognitive linguistics “the differences in expressing spatial relations found across different languages can be accounted for non-arbitrary ways and that the distinct meanings associated with a particular preposition are related in systematic, principled ways” (Tyler & Evans, 2005: 03). Theories in cognitive linguistics have tried to solve the differences of using spatial prepositions among languages by presenting a logical and methodical explanation and to solve the problem of the multiplicity of meanings of the same spatial preposition in the same language by categorising them in an organised way. The different meanings of the same preposition are centred among one core meaning and the other meanings, spatial and non-spatial different meanings are extended from that central meaning. Most cognitive linguists who are in favour of this suggestion (Lindstomberg, 1996, 2010; Tyler and Evans, 2003, 2005) argue that presenting the

meanings of spatial prepositions in this organised way will more probably help L2/FL learners acquire the use of most meanings of spatial prepositions. Cognitive linguists (Morimoto & Loewen, 2007) refer to presenting the meanings of a word – including spatial prepositions – and the relationships between these meanings in an organised way as Image-Schema-Based Instruction (ISBI). According to Morimoto and Loewen (2007), the aim of ISBI is not merely to present the different senses of a particular word, but also to “provide learners with a basis on which they can effectively process the various meanings in subsequent input” (p. 351). This means that when using this cognitive method, learners will not only be provided with knowledge about the word and the different meanings of that word, but they will also understand how these meanings are derived from the prototypical one; hence, learners will be helped to use and remember this word better after storing it in the short and long term memories.

3.1.2. Using Pictures to Teach Spatial Prepositions

Using words to explain the use of spatial prepositions constitutes only one aspect of how spatial prepositions can be taught. According to Klasone (2013), things that can be seen – such as pictures – play an enormous role in teaching spatial prepositions. Klasone (2013) explains that when teachers use pictures they provide learners with opportunities to see aspects of the world that exists beyond the classroom environment, which contributes to enriching learners’ experiences as they try to describe them; while doing so, they unavoidably use spatial prepositions to locate some items, people or events in the pictures in relation with others.

Moreover, Quinn (2011) states that pictures are useful in learning spatial prepositions. He argues that “[f]undamental [...] to gaining entrance into the world of prepositions is the ability to visualize spatial relationships” (pp. 1-2). This means that pictures are essential to learning spatial prepositions, which will in turn help in acquiring spatial notions. According

to Quinn (2011), teachers should use pictures along with prepositions to explain spatial notions to the learners. This could be done in spoken language by presenting pictures as contexts and having learners describe items in the pictures in relation to other items using spatial prepositions, or it could be practised in written language where the learners will be requested to produce paragraphs or essays about specific scenes or particular items presented in pictures through the use of spatial prepositions. In either case, Quinn (2011) insists, using both pictures and spatial prepositions ensures the best means for explaining spatial concepts. Nevertheless, learners are less exposed to visual aids as means to learn L2/FL items as they advance in the process of language acquisition; most teachers would use pictures more frequently with learners at early stages of L2/FL teaching and learning, and avoid using them at more advanced stages (Quinn, 2011).

Accordingly, using pictures is considered a helpful medium when teaching spatial prepositions.

3.2. Practising Spatial Prepositions

Practising spatial prepositions is closely related to the type of Grammar practice. One of the ways to practise Grammar is written discourse, which is assumed to have advantages. Similarly, spatial prepositions can be practised through the spatial descriptive paragraph.

3.2.1. Types of Grammar Practice

Practice is an important phase that follows the presentation stage in learning L2/FL. Practice is the term given in language teaching/learning to the phase of giving the learners the chance to use the new item(s) correctly (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas, 1980). It is, then, the period of language learning where learners try to perform the new item to be learnt. This term can be used in a general sense to mean all types of practice (Littlewood, 1981; Ur, 1999; Penston, 2005; Ortega, 2007). It can be used in a specific sense, which is controlled practice, while the other types are included in the production stage

(Broughton, et al., 1980; Pawlak, 2011). In the following sections, the term practice will be used in the general sense of its use.

In the Grammar class, practice can have different forms and types that can be used in the classroom depending on the learners' knowledge, their level, their needs and the item taught. According to Broughton, et al. (1980), practice can have different forms, whether writing, speaking, listening or reading; this means that in order to put the components of language – vocabulary and grammar – in practice, teachers can use any of the four skills.

There are many types of practising Grammar that the teacher can use, depending on many factors such as the level of dependence on the teacher, its form, reception or production, and the aim of the teacher as fluency and/or accuracy. According to Ur (1999), there are seven types of Grammar practice activities, ordered in the following from the most controlled one to the most communicative: awareness drill, controlled drill, meaningful drill, guided meaningful practice, structure-based free sentence composition, structure-based discourse composition, and free discourse.

Ur (1999) defines awareness as the type of practice that allows learners to identify the structure or item of grammar in a sort of discourse. That is to say, the learners are supposed to focus and concentrate on the form and/or meaning of the structure or the item introduced before among other structures and items in the same passage. An example of this activity is when the learners are asked to read and identify all the verbs conjugated in the past simple tense in a paragraph.

Controlled drills, or structural practice (Littlewood, 1981), refer to the repetition of the structure or item taught, and the vocabulary items used are identified by the teacher (Ur, 1999). Controlled drills are the activities in which the learners are asked to repeat the form or structure with identified words that can be used. This means that the focus is only on the performance using a particular structure. For example, the teacher writes the following

model in the following way and asks the learner to repeat what he writes: *John played football yesterday; visited a friend/last week; studied German/last year; went to the cinema/two days ago.*

Meaningful drills are quite similar to the controlled drills, except that in the former the learners have more choice than in the latter (Ur, 1999). To say it differently, the learners have to repeat the same structure, but the teacher can give them a limited number of options in terms of the words used. For example, the teacher asks one of the learners to say what they did the day before among a list of options; to play football, to go to the university, to visit the family, to meet friends.

In guided meaningful practice, the learners are directed to use a specific structure or item, but the words they use are of their own choice (Ur, 1999). The teacher guides the learners to practise the use of a structure or an item proposing the pattern, but the learners can use vocabulary items that they choose on their own. For example, when the teacher asks the learner '*What is your plan for after the school*', the learner will answer using the form of the near future '*I am going to*' or '*I am due to*'. These two last types are what Littlewood (1981) stresses relating structure to communicative function, like dialogues or description where learners' responses are more related to real-life and not merely sentences out of their context.

Structure-based activities relates language to a specific meaning in which learners' responses reveal non-linguistic features like a picture, and personal knowledge (Littlewood, 1981). Ur (1999) explains that, in structure-based free sentence composition, learners are given a clue or a picture, and they are guided to use a specific structure using their own sentences. Learners are supposed to respond to a situational sign or to a picture using their own sentences and the structure taught. For example, the teacher asks the learners to describe a room shown in a picture to practise the use of spatial prepositions.

Structure-based discourse composition gives the learners more freedom in using other structures in addition to the one taught through writing or having a discussion according to a specific task given by the teacher (Ur, 1999). Learners are given a topic to speak or write about and are asked to include a specific structure while using different forms that the learners can use. The teacher asks the learners, for instance, to speak about their dreams – what they have achieved, what they have not realised yet and what they expect to achieve in the future – and directs them to use the past tenses, present tenses and the future tenses; however, learners are free to use other grammatical items – like modals and conjunctions – and other forms – like conditional sentences – in addition to the different tenses suggested by the teacher.

Free discourse is similar to the previous one but without directing the learners to use neither a specific form nor a specific item (Ur, 1999). The learners are given a topic to write or speak about, and they have freedom in choosing the vocabulary items and forms to use. Similarly to the example given previously, learners are asked to speak or write about their dreams without being directed nor instructed about the structures and items they are supposed to use. In the following three types of activities: structure-based free sentence compositions, structure-based discourse composition and free discourse, learners are not only reacting and responding but are also interacting and exchanging meaning; they try to relate language items to social contexts.

There are many factors that could affect the choice of the type of practice. The first factor is the level of the learner. According to Broughton et al. (1980), the simplest activities are the more controlled ones, like Yes/No questions or a close procedure activity. Hence, when the learners are beginners, it is better to use one of the controlled practice activities. The second factor, according to Littlewood (1981), is the aim of the teacher, whether understanding the rule or developing automaticity in using it. When the teacher first presents

the rule aiming at making learners primarily understand it, it is preferable to use the controlled types of practice; however, if the teacher's aim is helping the learners develop automatic use of the rule or the new item, more communicative types of practice are chosen. In all cases, it is recommended to have a variety of types of practice. To improve learners' accuracy and automaticity simultaneously and motivate them, teachers make different types of practice depending on the stage of the lesson and the learners' prior knowledge of a particular item or structure.

MODALITY:	Spoken Written
LANGUAGE DOMAIN:	Word-level Sentence-level Discourse-level
MODE:	Comprehension < Interaction > Production
DEGREE OF MEANINGFULNESS:	Focus on meaning < Focus on form > Focus on Forms
DEGREE OF TASK-INTEGRATION OF A FORM:	Natural > Useful > Essential

Table 3.1: Some Basic Options in the Design of Second Language Practice (Ortega, 2007: 182)

Designing L2/FL practice follows specific steps in order to be effective. These steps cover the form practice will take (spoken or written) and what it targets as language item (word, sentence or discourse). Another step is considering the cognitive abilities requested by the practice (comprehension, interaction or production). In addition, practice has to include the degree of importance given to meaning or form, and how forms should be dealt with within the task – whether form is crucial, is used for a specific purpose, or is used as part of natural discourse.

3.2.2. Advantages of Practising Grammar through Written Discourse

Although there are approaches to teaching Grammar in L2/FL contexts that insist on teaching Grammar using drilling and sentence-level ways to help learners master its rules, there are other approaches, such as the Communicative Approach, that argue in favour of

doing it in context and through discourse – whether spoken or written – because of the advantages that learners may gain (Celce-Murcia, 2002; Byrd, 2005).

Williams (2003) explains that teaching the parts of speech and the different rules that structure language will not alone help learners to use words correctly to communicate meanings. In fact, since the ultimate aim of learning a language is communication, teaching grammatical elements and rules that govern word order separately will not always be enough to make learners able to achieve this aim. Cook-Hirai, Borrego, Garza, Kloock, Wakelee and Murray (2010) insist that teaching Grammar through written activities helps learners achieve communicative purposes more than traditional Grammar instruction does. Consequently, one of the advantages of teaching Grammar in context and through writing is teaching learners how to use their knowledge of language in real-life.

Another advantage of teaching Grammar through writing is improving learners' writing skills better than teaching Grammar in isolation (Weaver, 1996a, 1996b). When teaching Grammar in context, learners will not only practise the grammatical rules or items, but they will practise the writing skills as well. As a result, teaching Grammar and teaching Writing will be integrated together in one practice.

A further advantage of teaching Grammar through written discourse is making the learners aware of the difference between grammar and usage. Kane (1988) points out that those difficulties of grammar and of usage are sometimes confused. Distinguishing grammar and usage is sometimes difficult because learners may think that sentences are not acceptable if they are ungrammatical while, in fact, they are grammatical but their problem is with usage. According to Williams (2003), usage deals with the way one uses language in certain situations. In other words, while grammar is about the structure of language, usage is about choosing the appropriate structure for the appropriate situation. Hence, there can be many structures to express one meaning, but only a specific form may fit a specific situation.

Nunan (1998) and Williams (2003) suggest to practise different Grammar rules, structures and elements in different contexts so that learners may learn when to use different forms to convey different communicative meanings and, eventually, may learn grammar and usage at the same time. For this reason, practising Grammar through productive skills like writing could help learners practise the different structures and the possible appropriate usages for these structures. For example, both sentences '*He threw the ball to me*' and '*He threw the ball at me*' are grammatical, but depending on the situation whether to express an aggressive way of throwing or a friendly way, only one is possible. Usage also includes conventions of formal and non-formal, standard and non-standard situations; thus, using Grammar in written discourse can make the learners practise and learn how to make the difference between grammatical structures that can be used in formal or standard situation, and the structure that can be used in non-formal, non-standard situation (Kane, 1988; Clark, 2003; Williams, 2003).

3.2.3. The Spatial Descriptive Paragraph: Practice of Spatial Prepositions

The English paragraph can have different functions, among which the spatial descriptive one.

3.2.3.1. Characteristics of a Paragraph

English written texts are composed of at least one paragraph. Smalley Ruetten and Kozyrev (2001) define a paragraph as a group of sentences developing one main idea. Hence, the topic of the paragraph is related to one central idea. Jordan (1999) insists that most formal English written productions are organised in the same way – an introduction, development of the main idea(s), and a conclusion; a paragraph is also organised this way. Thus, a paragraph has an introductory part, which is the first sentence, called the topic sentence. It contains the theme and topic of the paragraph. The developmental part consists of the group of sentences called the supporting ideas that follow, explain, support and give further

information about the topic sentence. The concluding part is the last sentence of the paragraph; it is a summary of what is said in the paragraph (Savage & Shafiei, 2007).

Jordan (1999) and Savage and Shafiei (2007) divide the topic sentence into the *topic* and the *controlling idea*, which is the explanation that the writer wants to speak about in relation to the topic. For example, *my classmates organised a beautiful party for me*. *My classmate* is the topic and *organised a beautiful party for me* is the controlling idea. The supporting sentences can be about a description of *the party* and its reason and how they organised it. The concluding idea may be a reformulation of the topic sentence.

Unlike other languages' writing patterns, the English paragraph is said to have a linear straight pattern as it presents information in a straight direct way as shown in Figure 3.1 (Kaplan, 1966: 14; cited in Brown, 2002: 337).

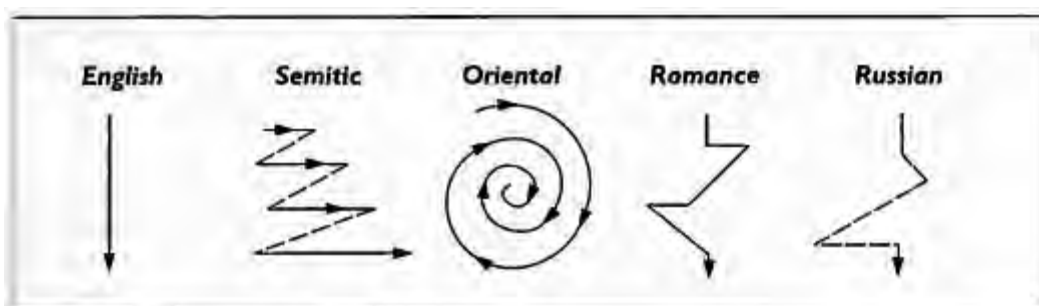


Figure 3.1: Patterns of Discourse in Different Languages

Another feature of the English paragraph is *unity*, which Smalley et al. (2001) define as the case where all the sentences of a paragraph are related to and support the topic sentence. When writing a paragraph, learners must make sure that the sentences they write are related to the topic sentence, and more specifically to the controlling idea; otherwise, any irrelevant sentence to the controlling idea will cause a lack of unity of the paragraph. For example, in the topic sentence in the previous example – *my classmates organised a beautiful party for me*, the paragraph to be written should not contain information that does not have a relation to the topic of *the party* or *its organisation* in order to have a unified paragraph.

Cohesion and *coherence* are two other characteristics of a paragraph. *Cohesion* is the surface link between clauses and sentences of the paragraph, whether lexical links or grammatical links. *Coherence*, on the other hand, is the feeling that all the text is related together (McCarthy, 1991). Cohesion is the way sentences and clauses are structurally related to each other; in the example ‘*Claire is a good friend. She never forgets my birthday*’, the two sentences are cohesive because they are related with the grammatical cohesive device of the pronoun reference (*Claire* and *she*). Coherence is the logical relation of the ideas in the paragraph in which each idea leads to the one after it. For this reason, cohesion and coherence are not the same because a paragraph can be cohesive but not coherent. For example, saying ‘*Claire is a good friend. She likes potatoes a lot*’, is cohesive but not coherent because there is no logical relation between being a good friend and liking potatoes. According to Jordan (1999), coherence can be achieved through physical, chronological, or importance order depending on the purpose and topic of the paragraph. While cohesion can be achieved through lexical or grammatical devices, coherence can be achieved through ordering information according to a specific logical basis depending on the type and goal of the paragraph and its topic.

Another characteristic in writing an English paragraph is using punctuation. Hinkel (2004) argues that an English text cannot be accurate without punctuation marks no matter how grammatical its sentences are. This means that it is impossible to produce an English paragraph that can be accurate and coherent without using the appropriate punctuation. The reason behind the importance of punctuation is its role in clarifying and presenting the meaning of ideas (Lems, Miller & Soro, 2010). That is to say, using punctuation is important because it adds meanings and clarifies others; for instance, using a semi-colon or a period to separate two clauses is almost the same, but using a semi-colon indicates that the two clauses are more closely related than when using a period.

The last point to be mentioned concerning paragraph writing is its purpose and its intended reader. According to Hunt (1994), the purpose of writing a paragraph and the intended reader by the paragraph have great influence on the structure and vocabulary that can be used. The structures of the different sentences forming the paragraph, the words and the conventions are all controlled by the purpose of the topic and its intended reader. Jordan (1999) points out that there are different functions that can be expressed depending on the communicative purpose of the topic; description, narration, definition, comparison and so on. Hence, the purpose of the written text can identify the function of that text which, itself, controls the way the paragraph should be organised and written. Similarly, identifying to who the text is directed determines the structure of the sentences included in the paragraph, the words forming them and the conventions governing the structure of the paragraph (Hunt, 1994). The intended reader's background knowledge and level regulate the number and quality of the ideas forming the supporting sentences of the paragraph.

3.2.3.2. The Spatial Descriptive Paragraph

Description is one of the functions expressed in written texts in English. Savage and Shafiei (2007: 34) state that the “descriptive paragraph describes a person, a place or thing so that the reader can picture it in his or her mind”. The descriptive paragraph aims at giving information about a person, place or a thing so that the reader can imagine it. One of the requirements of a descriptive paragraph is the presentation of a great number of details (Jordan, 1999). For the purpose of making the subject of description clear, the writer has to entail as many details as possible. Jordan (1999) indicates that the tense used to introduce these details is the Present Simple, whether in the active or the passive voice because it presents real information about a present status. However, the past tense can also be used in certain situations when the description is concerned with a past experience.

The spatial descriptive paragraph is one kind of descriptive paragraphs. Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (2006) define the spatial descriptive paragraph as giving information about the location of a place, the direction to or from a place or how a set of objects are placed or related to an object (a room, an instrument, an experiment). Thus, when writing a spatial descriptive text, focus is on details about the spatial physical scene being described, whether its location or the way to get to its components. Jordan (1999) and Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (2006) suggest to use visual supports to help in description. Visual aids – such as maps, pictures and diagrams – can help in stimulating the spatial descriptive paragraph; nevertheless, writers can describe objects without using these aids but based on their real-life experience. Since the main goal in writing the descriptive paragraph is to make the image clear enough for the reader, the ideas of description should first be well-organised. Smalley et al. (2001: 62) label the type of organisation used in description “spatial organisation” in which the ideas are logically ordered according to the space and location of objects. Therefore, the physical appearance of the subject of description and logical presentation of the sentences are the bases for spatial descriptive writing.

Smalley et al. (2001) suggest an analogy to explain how to arrange ideas as exemplifying the reader as a painter who draws the scene the writer wants to describe according to his/her words, whether from right to left, from left to right, from bottom to top or from top to bottom. Hence, the writer of a spatial descriptive paragraph should use his/her words and sentences the same way s/he wants the painting of that scene to look like, starting from a specific point to get to another in a physical logical pattern. Consequently, at the end of the paragraph, the reader will be able to have a clear mind-image about the scene. Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (2006: 10) suggest two ways of organising a place description, one through “a bird’s eye view” and the other through “a pedestrian view”. The first way means

to describe the scene as if it is viewed from the air; the second way means to describe the scene as viewed by a walking human in it.

The second procedure in making the spatial description vivid is in the vocabulary chosen. Hutchinson (2005) insists that one key of clarifying the described object or scene is using specific nouns. Instead of using a general term like *a thing*, one can be more specific and say what this *thing* is, such as *a building*, or more specific like *a shop* or even more specific like *a bookshop*. Another way in describing the subject clearly is using adjectives and adverbs (Savage & Shafiei, 2007). Using adjectives and adverbs can serve in giving more details about the vocabulary used in the written text, and this makes the imagination of the objects more realistic and closer to the subject or the scene being described. Using spatial terms is very important in understanding the positions and directions of objects in the spatial descriptive paragraph. Jordan (1999), Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (2006) and Savage and Shafiei (2007) insist that using spatial terms is very necessary and inevitable in spatial descriptive texts. Under this view, writing an accurate and realistic spatial descriptive paragraph is conditioned by the proper use of spatial terms, adverbs of place and spatial prepositions. According to Tenbrink (2007), using spatial terms involves referring to one of the three dimensions that exist in the real world and, thus, one of the six directions. When using spatial terms, in addition to locations, one refers to the back, the front, the left, the right, the up and the down, which are the six directions that are presented in the real world. For this reason, it is not practical to speak about the concrete physical world without referring to these spatial terms. Tenbrink (2007) argues that spatial terms are, on the one hand, dependent on the concrete world and, on the other hand, context-depend. Consequently, using them in the spatial descriptive paragraph helps in identifying and limiting their meanings as well as clarifying the spatial descriptive text.

3.3. Error Correction

Learners' errors can be a helpful way to indicate the items that are learnt, those that are in the process of learning, and the knowledge that students find difficulties in leaning. Therefore, the way of explaining errors is of crucial importance. Moreover, the type of error correction may also influence the learning process depending on the context in which this type is used.

3.3.1. Explaining Errors

Many linguists explain that mistakes are distinct from errors. Students' errors can be explained in reference to two main theories: Contrastive Analysis Theory and Error Analysis Theory.

3.3.1.1. Distinction between Error and Mistake

When learning or acquiring a language, it is a natural behaviour to produce incorrect and inappropriate sentences and utterances. When learners write or speak, producing an inaccurate part of language in the process of learning L2/FL is expected and usual. However, the wrong productions of language that learners make when learning L2/FL are not all alike. According to Corder (1981), there are two types of wrong productions; mistakes and errors. Mistakes reflect incorrectness of performance, while errors reflect incorrectness of the learner's competence at a certain stage. In other words, while a mistake refers to what the learner knows but cannot perform at a certain moment, an error refers to what the learner does not really know if it is correct or wrong at a certain stage of the learning process. Ellis (2003) supports this distinction between mistake and error and suggests that there are many ways to distinguish errors and mistakes. Among these ways is checking the regularity of occurrence in the learners' productions – whether it is repeated or not. Another way is asking the learners to correct their own performance if they are able to do so. When the learner repeats the same mistake over the production or many times, it is an error and not an instant

mistake; when the learner cannot correct his/her own wrong production, it means that he does not have knowledge about that wrong point. However, according to Ellis (2003: 17), “a clear distinction between an error and a mistake may not [always] be possible”; it is sometimes difficult, and maybe even impossible, to make the distinction between errors and mistakes.

Edge (1989: 2), nevertheless, uses the word *mistake* as a general term to mean all the different misused forms of producing language; any wrong, incorrect, or inappropriate use of language by native or non-native speakers is a mistake. Edge (1989) argues that there are many forms of mistakes. A slip is the mistake that the learner can correct himself/herself immediately after making it, an error is when the learner cannot correct his/her mistake but the class is familiar with the correct form, and an attempt is the learner’s mistake when s/he has not learnt yet the necessary language to express what s/he wants to say or when what s/he wants to say is not clear (Edge, 1989: 9-10). In other words, it depends on whether the learner can correct his/her mistake or not to consider it a slip or an error; if the communication is not successful at all or is very successful but the learner has not learned yet how to express what s/he wants to say, it is an attempt.

Many researchers (Edge, 1989; Truscott, 1996; Ferris, 2003) have made the difference between two types of errors; errors that affect communication that are errors of meaning and errors that affect the structure of language and that are errors of forms. Errors of communication, whether spoken or written, affect the exchanged meanings – like errors in word choice or in appropriateness when using certain words in certain contexts. Conversely, errors of structure affect the grammatical structure of language – like errors of the tense of verbs, articles, and the structure sequence. According to Corder (1981), errors can help teachers to know how much the learner has learnt and how much s/he needs to learn, can help researchers to have evidence on how language is acquired, and can help learners in

testing their development in the learning process. This means that errors can have a great role for teachers to test their achieved objectives, for learners to test their progress in the process of learning, and for researchers to collect data about effective approaches, methods and techniques of teaching a language.

3.3.1.2. Contrastive Analysis Theory

In the 1940s and 1950s, learners' errors had been analysed based on Contrastive Analysis Theory (CAT). Fries (1945, reprinted in 1972) states that "the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner" (p. 9). Teaching materials and content should be based on a scientific description of both the Target Language (TL) and the mother tongue, and built on a comparison between the elements and structures of both languages. This comparison results in identifying similarities and differences between the L1 and the TL's systems.

According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982), teachers and researchers can predict that similarities between the L1 and the TL will be learnt easily by L2/FL learners and that differences between both languages will cause difficulties. Dulay et al. (1982: 97) name the influence of the similarities between both languages the L1 and the TL as "positive transfer", and the difficulties caused by the differences between both languages as "negative transfer". In other words, areas that can be considered difficult or easy to be learnt can be predicted through the scientific comparison between language systems, and elements of the mother tongue and the TL. Therefore, teaching L2/FL should be based on L1 learners' knowledge about their mother tongue system.

Wardhaugh (1970) distinguishes between the strong form and weak form of CAT. According to him, the strong version is built on predicting the learners' errors based on the differences between languages and their cultures, while the weak version is based on

explaining the errors caused by negative transfer after they occur. In other words, the strong version of CAT is used as predicting the learners' errors before they occur based on the differences between the languages; the weak version is used in explaining the errors after they occur through the negative influence of the mother tongue. In both versions of the CAT, all learners' errors, whether predictable or explained, are caused by the influence of the mother tongue.

3.3.1.3. Error Analysis Theory

Error Analysis Theory has appeared after the criticism given to CAT. Since many language errors in L2/FL are found in areas similar to those in L1, and since there are many structures and elements in the TL totally different from those in L1, and yet many learners do not make errors in using them, CAT proved its weakness in dealing with all errors of L2/FL learners (James, 1998). CAT's explanation of errors is not always effective because its assumption is sometime ineffective, and it is comprehensive as it does not provide an explanation for all the errors.

On the other hand, according to Corder (1981), Error Analysis Theory deals with all possible reasons that could cause learners' errors whether related to L1 or L2/FL. It deals with all the learners' errors and all their possible reasons without prediction and without being restricted only to the mother tongue. Richards (1997) explains that error analysis is built on the comparison between the learners' language in the TL and an adult native language speaker of the same TL. This means that in order to decide if the performance of a learner is an error and to analyse learners' errors, there should be a comparison between the TL performed by the learner and the production of an adult native speaker of the same language.

Corder (1981) suggests three steps for error analysis procedure; collecting data, describing the data, then explaining the causes of the errors, which is the ultimate aim for

error analysis. The first stage is to collect the data of errors which can be found only in the learner's language, the second stage consists of identifying the erroneous performance, and the third stage is related to explaining their possible causes. Selinker (1992), however, suggests six steps of error analysis; collecting the data, identifying the learner's errors, classifying the errors, quantifying the errors, explaining the reasons of the errors, and reacting toward these errors. This means that after collecting the corpus of the learners' language and identifying the deviant performance, errors should be classified according to the point mistaken, whether they affect Grammar – grammatical element or structure – meaning, pronunciation or appropriateness; they should then be counted and explained in terms of the possible reasons behind them and, finally, there comes finding different ways to respond to these errors, starting with the possibility to correct them or identifying new methods to teach how those erroneous elements should be performed correctly.

Error analysis focuses its study on the language used by the learner. The learner's language is what the learner produces during the process of learning the TL, with all the errors that he commits at a particular point during this process (Richards, 1974). The learner's language is the subject of analysis when trying to achieve the objectives of error analysis because it reflects the extent of a learner's knowledge at a particular stage. This term has received different names. Corder (1981: 9) calls it "transitional competence" because what is significant in the process of teaching and learning are the errors that reflect the level of competence of the learner, not the mistakes that are related to a wrong performance. It is transitional because the learners' knowledge about language is changeable and developing. For example, the error that a learner used to make a month ago might not be made this month as a part of the process of learning. Corder (1981: 15) also names the learner's language "idiosyncratic dialect". It is idiosyncratic because it is different from one learner to another; it is related to one individual only, and it is a dialect because this language

contains a set of rules that result from the combination of both sets of rules of the mother tongue and of the TL, in addition to a set of rules that the learner builds according to the strategies s/he uses to facilitate his/her learning. Corder (1981: 14) suggests the following figure to explain idiosyncratic dialect.

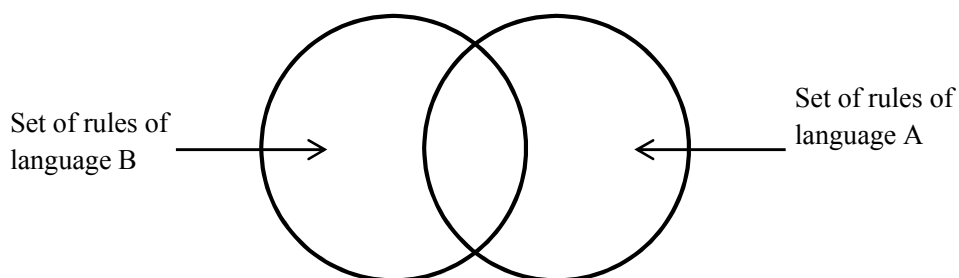


Figure 3.2: The Learner’s Language as Idiosyncratic Dialect

Selinker (1972) presents interlanguage as another label for the learner’s language. According to him, the interlanguage is “the existence of a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from the learner’s attempted production of TL norm” (p. 35). Interlanguage is defined as the individual attempts of the learner to produce a meaningful performance based on the models of the TL.

Making errors in L2/FL learning is due to many reasons. According to Ellis (2003), many errors in learning L2/FL are universal, and a large number of them are predictable; the error that can be made by a learner of L2/FL is possibly made by many others learning the same language as L2/FL. They are predictable as well because the reasons of making errors are shared by most L2/FL learners. For example, when learning English as L2/FL, many learners find a difficulty in using prepositions appropriately.

Richards (1974) has divided the errors made by learners according to the different reasons behind them into two categories; interlanguage errors, which are caused by the learner’s mother tongue, and intralingual errors that are caused by the TL itself regardless of the mother tongue of the learner (p. 173). Errors can be caused by the interference of the learner’s mother language or by the influence of the TL itself. The first type of errors refers

to interlanguage errors; the first reason that could influence the learner in learning L2/FL, in general, is his/her mother tongue (Edge, 1989). Some learners would like to use the knowledge they have about their first language to make it fit the L2/FL. For example, a French learner would say '*A woman is walking under the rain*' instead of '*A woman is walking in the rain*' as influenced by his/her mother tongue sentence '*Une femme marche sous la pluie*'. Ellis (2003: 19) names the errors due to this reason "transfer errors". Lavery (2001: 27) explains that the mother tongue can influence the learning of L2/FL in many ways; interference from the mother tongue, direct translation, and false friends. The first refers to an unconscious way of applying the culture of one society on another when trying to express the world, the second refers to a conscious way of using the mother language's structures and expressions while using the TL's words to produce the TL meanings, and the third refers to using words that have the same form in two languages but that have totally different meanings (Lavery, 2001). The mother tongue can affect learning L2/FL negatively. This can be conscious as when learners translate the sentence word by word from their native language without taking into consideration the structural differences. For example, an Arab learner of English may say '*He is working today?*' to mean '*Is he working today?*' because s/he translates word for word without bearing any consideration for the structural distinction between Arabic and English. This negative effect can also be unconscious, especially when the intended performance has a relation with cultural and social differences between speaking communities. Another example, French learners of English would find difficulties in using the Present Continuous because it does not exist in French. The last form of effect of the mother tongue is due to forms of words which seem the same but have different meanings, especially among languages that have the same origins; for example, the word *control* in English is not the same as the word *control* in French since in English, it means '*order, limit or rule something or someone*', while the word in French means '*exam*'.

The second reason is related to the process of learning TL itself. According to Richards (1974: 174), intralingual errors are the ones that are related to the TL rule learning; they may be due to “faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply”. This means that intralingual errors are related to the process of learning the TL. Intralingual errors include generalising the rule; for example, when the learner says ‘*She practise sport every day*’ instead of ‘*She practises sport every day*’, s/he makes a generalisation of the rule of the Present Simple, which is applied to all the personal subject pronouns except third person singular pronouns. Another form of intralingual errors is the incomplete application of the rules, which means that some structures are learnt before others; when the learner uses an easy structure to refer to the other structure that has not been learnt well yet, s/he is trying to make use of what s/he thinks s/he has learnt well, like when using the declarative sentence with the appropriate intonation to form the interrogative sentence, or simply adding the WH-question word. Learners sometimes think that they master a rule but, in fact, they do not (Edge, 1989). For example, when using the past tense in English, learners would say ‘*I putted my books in the schoolbag*’ instead of ‘*I put my books in the schools bag*’ because they think that they know enough about forming the past tense and use the rule they know about adding *-ed* to the stem. Richards (1974) suggests that this type of errors can be found in the production of the native speakers during the first stages of acquiring and performing their language; he names these errors “developmental errors” (p. 174) because they appear as a part of the child developmental process in acquiring the language. Many children whose mother tongue is English have problems when they try to form the past, forget to add the ‘*-s*’ to the verb in the Present Simple with the third person singular, or say ‘*childs*’ instead of ‘*children*’ during the first years of speaking. According to Ellis (2003: 19), this type of errors is due to learners’ over-generalisation of the rule they know and find easy to learn. The last form of intralingual

errors is found when the learner has mistaken comprehension of the distinction between rules and elements, like the distinction between *too*, *so* and *very*.

The last reason is common between native and non-native speakers. Some wrong productions of the language can be due to stress, tiredness or other instant conditions (Edge, 1989). All speakers of a particular language whether as their mother tongue or L2/FL may make slips of tongue when they are under some conditions, like pressure of communication, thinking about something else or tiredness. Since the cause of such a mistake is not permanent, these mistakes are not permanent either. Consequently, the speaker who makes such a mistake does not reflect a problem in his/her knowledge concerning it but, under some other conditions, s/he may produce it correctly.

3.3.2. Error Correction: Theories, Types and Spatial Prepositions

After identifying and explaining the errors, teachers and researchers are supposed to use the gained information in their teaching materials and syllabus. One way of dealing with errors is feedback. Feedback is composed of responding and error correction (Harmer, 2004). There is a considerable debate among researchers about the importance and the effectiveness of error correction and their different types. As a problematic area in language teaching and learning, error correction of spatial prepositions should receive specific attention from both teachers and researchers.

3.3.2.1. Theories of Error Correction

Many studies are in favour of using error correction in the classroom to enhance language learning and mainly language accuracy. According to Selinker (1972), error correction helps in making the interlanguage look like the TL; because errors are a window to the points of language that have not been learnt well, correcting them may help in emphasising those weak points and, hence, develop the learner's language to be like the TL. Ferris (2003) emphasises the effectiveness of feedback, in general, in helping the learners to

learn from others' responses and to strengthen learning and make it better. In other words, when provided with feedback, whether responding or error correcting, learners are likely to correct the wrong knowledge they have and to reinforce the corrected one. One of the reasons why many researchers believe in the usefulness of error correction is enhancing the learning process. Noticing is an important factor in the process of learning that can be enhanced through error correction (Ellis, 1992, 1998). Ellis (1992) defines noticing as the process of paying attention to a specific feature in language learning. When learners' errors are corrected, learners notice the difference between their version of that point of language and the correct one and, thus, they become aware of it. According to Brown (2007), noticing is an important stage in the continuum of the process of making language knowledge more implicit; after learning a feature and then noticing its wrong use and its correct form, learners can use this feature correctly in communication easily. Another reason for using error correction is the attitude of the learner towards its use. Rivers (1981) insists on the fact that errors in learners' writing should be corrected systematically; otherwise, learners may get the habit to use language wrongly and that may be very difficult to change afterwards. If learners are allowed to make mistakes without correcting them, they will keep making them thinking their use is right. According to Woolfolk (2004), Lasagabaster and Sieria (2005) and Penston (2005), most learners of L2/FL wait for error correction because they prefer their mistakes to be corrected. Woolfolk (2004) stipulates that when learners' mistakes are not corrected, learners would more probably repeat them. When learners produce language, they look forward to know if they make any mistake, and if so, they seek their correction so that they do not make them again. Brown (2007) points out that errors must be highlighted. Not drawing the learners' attention to their errors will cause "fossilization" which he defined as "[t]he relatively permanent incorporation of incorrect linguistic forms into a person's second language competence" (Brown, 2007: 270). In other words, when learners' wrong

use of the language is not corrected, learners will build wrong lasting knowledge about that point of language, and will be related to its use. Nevertheless, these opinions supporting error correction could not reach an agreement concerning the best type of error correction nor concerning how error correction should be implemented (Loewen, Li, Fei, Thompson, Nakatsukasa, Ahn & Chen, 2009).

Despite the great amount of evidence in favour of error correction, there are still some opinions against it.

Some researchers strongly agree that grammatical error correction is neither effective nor helpful for the learner. Although Hendrickson (1978) states that error correction is only ineffective during the process of acquisition, Krashen (1982) expresses ineffectiveness of error correction whether during the process of acquisition or of learning because, according to him, comprehensible input is the most important in learning rather than learner's output, which contains errors that may require correction. Krashen (1982) argues that error correction cannot influence the natural predictable subconscious order of language acquisition because it is different from the conscious order that is taught in the classroom. In other words, language is acquired unconsciously in specific predictable stages that are not the same like those taught in the classroom; for this reason, error correction is a conscious factor that cannot have any effect on this process nor on these stages. Krashen (1982) draws attention to the fact that not all that is taught in the classroom is acquired, and if it is acquired then it is not in the same order in which it is taught; he states that any learner will acquire a specific rule when he is ready for that. Truscott (1996) does not only support the ineffectiveness of Grammar error correction, but he also argues that it has harmful effects on L2 learners' accuracy when writing. Truscott (1996) bases his attitude on many arguments. The first argument is his analysis of research done at the basis of L1 acquisition, which argues against using error correction, and then his comparison between L1 acquisition

and L2 learning processes. His second argument is derived from the different conclusions drawn from different studies about the use of error correction in L2 learning regardless of many variables that may affect those conclusions. Such factors are situational, linguistic and personal (Havranek, 2002), like the difference between L2 and FL learning, the age of the learners, the type of correction, the time of correction and so on. Another argument is related to learning Grammar itself; Truscott (1996) states that grammatical error correction is not promising because it “rely[s] on transfer of the knowledge, without any concern for the processes underlying the development of language system” (p. 343). Grammatical error correction is a process that contradicts the development of the language system because language development depends on the unconscious knowledge of the correct forms without necessarily knowing the rules underlying them. This evidence is similar to the tenet of the theory given by Krashen (1982) concerning L1 acquisition and the influence of error correction in it. Truscott (1996) explains also that error correction can be time consuming and a hindrance to learners’ motivation. Error correction is considered time consuming for teachers and learners who can both use that time to facilitate the learning of one point. Similarly, error correction is found to be not motivating for learners because it sometimes affects negatively some learners’ self-esteem. However, Ferris (1999) disagrees with this opinion and states that Truscott’s position is “based on limited, dated, incomplete and inconclusive evidence” (p. 9). According to Ferris (1999), the disagreement with Truscott (1996) is based on his partial out-dated and questionable data that belongs to studies that did not take into consideration all parameters of error correction.

3.3.2.2. Types of Error Correction

There are different types of error correction that can be used depending on the teacher’s aim and his/her classroom conditions. These types are divided according to three factors which are: the level of selection of errors to be corrected, the level of explicitness of

correction, and who corrects the errors. The first factor that determines the type of error correction the teacher can opt for is the level of selection of the errors to be corrected; error correction can be selective or comprehensive, which are also called respectively focused and unfocused error correction (Ellis, Sheen, Murakami & Takashima, 2008). Truscott (2001) defines selective error correction as the technique of selecting errors to be corrected, and comprehensive error correction as correcting all the errors produced in the learner's writing. Some researchers (Ur, 1999; Truscott, 2001, Ellis et al., 2008) are in favour of selective error correction because it is more encouraging and focused for learners than comprehensive error correction, which is time consuming for teachers. However, there are some other researchers who think that all errors should be corrected as soon as they happen to avoid having them repeated. The reason for using selective error correction is, according to some researchers, to make learners more encouraged during correction while, for other researchers (Savage, Bitterlin & Price, 2010), learners may feel confused about what is right and what is wrong if not all learners' errors are corrected.

The researchers who emphasise the importance of selective error correction have different bases for selecting the errors to be corrected. According to Bartram and Walton (1991), correcting errors is based on the major aim of the classroom activity, whether communication or accuracy. Therefore, the teacher may select the errors to be corrected after identifying the aim of his lesson so that the selected errors are either those that affect communication or those that affect accuracy. Ur (1999) suggests that selecting errors to be corrected should be according to their importance, which is based on the frequency of the error and the extent of affecting the meaning. In other words, teachers should focus their correction on learners' important errors, and the importance of errors is identified when these errors happen frequently and recurrently hinder the meaning. Truscott (2001) argues that the basis of selecting the errors to be corrected is *correctability*, which he identifies as the

characteristic of errors that “are likely to be eliminated or reduced by correction” (p. 93). Teachers are advised to correct errors that are unlikely to be repeated by learners after correction. The level of correctability is based on “simplicity” and “discreteness” of errors (Truscott, 2001: 95). To say it differently, the most correctable errors are the simplest ones, those that are governed by simple rules and whose correction learners can understand, in addition to errors whose uses are the most independent from context. Consequently, the simpler and the straighter forward the production of language is and the less related to context it may be, the more correctable it is and the more focus teachers should have when correcting their learners’ errors. In all cases, Harmer (2007) insists that learners should be told that the correction of errors is going to be selective and to identify for them the basis of selection. Informing the learners about the selective type may make them understand directly or indirectly that there are other errors that will not be focused on, and not correcting them does not mean they are correct.

The second factor that identifies the type of error correction is the level of explicitness when identifying and correcting the learners’ errors. Error correction can vary in a continuum of explicitness from totally direct to totally indirect. Savage et al. (2010) define overt error correction as the teacher clearly giving the correct form of the error and usually the learners are required to repeat it, while indirect error correction is seen as a technique that leads the learners to correct the errors themselves. In other words, while direct correction is used when the teacher clearly identifies the error and provides its correction, indirect correction is used when the learners are directed to identify and correct their errors themselves. Lyster and Ranta (1997) identify six different types of feedback in the continuum of explicitness of error correction which are: explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic clues, elicitation and repetition. Explicit correction is the clear and direct indication of the error and its correction. Recast refers to giving the correct

answer or reformulating the learner's wrong production without indicating that it was incorrect. The difference is seen in the examples below:

Explicit Correction:

Learner: The picture is in the wall.

Teacher: The picture is on the wall, we say ON the wall not IN the wall.

Recast:

Learner: The picture is in the wall.

Teacher: The picture is ON the wall.

Recast is, therefore, less direct than explicit correction because the mistaken item is not emphasised. It is used most of the time to correct oral errors so that learners can carry on communication without hesitation. Ferris (2003) explains that direct error correction refers to the situation where "[t]he teacher can use substitution, insertion, deletion, or reformulation" (p. 143). If the teacher is to correct the learners' errors explicitly, he can use either the correct form instead of the wrong form, add the missing part, delete the additional part, or reformulate the sentence produced by the learner to fit the meaning. However, Ferris (2003) insists on the fact that direct feedback may not be that easy for it is sometimes difficult to understand the learner's intention, and the teacher feels obliged to rewrite the entire learner's production to present something meaningful. This means that in some cases when the learner's error is not clear nor is his/her purpose, or when s/he produces many errors, it becomes impossible to correct his/her error explicitly because, to do so, the teacher needs to rewrite the whole learner's production. Two other feedback techniques are proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997), metalinguistic clues and clarification request. Metalinguistic clues, according to Lyster and Ranta (1997), is the technique of making the learner think about his/her utterance through a question or a series of questions that requires *Yes/No* answers. Consequently, the learner is going to discover how erroneous his/her production is and may

even know the correct form without the teacher providing it. On the other hand, clarification request refers to the situation when the teacher indicates that the message of the learner's production is not understood or that there is an error or more in the production.

Metalinguistic clues:

Learner: She go everyday shopping.

Teacher: She go? Do we say "she go everyday"?

Learner: No

Clarification request:

Learner: My friend who is sitting in the front of me.

Teacher: Excuse me? What do you mean, please?

The fifth type of error correction is elicitation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Elicitation is the technique where the teacher gets the correct information from the learner directly by giving a definition or reminding the learner of the rule. It is different from metalinguistic clues in the sense that it does not rely only on *Yes/No* questions, but it requires a full answer and knowledge concerning the error. Elicitation and metalinguistic clues can be used together to correct the learner's errors. It is different from clarification request in the sense that it helps the learner to know where the error is and what its type is.

Elicitation:

Learner: He enter his room quickly.

Teacher: which tense have you just used?

Learner: The Present Simple

Teacher: How do we conjugate the verb with the pronoun he in the Present Simple?

Learner: We add '-s'

Teacher: So, we say "He ...".

The last type of error correction identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) is repetition. Repetition, as an error correction technique, is when the teacher repeats the learner's error with stress on the error so that the learner attempts to correct it. The teacher repeats the learner's wrong production with change of intonation to make the learner notice the error.

Repetition:

Learner: The book is in the desk.

Teacher: The book is IN the desk?

Bartram and Walton (1991) point out that repetition, which they name *echoing*, is not helpful for the learner because "it often sounds as if the teacher is trying to make fun of the learner" (p. 51). When the teacher repeats the learner's error with stress on it, the learner may feel humiliated or as a target of the teacher's insulation.

Ferris (2003) identifies indirect error feedback as the technique where the teacher makes the learners know that there is an error, but gives them the duty of correcting that error and s/he has the choice to help them in identifying the error and its correction or not. The teacher may use the extreme extent of indirectness in correcting the learners errors, but merely informing the learners that there is (are) error(s) and leaves it to them to identify and correct the errors, or he may help the learners in identifying and correcting the errors like it is shown in the four techniques mentioned previously. In addition to the indirect types of error correction mentioned, Lavery (2001) adds *visual correction technique*. This technique is similar to body language technique presented by Bartram and Walton (1991) and Carranza (2007). This technique is about using parts of the body like fingers, hands, and arms to show indirectly that there is an error that requires inversion or another form of correction (Lavery, 2001). For example, hands can show errors about tenses; they may show errors about the use of past, present or future (Bartram & Walton, 1991).

The choice of the error correction technique may range from very explicit error correction, to moderate explicit correction shown by indicating the error and even its type without correcting it, to very implicit error correction depending on the type of the error, the learners' level, classroom conditions and the teacher's aim in the lesson (Ferris, 2003). Teachers have different options concerning the directness of error correction, stating the error, its type and its correction clearly, identifying the error and its type without correction or stating that there is a problem without identifying the error, nor its type, nor providing its correction but allowing the learner to find it himself/herself. The written forms of identification of the error and its type also differ from underlying, circling, and highlighting to writing a question mark.

The last factor that identifies the type of error correction is who corrects the errors; whether the teacher, the peers or the learner himself/herself. Researchers recommend that the teacher is the one to correct learners' errors (Broughton et al. 1980); "[t]eacher correction is considered very important during presentation and practice" (Hedge, 2000: 178). Another alternative is the learner who may correct his/her classmate's errors or his/her own errors. Bartram and Walton (1991) suggest *peer feedback* as a form of elicitation technique where the learners are asked to help each other to identify the error(s) and correct it (them); to say it differently, peer feedback is the technique where learners are guided to identify the errors of their classmates and to try to correct them. Ur (1999) argues that peer-correction can save time and be helpful because it is considered an important activity of finding errors and correcting them. Therefore, teachers may use peer feedback as an activity in the classroom and benefit twice, once while learners are correcting each other's errors and revising their knowledge about the errors they find in their friends' production, and second when they get their errors corrected from their classmates. Ortega (2009) points out that while self-correction is helpful for the learner to be self-editing of his/her work, correction can also be

“more sociable and collects” (p. 239) if it is given by a teacher or a classmate(s). Peer feedback is a very important practice for EFL learners who share the same mother tongue. Harmer (2007) argues that for some learners, it is less passive and embarrassing to be corrected by their classmates than to be corrected by the teacher. Since some learners feel offended when the teacher corrects their errors, they may feel better and less humiliated when getting correction from their friends and classmates. However, most researchers (Ur, 1999; Harmer, 2007) insist on the guidance of the teacher during peer feedback so that s/he can help them know what they correct and how to do so. Accordingly, in peer feedback the teacher’s job is that of a facilitator and guide rather than the authority that would provide feedback, and learners will rather accept comments and corrections from their classmates than from the teacher.

The third option of allowing the learner to correct himself/herself may also be very beneficial. Broughton et al. (1980) state that self-correction is a very good method to enhance the learners’ awareness of their errors; that is to say, self-correction gives the learners a chance to revise and correct their errors and even to be aware of them to avoid repeat them. It is a way of consolidating and revising their knowledge and putting it into practice. In a study she conducted, Ferris (2002) has found that learners learn more and make fewer errors later on if they are trained to self-correct their productions. However, this result is not absolute as it cannot be the same under all the conditions like the learners’ age, level and knowledge.

The last suggestion concerning making error correction is through classroom discussion. According to Savage et al. (2010), a good way to enhance collaborative work and to avoid mistaken learners feeling offended in front of their classmates is to collect the selected errors, write them on the board without identifying who wrote them then ask volunteers to correct them. This means that the teacher is required to make error correction

as a classroom activity where most learners participate to correcting and to learning without feeling bad or humiliated in the classroom.

According to Broughton et al. (1980), feedback is very important and helpful; however, it is related to the teacher and classroom conditions to present it instantaneously or subsequently.

3.3.2.3. Error Correction of Spatial Prepositions

One of the reasons why learners make errors when using spatial prepositions is the flexible usage of this type of prepositions. This flexibility is caused mainly by the overlapping different meanings of the different spatial prepositions, as well as by the nature of the TR and the LM, and the intended meaning (Chodorow, Tetreault & Han, 2007; Klasone, 2013). When a learner uses a spatial preposition to convey a specific meaning, s/he might use the wrong spatial preposition because of the common characteristics and meanings – such as covering, contact and containment – it has with the intended spatial preposition. Moreover, the error may occur because of the learner's misconception of the TR and LM – like being static, dynamic, or higher/lower than.

Chodorow et al. (2007) further explain that the type of errors related to the use of spatial prepositions is caused by one or more of the following factors: The learners may opt for the use of the inappropriate spatial preposition instead of using the right one as in saying '*in the floor*' instead of '*on the floor*'. S/he may make an error when using spatial prepositions by using a preposition where it should not be used; for instance, s/he may say '*entered to the room*' instead of '*entered the room*'. Finally, the learner may make errors by not using a spatial preposition where it should be used, as in saying '*walk the bridge*' instead of '*walk on the bridge*'.

While correcting errors related to the use of spatial prepositions, these factors need to be taken into consideration in order to prevent the same error from occurring again.

Moreover, and to make it as effective as possible, error correction must go through three main steps. First, the error must be spotted by using adequate symbols or code, such as circling or underlining. Then, the type of error has to be identified and clearly categorised. Finally, the appropriate error correction method must be applied.

Conclusion

Teaching/learning spatial prepositions can be done through different techniques. Though they refer to abstract notions, spatial prepositions could be taught through a helpful technique which is using pictures. This technique does not only help to teach spatial prepositions, but it also serves when practising them. Whether it is oral or written, practice provides data to be processed in error correction. Error correction has been identified as a way to provide explanations and to deal with learners' errors when producing L2/FL in different ways depending on factors, such as students' age and level. This technique has been a subject of debate about the usefulness of its implementation in the language class.

Chapter Four

Second Year Students' Use of Spatial Prepositions

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4.4.3. Misuse of the Spatial Prepositions of Position and Movement

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4.5. Overall Analysis

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Introduction

To verify the effectiveness of error correction, presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions and the combination of both error correction and presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions in acquiring this type of prepositions, an experiment has been undertaken. All the way through the different stages of the experiment, comparison of the methods and the results obtained will provide a clear view of the usefulness of the procedures in the acquisition of spatial prepositions. The analysis of using spatial prepositions in this chapter is based on the number of errors made by the students when using the spatial prepositions and on the different types of these errors, naming: omission errors, word formation errors, substitution errors and addition errors. The analysis covers the use of the following spatial prepositions: spatial prepositions of position (*in, on, at, between, among, behind, in front of, beyond, near/close to, by, next to, and beside*), spatial prepositions of movement (*up, down, into, out of, through, along, to, for, and from*), and spatial prepositions of position and movement (*over, above, under, below, across, opposite to/from, and to/on the right/left of*), in addition to using the *TR* and the *LM*.

4.1. The Sample

The sample of the study is composed of 119 students collected randomly from the population chosen for the research, 800 Second Year students of English at the University “Des Frères Mentouri”, Constantine, which constitutes 15% of the population. One reason for opting for this population is that the students of this population learned how to write a paragraph, and more specifically the spatial paragraph, which is a basic condition for the experiment, and were exposed to prepositions in Grammar in their first year.

This sample is divided into four groups, one Control Group (CG), which is composed of 27 participants, and three experimental groups; the first Experimental Group (Exp. G1) is composed of 30 participants, the second Experimental Group (Exp. G2) is composed of 28

students, and the third Experimental Group (Exp. G3) is composed of 34 participants. The four groups are the groups organised by the administration, which implies that they were random, with no reference to students' level of proficiency.

4.2. Description of the Experiment

The experiment consists of three phases: the pre-test, the treatment, and the post-test.

The pre-test (Appendix I) was composed of two spatial descriptive paragraphs. In the first one, students were required to describe a room illustrated in a picture handed out to each student. In the second, they were requested to write a paragraph describing the appropriate possible direction from a specific point in a town shown in a picture (*the hotel*) to another definite place (*train station*) in the same town.

As far as the first paragraph was concerned, students were given a list of most of the elements that were shown and appeared in the room to avoid the negative effect of the lack of the vocabulary to be used and to help them focus on the position of items rather than thinking of their names. For the same reason, participants were informed that they might seek any help with the vocabulary related to the two paragraphs.

Concerning the treatment, the 27 participants of the CG have received no special instruction relative to the research.

The treatment of the Exp. G1 (30 students) consists of error correction. Hence, based on their production in the pre-test, the lessons of spatial prepositions took the form of correcting the errors students had made. To eliminate any effect of a specific type of error correction over another, all types of error correction were presented over a period of four sessions of one hour and a half each. To achieve this combination of all types of error correction, the treatment started by the researcher spotting the errors made in the students' production through circling them. In the first session, every student tried to correct the error circled by the teacher (indirect error correction, self-correction type). In the second session,

groups of three students each discussed each other's answers and corrected each other's errors under the researcher's guidance (group/pair correction type). In the third session, correction of the errors was based on classroom discussion and the points that the members of the small groups could not agree about. In the last session, students' productions were handed back to the students with correction of all the errors related to spatial prepositions. In addition, some points that had not been mentioned in the three previous sessions, or that students had not paid attention to but had been found in their papers were highlighted including the way of writing a descriptive paragraph (direct error correction type). In all the steps of the treatment given to the Exp. G1, no explanation of the spatial prepositions' meanings was presented.

The students of the Exp. G2 (28 students) received a detailed explanation of the meanings of each spatial preposition and how these meanings could be related to each other and to other close meanings of other spatial prepositions (Appendix V). The treatment lasted for ten sessions of one hour and a half each; eight sessions were devoted to the explanation and presentation of the meanings of spatial prepositions and two sessions to answering students' questions about the meanings and uses that would lead to confusion.

The treatment that the Exp. G3 (34 students) received is the combination of both error correction and the presentation and explanation of the semantics of spatial prepositions. The treatment took twelve sessions of one and half an hour each. The errors found in students' productions were spotted and circled. In the first session, students were asked to correct those errors individually for 45 minutes, then to discuss the correction in groups of three students each in the remaining 45 minutes. In the eight following sessions, the presentation was about the meanings of each spatial preposition and how they are related to each other, as well as the differences between spatial prepositions. The examples given about the wrong uses of each spatial preposition were extracted from students' productions accompanied with the

explanation of the correct uses based on the semantics of that spatial preposition. The last three sessions were devoted to students getting their productions back and correcting their errors based on the semantics of spatial prepositions they had learnt. Any question about a meaning or a use of a spatial preposition was answered during these three sessions.

The post-test (Appendix II) had the same form as the pre-test. Students were asked to describe two pictures. The first picture referred to a room different from that of the pre-test supported by a list of vocabulary items related to the elements in that room. The second picture represented a town different from the one used in the pre-test where the participants were asked to describe the way that should be followed to go from one place (*the hotel*) to a particular place (*the library*).

4.3. Analysis of the Results of the Pre-test

After correcting the two paragraphs of the four groups' students produced as answers to the two questions of the pre-test, the results show that students of the four groups have difficulties when using spatial prepositions of position, spatial preposition of movement, and spatial prepositions of position and movement, in addition to using the TR and the LM. To know the most problematic spatial prepositions and which group faced more difficulties in using them, a comparison of the results of the pre-test in the four groups is required.

4.3.1. Misuse of the Spatial Prepositions of Position

There were no errors in the use of the spatial prepositions of position *among* and *beyond*. The students have wrongly used the spatial prepositions of position *in*, *on*, *at*, *between*, *among*, *in front of*, *behind*, *beyond*, *near/close to*, *by*, *next to*, and *beside*.

4.3.1.1. The Spatial Preposition “In”

After analysing the students’ productions in the pre-test, the errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “in” that were found in the four groups, the control and the three experimental, are presented in Table 4.1:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution	at		04	04	04	04	02	02	04	04
	on		03	03	03	03	02	02	08	08
	into		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	next to		-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	of		-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition			02	02	-	-	01	01	06	06

Table 4.1: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “In” in the Pre-test

When using the spatial preposition “in”, ten errors concerning its use were found in the CG. Two errors among these are addition errors where the spatial preposition “in” is used where it should not be used. The eight remaining errors are substitution errors. Instead of using this preposition, students used other prepositions, which are *at* (04 errors), *on* (03 errors) and *into* (01 error).

In the Exp. G1, seven errors were made concerning the use of the spatial preposition “in”. All of them are substitution errors. Four errors are due to the replacement of “in” by *at* and three errors because of the replacement of “in” by *on*.

For the Exp. G2, six errors in using the spatial preposition “in” were found. One error is an addition error and the five remaining errors are substitution errors. Two erroneous uses of this preposition are replacement errors wherein the spatial preposition *at* is used instead of “in”, two errors are caused by replacing “in” by *on*, and one is where the preposition “in” is replaced by *next to*.

In the Exp. G3, twenty errors were found. One error is an omission error in which the learner omitted the spatial preposition “*in*” where it should be present. Six errors are addition errors where the spatial preposition “*in*” is incorrectly added. The thirteen remaining errors are substitution errors where the spatial preposition “*in*” is substituted by the spatial preposition *at* four times, by the spatial preposition *on* eight times, and once by the preposition *of*.

It is worth noticing that the majority of prepositions that students in the four groups used to replace the spatial preposition “*in*” are: *at* as in “*at* *the corner of the room, there is a waste basket*”, “*the carpet is at the middle of the room*”; *on* as in “*on* *the wall of the room, there is a window*”, “*on* *the middle of the room, there is a carpet*”; and *into* as “*I have a special order when organizing the elements into my room*”. The spatial preposition “*in*” is sometimes erroneously added by students where it should not, such as “*you entered to my room*”. Other examples of substitution errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*in*” are “*the window next to the wall*” (used in the Exp. G2) and “*I am a stranger of this town* (used in the Exp. G3).

Comparing the average of errors of each group when using the spatial preposition “*in*” reveals that the average of errors in the Exp. G3 is the highest with a rate of 0.59 error/student. The average in the CG, 0.37 error/students, is higher than both averages of the Exp. G1 (0.23 error/student) and the Exp. G2 (0.22 error/student).

The reason behind confusing between using the spatial preposition “*in*” and other prepositions could be that students could not perceive certain LMs in some situations – such as corners and flat spaces – as enclosed spaces (*wall, middle of the room, desks*). Consequently, learners might think that the corner of the room is the same like corners of the street and, for this reason, they use *at/on the corner* instead. On the other hand, learners

do not consider the middle of the room as a bounded LM because they focus only on the surface but not on the bounds and exterior (*non-canonical LM*, Tyler and Evans 2003).

Moreover, learners could mix between enclosure and containment expressed by the spatial preposition “*in*”, and movement from the outside to the enclosed place expressed by *into* because of the common point of enclosure. Using *next to* instead of “*in*” might be caused by focusing only on some part of the LM (*a part of the wall*) instead of considering that the TR (*window*) belongs to it.

4.3.1.2. The Spatial Preposition “*On*”

The analysis of the pre-test reveals that when using the spatial preposition “*on*”, students of the control group and the experimental groups made the errors presented in Table 4.2:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			02	01	03	02	05	04	12	07
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		at	08	03	06	05	04	04	07	04
		in	29	10	50	20	33	12	47	20
		above	14	09	24	14	19	09	22	10
		over	04	02	01	01	02	02	01	01
		on top of	03	03	03	01	05	01	01	01
		inside	02	01	-	-	-	-	02	01
		upon	02	02	-	-	-	-	-	-
		in above	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		up to	-	-	02	01	-	-	-	-
		between	01	01	-	-	-	-	02	01
		under	01	01	-	-	02	01	-	-
		beside	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		next to	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		after	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		in face	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		with	-	-	01	01	-	-	02	02
	to	-	-	-	-	01	01	01	01	
	below	-	-	-	-	-	-	04	01	
	next	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	

	behind	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	up	01	01	01	01	02	01	-	-
Addition		-	-	01	01	01	01	-	-

Table 4.2: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “On” in the Pre-test

When using the spatial preposition “on”, students in the CG made sixty-nine errors. Two errors are omission errors and sixty-seven remaining errors are substitution errors. Twenty-nine errors of the substitution errors are due to using *in* instead of the spatial preposition “on”. While fourteen errors are caused by the use of the spatial prepositions *above* instead of “on”, eight errors are made because of using the spatial preposition *at* instead. Four errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *over* where “on” should have been used. Three errors result from using the spatial preposition *on top of* rather than using “on”, and two errors result from using the spatial preposition *inside* in place of “on”. Two students incorrectly used the spatial preposition *upon* instead of using “on” and one used *up* instead. One student used *between* while another used *under* instead of “on”. The last two substitution errors are caused by using the spatial prepositions *beside* and *next to* once each instead of using “on”.

Concerning the use of the spatial preposition “on” in the Exp. G1, ninety-four errors were found. Three errors are omission errors in which the preposition “on” should have been used, ninety errors are substitution errors, and one error is an additional use of the preposition “on”. Among the ninety substitution errors, fifty errors are the result of substituting the use of “on” by the use of the spatial preposition *in*. Twenty-four errors are caused by replacing “on” by *above*. Six errors are the result of using the spatial preposition *at* instead of “on”. Three errors were found where the spatial preposition *on top of* is used instead of “on”, and two errors where *up to* is used instead. One student replaced “on” by *after* and another used *over* instead. One error is caused by the use of *in face* instead of using “on” and one is caused by the use of *up*. The last error is the result of using *with* instead of using “on”.

In the Exp. G2, there are seventy-five errors. Five errors refer to the omission of the spatial preposition “*on*”, one is an addition error, and sixty-nine are substitution errors. Among the substitution errors, thirty-three errors result from replacing the preposition “*on*” by the preposition *in*. Nineteen errors are made because of using the spatial preposition *above* where the preposition “*on*” should have been used. Five errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *on top of* instead of “*on*” and four errors by replacing the preposition “*on*” by the preposition *at*. Two errors are made because students used the spatial preposition *over* instead of using “*on*”. Two other errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *under* and two errors are due to using *up* in place of “*on*”. One substitution error is due to the use of *in above*, and one last error is caused by using *to* instead of “*on*”.

In the Exp. G3, a hundred and three errors related to the use of the spatial prepositions “*on*” are identified. Twelve errors are omission errors and ninety-one are substitution errors. Forty-seven errors are made when students used the spatial preposition *in* rather than using “*on*”. Twenty-two errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *above* instead of “*on*”. Seven errors are the result of replacing the spatial preposition “*on*” by the spatial preposition *at*. Four errors are made when students used the spatial preposition *below* instead of “*on*”. Two cases of the use of “*on*” are replaced by the use of *with*, and two other errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *inside* instead, while two uses of “*on*” are wrongly substituted by the use of *between*. There is one erroneous use of *next* instead of “*on*”, and one use of the spatial preposition *behind* where “*on*” should have been used. One student in this group replaced the spatial preposition “*on*” by the use of *to* once. The last two errors result from the substitution of the use of the spatial preposition “*on*” by the use of the spatial prepositions *over* and *on top of*, once each.

When comparing the performance of students of the groups concerning the use of the spatial preposition *on*, it is found that rate of errors in the Exp. G1 is 3.13 error/student, and

that of the students in the Exp. G3 group is 3.03 error/student. These close averages are higher than those of the CG and the Exp. G2, which are 2.71 and 2.67 respectively.

One shared error when using the spatial preposition *on* is the omission error in which students of the four groups used sentences, such as “Ø *the first shelve, there are loud speakers*”, “Ø *the second shelve, there are books*” without using “*on*” before “*the first shelve*”, “*the second shelve*”. The addition error is the one where students produced a sentence such as “*when you enter on my room*”. The common spatial prepositions used in the four groups to substitute for the use of the spatial preposition “*on*” are the following: *in* (“*in* *the middle shelve, I put books*”, “*there is a wonderful carpet in the floor*”), *above* (“*there is a nightstand above the nightlight*”), *at* (“*there is a carpet, at the floor*”), *on top of* (“*the night stand is on top of the nightstand*”), *with* (“*with* *my bed, I have my small pillow*”), and *up to* and *up* (“*up to* *the first shelve, there are books and up the third one, there are boxes*”). In addition to these common errors, there are other errors made only by students in the CG such as “*upon* *the nightstand, there is the nightlight*”, “*there are many boxes*”, “*under* *the last shelve*”, “*beside* *the other shelve, there are encyclopaedias*”; “*there are two loud speakers, inside the first shelve*”. Moreover, other errors are made only by students in the Exp. G1 such as “*after* *my nightstand, there is my nightlight*”, and “*you see my big bed and my pillow in face it*”. Another error was found only in the Exp. G2, “*to* *the desk, there are decoration lights*”. One last error is made only by students in the Exp. G3, which is “*you can see my pillow behind my bed*”.

The reason behind students using the spatial preposition *in* instead of using “*on*” in all the groups could be the influence of the mother tongue where it is acceptable to use the spatial preposition ‘*fi*’ – which is equal to the English preposition *in* – when referring to shelves, or the influence of dialects when referring to floors.

Another reason could be that students do not know the difference between *on the corner of a street* and replace it by using *in the corner of*, which refers only to corners of an enclosed space. Students also use *on top of* when they should use “on” because they might not know that *on the top of* is used when the LM is higher than larger.

The other point that could be the cause of students using *over* or *above* to replace “on” is that they focus only on the common characteristic of using the three prepositions, which is the meaning of “higher than”, but ignore the level of height related only to both prepositions *over* and *above*. In addition to that, there is the function of influence and relation, expressed by *over*, and the characteristic of no contact, expressed by *above*, which make the three prepositions different in use in most contexts.

Using the preposition *with* to replace the spatial preposition “on” is due to replacing a specific preposition by a general one (*with*), which refers to the TR (the pillow) as accompanying the LM (the bed) in all the cases.

4.3.1.3. The Spatial Preposition “At”

After analysing the use of spatial preposition “at” in the pre-test, it was found that the participants of the four groups made the errors shown in Table 4.3:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		in	02	02	03	03	04	04	03	03
		on	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		with	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		beside	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
		before	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition			-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-

Table 4.3: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “At” in the Pre-test

In the CG, there are four errors made by the students in this group when using the spatial preposition “at”. Two students replaced the spatial preposition “at” by using the

spatial preposition *in*. One use of “*at*” is replaced by the use of the spatial preposition *on* and one by the use of the preposition *with*. All the errors, then, are substitution errors.

Similarly, there are four errors in the Exp. G1 when using the spatial preposition “*at*”. Three errors are substitution errors caused by replacing “*at*” by the spatial prepositions *in* and one error is an omission error in which the use of the preposition “*at*” is omitted from where it should have been.

Concerning the Exp. G2, there are five errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*at*”. Four of these errors are substitution errors and one is an addition error. The substitution errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*at*” refer to the wrong replacement of spatial preposition “*at*” by the spatial preposition *in*.

In the Exp. G3, the five wrong uses of the preposition “*at*” are substitution errors. These errors include substituting the preposition “*at*” by using the spatial preposition *in* in three cases, replacing it by *beside* in one case, and by *before* in another.

Students in the four groups replaced the use of the spatial preposition “*at*” by the use of the spatial preposition *in* – as in “*if you turn in first corner, you will find the library*”, “*I was going home when I saw a stranger in the hotel asking how to go to the train station*” and “*the car park is in the end of the road*”. Students in the CG used the preposition *with* instead of the spatial preposition “*at*”, as in the following sentence: “*Turn right with the library corner*”. They used the spatial preposition *on* instead of “*at*” as in the following sentence: “*Then, you arrive on the car park*”. Students in the CG and in the Exp. G1 omitted “*at*” where it should have been used, such as “*keeping walking till you arrive Ø the supermarket*”. Another type of errors found is addition made by a student in the Exp. G3, which is “*turn at where there is a yellow building*”.

When using the spatial preposition “*at*”, the highest average of errors is the one of the Exp. G2, 0.18 error/student. The average of errors made by students in the CG and the Exp.

G3 when using this spatial preposition is the same (0.15 error/ student), and it is higher than that of the Exp. G1, which is 0.13 error/student. Though different, the averages of errors made when using the spatial preposition “at” are very close to each other.

One cause that students do not use the spatial preposition “at” correctly or appropriately may be that they do not know how to use the collocation ‘arrive at’. In addition, they are probably confused when speaking about the end of the street, to perceive it as a specific point not as an enclosed space, *at the corner* not *in the corner* and *at the end* not *in the end*. Moreover, the reason might be that the spatial preposition “at” also does not exist in Arabic, students’ mother tongue; hence, its use would be difficult for them because they could not rely on the positive transfer when using it.

4.3.1.4. The spatial Prepositions “Between”

The analysis of using the spatial preposition *between* in the pre-test discloses the following errors that the participants of the four groups made:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	in between	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
Substitution		among	01	01	-	-	-	-	02	02
		behind	01	01	-	-	02	02	-	-
		besides	01	01	-	-	01	01	-	-
		in its sides	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		in the both sides of	01	01	-	-	01	01	-	-
		beside	-	-	01	01	-	-	03	03
		with	-	-	02	02	-	-	-	-
		in both sides of	-	-	03	03	02	02	-	-
		in the middle of	-	-	01	01	03	03	01	01
		on its right and left	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		next to its both sides	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		in the sides of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-

in the two sides of	-	-	01	01	-	-	02	02
in the two both sides	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
on the right and left of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
from both sides of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
surrounded by	-	-	-	-	01	01	01	01
in its both sides	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.4: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*Between*” in the Pre-test

There are five errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*between*” in the CG. All the errors are substitution ones, and they include one error of each of the following: *among* (“*the computer screen is among the two decoration lights*”), *behind* (“*the school is behind the train station and the caf *”), and *besides* (“*there is a computer screen besides the decoration lights*”). Two errors are caused by the use of the phrases *in its sides* (“*the decoration lights are in its sides*”) and *in the both sides of* (“*the decoration lights are in the both sides of the computer*”) instead of the spatial preposition “*between*”.

Students in the Exp. G1 made twelve errors in using the spatial preposition *between*. One error is a word formation one that refers to the use of *in between* (“*the computer screen is in between the decoration lights*”). The remaining errors are substitution ones. One error is the result of using the spatial preposition *beside* instead of the spatial preposition “*between*”, and two errors are the result of using the preposition *with* instead (“*there is a computer screen which is with the decoration lights*”). The nine other errors are caused by the use of phrases to refer to the meaning expressed by the use of the spatial preposition “*between*”. Three errors are due to using the phrase *in both sides of* (“*the decoration lights is in both sides of the computer screen*”), one error is caused by using *in the middle of* (“*the computer screen is in the middle of the decoration lights*”), one error is due to the use of *on*

its right and left instead of “*between*” (“***on its right and left*** *there is the decoration lights*”), and another error results from using *next to its both sides* (“*the decoration lights are **next to its both sides***”). The last two errors are caused by using the following phrases: *in the sides of* (“*the computer screen is **in the sides of** the decoration lights*”) and *in the two sides of* (“***in the two sides of*** *the computer screen, there are the decoration lights*”).

In the Exp. G2, there are thirteen errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*between*”. All errors are substitution errors. Two of these errors are the result of using the spatial preposition *behind* instead of the spatial preposition “*between*”. One error is caused by using *besides* and one is caused by using *surrounded by* instead of “*between*” (“*the computer screen is **surrounded by** the decoration lights*”). The other errors are the result of using the following phrases in place of the spatial preposition “*between*”: *in the middle of* (three cases), *on the right and left of* (one case), *in both sides of* (two cases), *in the both sides* (one case) and *from both sides of* (one case). In addition to these, there is the erroneous use of the phrase *in the two both sides* (one case) to refer to the use of “*between*”.

When using the spatial preposition “*between*”, students in the Exp. G3 made ten substitution errors. Three of these errors are the result of replacing the use of “*between*” by the use of *beside*. Two errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *among* rather than the spatial preposition “*between*”, and two errors are caused by using the phrase *in the two sides of*. Moreover, there is the use of the phrase *in the middle of* once to refer wrongly to “*between*”, and using the phrase *in its both sides*. One last error is caused by using *surrounded by* to replace the use of *between*.

Comparison of errors made in the four groups reveals that the highest average is in the Exp. G2 (0.46 error/student) and the lowest is in the CG (0.19 error/student). The Exp. G1 (0.40 error/student) has a higher average than that of the Exp. G3 (0.30 error/student).

Students face the problem of confusing the meaning of *between*, which is used only for the LM composed of two elements, and *among* that is used with a LM composed of three elements or more, which is the same problem when using the past participle *surrounded by*. Using *in the middle of* instead of *between* changes totally the meaning and makes the LM a part of the TR.

4.3.1.5. The Spatial Prepositions “*In Front of*” and “*Behind*”

When using the spatial preposition “*in front of*” in the pre-test, the participant of the four groups made the errors that are summarised in Table 4.5:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	infront of	01	01	04	01	-	-	-	-
		on front of	01	01	02	02	-	-	04	02
		front of	01	01	-	-	02	02	01	01
		front	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		a front of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
		in face of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
		face to	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	01
		in face face of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Substitution	under	07	07	03	03	06	06	09	09	
	beside	01	01	01	01	-	-	01	01	
	behind	01	01	03	03	04	04	-	-	
	below	01	01	01	01	-	-	-	-	
	in	02	02	03	03	-	-	-	-	
	next	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	in the middle of	01	01	02	02	01	01	-	-	
	with	-	-	03	03	-	-	-	-	
	of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-	
	in the left of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-	
	next to	-	-	-	-	-	-	04	03	
	in the opposite	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-	
aside	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-		

on the opposite face of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
near	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
near of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
in the front of	02	01	-	-	02	01	02	02
for	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
after	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
cross with	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
in the front wall of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.5: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*In Front of*” in the Pre-test

There are nineteen errors made by students in the CG when using the spatial preposition “*in front of*”. Three of the errors are word formation ones where one is a spelling error caused by writing “*in front of*” as *infront of* (“*when you enter my room, you see my bed infront of you*”), and the two others are form errors caused by writing “*in front of*” as *on front of* and *front of* once each. The remaining sixteen errors are substitution ones. Two errors are made because the use of “*in front of*” was wrongly changed by using *in the front of* (“*the supermarket is in the front of the museum*”). Seven errors are found because of using the spatial preposition *under* instead of “*in front of*” (“*under the desk, there is my chair*”), and one because of using the spatial preposition *below* instead (“*the chair is below the desk*”). One error is made because of using the spatial preposition *beside* (“*the supermarket is beside the museum*”) and one because of using the spatial preposition *behind* instead of “*in front of*” (“*behind this library, you can see the supermarket*”). Two errors are caused by using *in* (“*the chair which is in the desk*”) and one is caused by using *next* instead of “*in front of*” (“*our school is next the café*”). The phrase *in the middle of* is used instead of using the spatial preposition “*in front of*” (“*in the middle of the desk, there is a yellow chair*”).

There are twenty-five errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*in front of*” in the Exp. G1. Four errors are spelling errors where “*in front of*” is written *infront of*. Two errors are word formation errors; they are caused by using *on front of* (“***on front of*** *this desk, there is a beautiful chair*”). The nineteen remaining errors are substitution errors. While there are three errors caused by using *under* instead of “*in front of*”, there is one error caused by using *below*, and three errors by using *behind*. Instead of using “*in front of*”, there are three errors made because of using *with* (“*the yellow chair is **with** my desk*”), and one because of using *of* instead of “*in front of*” (“*in my room there is also the chair which is **of** the desk*”). The use of *in* instead of “*in front of*” caused students to make three errors. While the phrase *in the middle of* was used twice wrongly to refer to “*in front of*”, *in the left of* was used once (“*when you cross the road, from the school, you will find yourself **in the left of** the train station*”). One error is caused by using *in the opposite* instead of “*in front of*” (“*the chair is **in the opposite** the desk*”). The last error was caused by using the spatial preposition *beside* in place of “*in front of*” (“*just **beside** the train station is the school*”).

In the Exp. G2, eighteen errors were made when using “*in front of*”. Three of these errors are word formation errors where *front of* is written twice and *front* is used once instead of “*in front of*”. The remaining errors are substitution errors. Six errors are caused by using *under* instead of “*in front of*”, and four errors are caused by using *behind*. Two errors are due to using *in the front of*, and one error caused by using *aside* (“*the chair is **aside** the desk*”). The phrases *on the opposite face of* (“*the supermarket is **on the opposite face of** the museum*”), and *in the middle of* are used wrongly once for each to replace the use of “*in front of*”.

There are thirty-three errors made in the Exp. G3 concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*in front of*”. Eleven of these errors are word formation errors. Four form errors concern writing the form *on front of* instead of “*in front of*” (“*the chair is **on front of** the*

desk”). In the seven remaining cases, “*in front of*” is used in the following forms: *front of* (one case), *in face of* (one case), *a front of* (one case), *face to* (two cases), *in face* (one case), *face of* (one case). The twenty-two remaining errors are substitution errors. Nine errors are caused by the substitution for “*in front of*” by using *under* and four errors are because of using *next to* instead. One error is caused by using *near* and another is caused by using *near of* in place of “*in front of*”. Two errors result from using *in the front of* instead of “*in front of*”. One error is caused by the use of *beside*, and another is caused by using *for* (“*I have also a chair for the desk*”). One error is the consequence of using *after* (“*I have a chair also after my desk*”), and another one is caused by using *cross with* instead “*in front of*”. The last error resulted from using *in the front wall of* to replace “*in front of*”.

When using the spatial preposition “*in front of*”, the average of errors made by students in the Exp. G3 is the highest (0.97 error/student) and the lowest average is in the Exp. G2 (0.64 error/student). The average of errors made in the Exp. G1 (0.83 error/student) is higher than the average of errors in the CG (0.70 error/student). This indicates that the Exp. G3 has the most significant average of errors, which shows that almost every student made one error when using the spatial preposition “*in front of*”. The other averages of the other groups are remarkable and close to each other.

The errors made when using the spatial preposition “*in front of*” could be explained by the fact that students used more general terms – like *next to*, *near*, *near to* – to refer to specific situations expressed by using “*in front of*”. Students replaced “*in front of*” by the use of *under* many times because a small part of the TR is *under* the LM; they generalised it over the whole TR though most of it is *in front of* the LM. Students used *behind*, the antonym of “*in front of*”, to refer it because they might have been confused with their uses.

Table 4.6 presents the errors, their numbers and their types that the participants of the four groups made when using the spatial preposition “*behind*”:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3				
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students			
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
Substitution			in front of	04	04	-	-	-	-	-	-		
			around of	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
			after	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
			next to	-	-	-	-	02	02	-	-	-	-
			beside	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			

Table 4.6: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Behind” in the Pre-test

When using the spatial preposition “*behind*”, students in the CG made six errors; all of them are substitution errors. Four errors are the result of the use of *in front of* instead of using “*behind*” (“*the cinema is in front of the supermarket, the train station is in front of the school*”). One error consists of the use of *around of* instead of “*behind*” (“*you walk around of the supermarket when you can see the museum*”), and one is due to the use of the adverb *after* instead of the spatial preposition “*behind*” (“*after the school, you will find your destination*”).

Students in the Exp. G1 did not make errors when using the spatial preposition “*behind*”. Students in the Exp. G2 made two substitution errors; both of them are caused by the use of *next to* instead of “*behind*” (“*the museum is next to the supermarket*”). In the Exp. G3, there is only one substitution error where a student replaced the use of “*behind*” by using *beside* (“*the library and the cinema which are beside the supermarket*”).

The average of errors when using the spatial preposition “*behind*” is the highest in the CG with 0.22 error/student, while the lowest average is 00 error/student in the Exp. G1. The average of errors made by students in the Exp. G3 (0.07 error/student) is slightly higher than that of the Exp. G2 (0.03 error/student). The errors made when using the spatial preposition “*behind*” are, to some extent, remarkable in the CG and not significant in the other groups.

Students are confused about the use of the spatial preposition “*behind*” in English and using its equivalents in their dialects (*next to, in front of, beside*).

4.3.1.6. The Spatial Prepositions “*Near/Close to*”, “*By*”, “*Next to*” and “*Beside*”

Table 4.7 sums up the errors that the participants of the sample made when using the spatial preposition “*near/close to*”:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	near from	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
		near of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Substitution	in front of		01	01	01	01	-	-	-	-
	next to		-	-	02	02	01	01	-	-
	besides		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	beside of		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	behind		-	-	01	01	01	01	-	-
	front of		-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	in a side of		-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
opposite of		-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.7: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*Near/Close to*” in the Pre-test

There is only one error in the CG concerning the use of “*near/close to*”, which is a substitution error. The incorrect use is found when a student changed the use of “*near/close to*” by using *in front of* (“*we start from here, in front of the hotel, just before the library*”).

In the Exp. G1, there are six errors of the use of the spatial preposition “*near/close to*”. All of them are substitution errors. Two uses are incorrectly substituted by using *next to* (“*there you can find the cinema and car park next to it*”), one use is erroneously replaced by using *besides*, and another error is caused by using *beside of* (“*you find the library besides /beside of the hotel*”) instead of “*near/close to*”. One error is the result of using *behind* (“*start waking from the hotel till you get to the library behind it*”), and one by using *in front of* instead of “*near/close to*”.

Concerning the errors made by students in the Exp. G2, there are three substitution errors when using the spatial preposition “*near/ close to*”. One error is caused by the use of *next to*, and another by the use of *behind*. The last error is caused by the use of *front of* instead of “*near/close to*”.

As for students in the Exp. G3, they made four errors. Two of these errors are word formation errors where “*near/close to*” is replaced by the forms *near from* and *near of*. The other two errors are substitution errors. One is the result of using *in a side of* instead of “*near/close to*” (“*the wastebasket is in a side of the central unit of the computer*”), and the other is caused by the use of *opposite of* (“*the car park is opposite of the cinema*”).

The highest average of errors when using the spatial preposition “*near/close to*” is that of the Exp. G1 (0.20 error/student), followed by the average of errors made in both the Exp. G2 and the Exp. G3, which have almost the same average (0.11 error/student). The lowest average of errors when using this preposition is that of the CG (0.04 error/student). This reveals that compared to the other spatial prepositions, the errors found when using the spatial preposition “*near/close to*” are not significant.

After analysing the students’ productions in the pre-test, the errors found related to the use of the spatial preposition “*by*” are presented in Table 4.8:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			01	01	03	03	01	01	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution	through		02	02	-	-	-	-	-	-
	beside		02	02	-	-	-	-	-	-
	near		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	next		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	with		-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	from		-	-	-	-	-	-	02	02
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.8: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “By” in the Pre-test

In the CG, there are seven errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “by”. One is an omission error (“to get to the train station, you need to pass Ø the school”) and the six remaining errors are substitution errors. Two of them are caused by using the spatial preposition *through* instead (“now, pass through the library”), and two are caused by using *beside* instead of “by” (“you pass beside the museum”). One of the errors is the result of using *next*, and another error results from using *near* in place of “by” (“then, you pass next/near the library”).

Students in the Exp. G1 made three errors while those in the Exp. G2 made one error. All of them are omission errors. In the Exp. G3, there are three substitution errors. One use of the spatial preposition “by” is replaced by the use of the preposition *with* (“pass with the library”), and two uses of this preposition are replaced by the use of the spatial preposition *from* (“turn right, then pass from the cinema”).

Concerning the use of the spatial preposition “by”, the highest average of errors is that of the CG with 0.26 error/student. The average of the Exp. G1 (0.10 error/student) is higher than the average of the Exp. G3 (0.09 error/student). This last is itself higher than but close to the average of the Exp. G2 (0.04 error/student), which is the lowest average of errors.

The errors made by the students of the four groups when using the spatial preposition “next to” in the pre-test are shown in Table 4.9:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	next	02	02	05	02	03	03	03	03
		in next to	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
Substitution		near	07	05	-	-	03	03	07	06
		near/close to	01	01	02	02	01	01	02	02
		near of	01	01	01	01	-	-	03	02
		at	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		under	01	01	01	01	05	05	01	01
		behind	-	-	09	05	18	09	07	04

in front of	-	-	02	01	04	03	01	01
infront of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
in face of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
in front	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
with	-	-	02	02	02	02	-	-
on	-	-	03	03	-	-	-	-
after	-	-	03	02	-	-	02	02
opposite to	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
in its back	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
in the center of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
at the other side of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
in behind	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
near from	-	-	-	-	03	01	-	-
below	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
beneath	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
before	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
toward	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
close	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
besides to	-	-	-	-	-	-	03	01
besides	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
in the front of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
above	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	02
in	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
also	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	02
and	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
in addition to	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
than	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
in the other side of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
in its bottom	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
in the bottom of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.9: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Next to” in the Pre-test

In the CG, there are thirteen errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*next to*”. Two errors are word formation errors caused by the use of the adjective and adverb *next* instead of the spatial preposition “*next to*” (“*the gas station is next the supermarket*”); the other eleven errors are substitution errors. While seven substitution errors result from using

near instead of “*next to*”, one error results from using *near/close to*, and one is the outcome of using *near of* instead of “*next to*” (“*the cinema is near (to/of) the library*”). Another error is due to replacing the use of “*next to*” by using the spatial preposition *under* (“*the plants are under the window*”). The last error is due to using the spatial preposition *at* instead of “*next to*” (“*my big window is at the nightstand*”).

As for the Exp. G1, there are thirty-five errors related to the use of “*next to*”. Five errors are word formation errors where *next* is used instead of “*next to*” and thirty errors are substitution errors. Among the substitution errors, nine are caused by the use of the spatial preposition *behind* instead of the spatial preposition “*next to*” (“*there is a big painting, behind it a desk with shelves*”), and one is caused by the use of the spatial preposition *under* instead. Two errors are caused by the use of *in front of* (“*then, you find the desk in front of the big painting*”), and one is caused by using *infront of*. Using *in face of* (“*the carpet is in face of the bed*”), and the use of *in front* are substitution errors found once each instead of “*next to*”. Two errors are caused by the use of *near/close to* instead of “*next to*” and one is due to the use of *near of*. Two errors are made because students used *with* instead of *next to* (“*I will start by my bed with it small nightstand*”), and three errors are caused by students using the spatial preposition *on* in place of “*next to*” (“*the large carpet is on my desk*”, “*the plants are on the window*”). While three errors are caused by the use of *after* rather than using “*next to*” (“*just after the hospital, there is a car park*”), one is caused by the use of *opposite to*. Three errors are caused by the use of the phrases *in its back* (“*when you turn, you will see the library and in its back the cinema*”), *in the center of* (“*in the center of the nightstand, there is a big window*”), and *at the other side of* (“*at the other side of the window, you will see small plants*”).

Concerning the Exp. G2, there are forty-five errors made when using the spatial preposition “*next to*”. Four are word formation errors, three of which represent the use of

next instead of “*next to*” and one student used *in next to* (“*you will face the car park which is in next to the hospital*”). The forty-one remaining errors are substitution errors. Eighteen errors are caused by the use of *behind* instead of using “*next to*” and one error is due to the use of *in behind* instead. Four errors are the result of using the spatial preposition *in front of* instead of “*next to*” and five errors result from using the spatial preposition *under* instead. While there are three errors because of using *near* in place of “*next to*”, there are three errors because of using *near from*, and one is due to the use of *near/close to* instead of “*next to*”. Two errors are the results of using *with* instead of “*next to*”. One error is caused by the use of the spatial preposition *below* (“*the plants are below the window*”) and another is caused by the use of *beneath* (“*beneath the window, there are small plants*”) rather than using “*next to*”. The last two errors are caused by the use of *before* and *toward* (“*first, the gas station which is toward the supermarket*”) instead of using “*next to*”.

When using the spatial preposition “*next to*”, students in the Exp. G3 made forty-four errors. Three errors are word formation errors where *next* is used in place of “*next to*”. The remaining errors are substitution ones. Among these errors, seven are the consequence of using *near* instead of “*next to*”, and one is the result of using *close* instead. Two errors are the results of using *near/close to* instead of “*next to*”, and three errors are due to the use of *near of*. Seven errors are caused by the use of the spatial preposition *behind* instead of “*next to*” and one by the use of *under*. Three errors result from using *besides to* and one from using *besides* rather than using “*next to*”. While there is one error caused by using the spatial preposition *in front of*, there is another caused by using *in the front of* and two are caused by using the spatial preposition *above* where the spatial preposition “*next to*” should have been used. One error is due to the use of the spatial preposition *in* (“*the gas station is in the supermarket*”) and one to the use of the preposition *of* instead of “*next to*” (“*the plants of the window are so beautiful*”). There are also transitional markers and conjunctions that are used

incorrectly to express the meaning of “*next to*”. These transitions and conjunctions are *after* (two cases), *also* (two cases) (“*there is the painting, also there is the desk*”), *and* (one case), *in addition to* (one case) (“*in addition to the window, there is the desk*”), and *than* (one case) (“*you will find the cinema, and than the hospital*”). Moreover, some phrases are used inappropriately to express the meaning of “*next to*” that are *in its bottom*, *in the bottom of* (“*those small plants are in the bottom of the window*”), and *in the other side of* with one error for each.

Concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*next to*”, the highest average of errors is found in the Exp. G2 with 1.61 error/student, while the lowest average of errors is found in the CG 0.48 error/students. The Exp. G3 has a higher average of errors (1.29 error/student) than that of the Exp. G1 (1.17 error/student). The averages of errors made when using the spatial preposition “*next to*” seem to be significant in the three experimental groups and mainly in the Exp. G2 as for every two students, there are at least three errors made.

The wrong uses of “*next to*” can be explained by the difficulty to distinguish the level of closeness expressed by *next to*, *beside* and *near to*. Moreover, students used the preposition *in front of* to refer to closeness from all sides while it refers only to closeness from the front side. Using *behind*, *under*, *after* and *before* are to speak about something very close to one side. Another reason is that they are affected by the Algerian dialects where these prepositions are used with this sense.

The results of the analysis of the errors made in the pre-test when using the spatial preposition “*beside*” are shown in Table 4.10:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	besides	01	01	03	03	01	01	04	03

Substitution	behind	-	-	02	02	-	-	-	-
	in	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
Addition		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.10: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Beside” in the Pre-test

When using the spatial preposition “*beside*”, a student in the CG made one error, which is a word formation error that refers to using *besides* (“*there are some plants besides the window*”).

In the Exp. G1, there are six errors concerning the use of “*beside*”. Three of them are word formation errors where *besides* is used, and three are substitution errors. The substitution errors are composed of two errors caused by using *behind* instead of using “*beside*” (“*the carpet is behind the plants*”) and one is caused by the use of *in* instead (“*after that, you find my nightstand in my carpet*”).

A student in the Exp. G2 made one word formation error where *besides* is used. In the Exp. G3, there are four word formation errors where the form *besides* is used.

The average of errors of the Exp. G1 is 0.20 error/student, which is the highest average in comparison with the other three groups. The Exp. G3 has a higher average (0.12 error/student) than both the CG and the Exp. G2, which have equal averages (0.04 error/student).

Students are confused when using the spatial preposition *beside* and *besides*; this latter may be a preposition or an adverb. Students may not be aware of the difference in meaning since *beside* means *close but with no contact* and *besides* means *in addition to*.

4.3.2. Misuse of the Spatial Prepositions of Movement

The results obtained in the pre-test include results of using the following spatial prepositions of movement: *out of*, *through*, *along*, and *to*. Students of the four groups made no errors concerning the use of the following spatial prepositions of movement in the pre-test: *up*, *down*, *into*, *for*, and *from*.

4.3.2.1. The Spatial Preposition “*Out of*”

When using the spatial preposition *out of* in the pre-test, students of the four groups made the following errors:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		from	-	-	-	-	01	01	01	01
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.11: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*Out of*” in the Pre-test

When using the spatial preposition “*out of*” two errors are made in all four groups. Two students, one in the Exp. G2 and another in the Exp. G3, made a substitution error each when they used *from* instead of “*out of*”. Students made these errors because of the effect of the mother tongue.

The average of errors of the CG and that of the Exp. G1 is the lowest since there was no error related to the use of the spatial preposition “*out of*”. The averages of errors in the Exp. G2 (0.04 error/student) and the Exp. G3 (0.03 error/student) are almost the same because there is one error in each of the groups. As it can be noticed, the averages of the four groups are not significant compared to other spatial prepositions because the cases where this spatial preposition should be used are not that many. Another reason for the low average of the error made per student could be that they did not face problems when using them.

4.3.2.2. The Spatial Prepositions “*Through*” and “*Along*”

The errors that the students of the sample made when using the spatial preposition “*through*” in the pre-test are summed up in Table 4.12:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Word Formation	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		from	-	-	01	01	03	02	04
		in	-	-	-	-	-	-	01
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.12: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Through” in the Pre-test

There is no error made in the CG concerning the use of the spatial preposition “through”. One error of substitution in the Exp. G1 refers to the use of the preposition *from* to replace “through” (“I like the view that I can see from the window”). Three substitution errors in the Exp. G2 consist of using *from* instead of “through”. In the Exp. G3, there is one omission error, and five are substitution errors, four of which are caused by using *from* instead of “through” and one is caused by using *in* (“in this window, you can see there are beautiful view that can be seen”).

The averages of errors made when using the spatial preposition “through” are ordered from the highest average to the lowest as follows: the Exp. G3 (0.18 error/student), the Exp. G2 (0.11 error/student), the Exp. G1 (0.03 error/student) and, finally, the CG (no error made).

Students are confused between using the spatial preposition “through” and using *from* because of the context, “see views from the window” instead of *through the window*. Since the viewing started from one side before the window and continued to the other side past the window, *through* is the most appropriate spatial preposition to use.

When using the spatial preposition “along” in the pre-test, the participants of the control group and the three experimental groups made the following errors shown in Table 4.13:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			01	01	01	01	02	02	04	04
Word Formation	Spelling	long	-	-	-	-	01	01	01	01
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Substitution	through	02	02	-	-	01	01	-	-
	near	02	02	-	-	-	-	01	01
	near/close to	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	beside	02	02	02	01	01	01	01	01
	next to	01	01	-	-	-	-	01	01
	behind	-	-	01	01	01	01	-	-
	away of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	up	-	-	02	02	-	-	-	-
	all	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	in	-	-	-	-	01	01	02	02
	away	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	across	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	between	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	in the left of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
with	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
from	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.13: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Along” in the Pre-test

In the CG, there are nine errors. One of them is an omission error (“walk Ø this street”) and eight are substitution ones. While two uses of “along” are replaced by the use of the spatial preposition *through* (“keep walking **through** the school”), two others by the use of *near*, and two errors are caused by replacing “along” by *beside*. One error is the result of the use of *next to* instead of the spatial preposition “along” (“take this way and walk **beside/next to** the library), and the last one is the result of substituting *near/close to* (“walk **near** the library then turn left and walk **near to** the museum”) for “along”.

There are eight errors in the Exp. G1. One error is an omission error and the other seven are substitution errors. Two errors are caused by using *beside* instead of “along” and one error is found because of using *behind* (“go directly **behind** the road of the library”). One error is made because of the use of *away of* in place of “along” (“take the street **away of** the school”) and two other errors are the result of using *up* where “along” should have been used (“keep moving **up** the street and you will find the train station”). *All* is used to

replace mistakenly the spatial preposition “along” (“walk all the way, to get to your destination”).

Concerning the Exp. G2, there are seven errors made. Two errors are omission errors, one is spelling error (*long*), and the four remaining errors are substitution errors. One wrong substitution of “along” is the use of the spatial preposition *in* (“walk directly in the school street”). Another error is the result of using the spatial preposition *through* instead of “along”. The last two errors result from using both spatial prepositions *behind* and *beside* instead of using “along”.

As for the Exp. G3, there are sixteen errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “along”. Four errors are omission errors, one is a spelling error (“keep walking long that street”), and the other eleven errors are substitution errors. One error is caused by using *away* in place of “along” and two other errors are caused by using *in* instead. One error is made because the student used *across* instead of “along” (“go straight across the school”) and another one because the spatial preposition *between* is used (“then walk between the two streets of library and the supermarket”). While one error is caused by using the spatial preposition *beside*, another error is caused by using *near* instead of “along”. Using *in the left of* (“to get to the train station, go in the left of the school”) and *next to* are two substitution errors in using the spatial preposition “along”. The last two errors are caused by using *with* (“keep moving with that pavement”) and *from* instead of “along” (“after you turn left, you need to move from the museum”).

When using the spatial preposition “along”, students in the Exp. G3 have the highest average of errors, which is 0.47 error/student. The average of errors made in the CG is 0.33 error/student, which is higher than both averages of the Exp. G1 (0.27 error/ student) and the Exp. G2 (0.25 error/student).

The reason that students are confused when using the spatial preposition “*along*” is that this preposition does not exist in their mother language. For this, they try to replace it by spatial prepositions that would be close in meaning in the mother language or dialects, such as *from*, *through*, *with* or *next to*.

4.3.2.3. The Spatial Preposition “*To*”

The errors that students made in the pre-test when using the spatial preposition *to* and the different types of these errors are shown in Table 4.14:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		in	-	-	-	-	-	-	05	04
Addition			05	05	03	03	03	02	13	13

Table 4.14: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*To*” in the Pre-test

In the CG, there are five addition errors caused by the use of the spatial preposition “*to*” where it should not be used. Three addition errors are found in the Exp. G1, and three addition errors in the Exp. G2 as well. The addition error of the use of the preposition “*to*” is exemplified by “*when you enter to my room*”.

Concerning the Exp. G3, there are eighteen errors related to the use the spatial preposition “*to*”. Thirteen errors are addition errors similar to errors made in the other groups. The five remaining errors are substitution errors that represent the use of the spatial preposition *in* instead of the spatial preposition “*to*” (“*welcome in my town*”).

The comparison between the four groups reveals that the highest average of errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*to*” is found in the Exp. G3 (0.53 error/student). The averages of errors found in the Exp. G1 and the Exp. G2, which are almost equal (0.10 error/student), are both slightly lower than the average of errors made in the CG (0.19 error/student).

The additional use of the spatial preposition “to” with the verb *enter* is influenced by Arabic, where the equivalent spatial preposition of “to” is used with the equivalent of the verb *enter*. Using the spatial preposition *in* instead of the spatial preposition “to” is also affected by the wrong translation of the same sentence from Arabic, the students’ mother tongue, into English.

4.3.3. Use of the Spatial Prepositions of Position and Movement

The results obtained in the pre-test include results of using the following spatial prepositions of position and movement: *over*, *above*, *under*, *below*, *across*, *opposite to/from*, *to/on the right of*, and *to/on the left of*.

4.3.3.1. The Spatial Prepositions “Over” and “Above”

The analysis of using the spatial preposition “over” shows that the errors the participants of the sample made are summarised in Table 4.15:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			01	01	05	05	02	02	03	03
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		in	02	02	-	-	01	01	01	01
		at	02	02	01	01	-	-	01	01
		by	02	02	-	-	-	-	-	-
		from	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		through	01	01	01	01	-	-	03	03
		upon	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		above	-	-	02	02	-	-	01	01
		up	-	-	02	01	03	02	-	-
		on	-	-	-	-	02	02	03	03
		behind	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	02
		above to	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	01
		up to	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		up of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	from	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	02	
	beside	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.15: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Over” in the Pre-test

Concerning the CG, there are ten errors made when using the spatial preposition “*over*”. One is an omission error (*walk the bridge*), and the remaining nine errors are substitution errors. Instead of using the spatial preposition “*over*”, students used different other prepositions. They used the spatial preposition *by* twice instead of “*over*” (“*pass by the bridge*”), used the spatial prepositions *in* and *at* twice each (“*the curtain is in the window*” and “*walk at the bridge to get to the library*”). Students in this group substituted the use of “*over*” by using the following prepositions with one case for each: *from* (“*pass from the bridge*”), *through* (“*walk through the bridge*”) and *upon* (“*to get to the library, you should walk upon the bridge first*”).

In the Exp. G1, there are also twelve errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*over*”. Five are omission errors and seven are substitution errors. Two of the substitution errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *above* where “*over*” should have been used (“*go above the bridge*”). Two errors are made because of using *up* instead of “*over*”, and one error because of using *up to* (“*walk up/up to the bridge, then you will find the library*”). One error is the result of using *at* instead of using “*over*” and another error is because of replacing “*over*” by *through*.

There are nine errors made by students in the Exp. G2 related to the use of the spatial preposition “*over*”. Two of these errors are omission errors and seven are substitution errors. Three errors are found when students replaced the use of “*over*” by the use of *up* and one error where they replaced its use by the use of *up of*. Two errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *on* instead (“*to get to the library, you should walk on the bridge*”), and one by using the spatial preposition *in* instead of using the spatial preposition “*over*”.

Students in the Exp. G3 made nineteen errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*over*”. Three errors of them are omission errors, and the sixteen remaining are substitution errors. The use of the spatial preposition “*over*” is substituted three times by the

use of the spatial preposition *through* and three times by the use of the spatial preposition *on*. In addition, instead of using “*over*”, students used twice *above to* and once *above*. Two cases of the use of *behind* are found (“*move behind this bridge so that you find the library*”) in place of “*over*”, and two other cases refer to the use of *from* instead (“*pass from the bridge*”). One error is caused by using *beside* (“*walk beside the bridge*”).

When using the spatial preposition “*over*”, students in the Exp. G3 had the highest average of errors (0.56 error/student). The average in the Exp. G1, (0.40 error/ student) is higher than both the CG (0.37 error/students) and the Exp. G2 (0.37 error/ student). This latter has the lowest average of errors in the four groups concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*over*”. Though the averages of the four groups are very close, it is more significant in the Exp. G3 where for every two students, there is at least one error made concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*over*”.

The reason that some students mixed up the use of the preposition “*over*” and the preposition *above* is that they probably miss the functions of the possible contact and/ or possible influence of the preposition *over*, which are absent in the use of the preposition *above* (“*walk above the bridge*”). Some students were mistaken when used the spatial preposition *on* because it is not that appropriate since “*walking on the bridge*” does not mean necessarily moving from one of its sides to the other. Other students confused between the use of the spatial preposition *through* instead of “*over*” (“*walk through the bridge*”). The reason might be the influence of the mother tongue where the equivalent of the spatial preposition *through* is acceptable in this context, but with change of meaning. The use of *behind* instead of the spatial preposition “*over*” could be made because students may not know that “*over*” expresses the idea of *from one side to another*; for this reason, they used *behind* to express this idea, which is influenced by the Algerian dialect. For the spatial

preposition *from*, students used it to refer to the Arabic preposition “*mina*”, which does not fit the context.

The results obtained after the analysis of the errors the participants made when using the spatial preposition “*above*” in the pre-test are summed up in Table 4.16:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	above from	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		above of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
Substitution		at top of	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		up	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		on top of	01	01	-	-	02	02	-	-
		in top of	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		in the front of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		on	-	-	01	01	-	-	01	01
		on the top of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		higher	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		up to	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		in front of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		behind	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		in	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		up of	-	-	-	-	-	-	03	02
		upper	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
		under	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
		below	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	beside	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
	in the back of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.16: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Above” in the Pre-test

In the CG, there are five errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*above*”. The first one is about word formation where instead of using “*above*”, a student used *above from* (“*above from the desk, there are shelves*”), which does not exist in English. The other four errors are substitution errors. One of these errors is made where a student used *at top of*

in place of “above” (“the poster is **at top of** the bed”). Another error is caused by using *up* instead of *above* (“just **up** the bed, you will find a poster”). The last two errors are caused by replacing *above* by different prepositional phrases naming *in top of* (one case) and *on top of* (one case) in “the shelves are **in top of/on top of** the desk”.

Students in the Exp. G1 made three errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “above”. All of the errors are substitution ones. The first error is caused by substituting the use of “above” by the use of *in the front of* (“the poster is **in the front of** the bed”) and the second is by using the spatial preposition *on* (“there are many shelves **on** the desk”). The last error is the result of using *on the top of* instead of “above”.

Concerning the Exp. G2, students made eight errors where they should have used the spatial preposition “above”. One of these is word formation error where a student used *above of* instead of “above” (“**above of** the bed and the nightstand, there is a poster”). The other errors are substitution errors. Two errors refer to replacing “above” by *on top of* (“**on top of** my bed, there is my poster”). Another error is caused by using *higher* (“the poster of my famous singer is **higher** my bed”) instead of using “above”, and the other error is the result of using *up to* instead (“**up to** the telephone, there are encyclopaedias”). Another error is found because of using *in front of* instead of “above” (“the great poster is hanged **in front of** the bed”), and the other error is caused by using the spatial preposition *behind* in place of “above” (“my poster is **behind** the bed”). The last error made is caused by using *in* instead of “above” (“**in** the desk, there are many shelves”).

Students in the Exp. G3 made nine errors when using the spatial preposition “above”. All of them are substitution errors. Three of the uses of the spatial preposition “above” are replaced by the use of *up of* (“you find a beautiful poster, **up of** my bed”), and one is replaced by *upper*. One error is caused by using *on* instead of “above” (“**on** the bed, there is a beautiful poster”), another error by using *under* instead (“**under** the books, you find, three boxes”),

and the other error by using *in the back of* in place of “above” (“***in the back of*** the bed, there is a poster”). The last error is caused by using *below* instead of “above” (“***below*** the central unit of the computer, the computer screen”).

Concerning the use of the spatial preposition “above”, the Exp. G2 had the highest average of errors, with 0.29 error/student. The average of errors in the Exp. G3 is 0.26 error/student, which is higher than the average of errors in the CG (0.18 error/student) and the Exp. G1 (0.10 error/student), which has the lowest average when using the preposition “above”. The reason that the average of errors when using the spatial preposition “above” is lower than other spatial prepositions might be that the cases where this preposition could be used in the two paragraphs are more limited than the cases of use of other spatial prepositions.

The low frequency of using the spatial preposition “above” makes students avoid practising its use; consequently, they gradually replace it by using spatial prepositions *over* or *on*, which cannot always be appropriate or correct. For the same reason, students sometimes replace “above” by new phrases or new words, in addition to the use of the spatial prepositions *on* and *over*.

4.3.3.2. The Spatial Prepositions “Under” and “Below”

The number and the types of errors made by the participants of the four groups when using the spatial preposition “under” in the pre-test are illustrated in Table 4.17:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	01	01	01	01
Word Formation	Spelling	ender	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	Form	under of	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	01
Substitution		in	01	01	-	-	02	02	03	03
		below	01	01	03	02	04	02	03	02
		in the bottom of	01	01	-	-	-	-	01	01
		at top of	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		on	-	-	02	02	-	-	03	03

	between	-	-	02	02	01	01	-	-
	at	-	-	01	01	-	-	01	01
	among	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	next to	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	inside	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	in the middle of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	surrounded by	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	across of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	than	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.17: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Under” in the Pre-test

There are four errors in the CG made when using the spatial preposition “under”. All the four errors are substitution errors. One error is found because the student replaced the spatial preposition “under” by using the spatial preposition *in* (“***in*** each shelve, there are small light bulbs”) while another is due to replacing it by the spatial preposition *below* (“***below*** the desk there is the central unit of the computer”). The last two errors are caused by replacing the spatial preposition “under” by the two phrases *in the bottom of* (“the bulbs are ***in the bottom of*** each shelve”) and *at top of* (“there are small light bulbs ***at top of*** each shelve”).

In the Exp. G1, there are nine errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “under”. One of them is a spelling error where a student wrote *ender* (“the central unit of the computer, is ***ender*** the desk”). The eight remaining errors are substitution errors. Substitution errors include three errors where students used the spatial preposition *below* to substitute for the use of “under”. Moreover, they include two errors referring to the use of the spatial preposition *on* instead of “under” (“***on*** the shelves, you see small light bulbs”). Two errors are made because of replacing the preposition “under” by the spatial preposition *between* (“the small light bulbs are ***between*** these shelves”). The last error is caused by using the spatial preposition *at* instead of “under”.

Concerning the Exp. G2, there are ten errors made concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*under*”. One error is an omission error (“Ø *the second shelve, there are small light bulbs*”) and the nine remaining errors are substitution errors. Four uses of the spatial preposition “*under*” are substituted by using the spatial preposition *below* and one by the use of *among* (“*the small light bulbs are among all the shelves*”). Two use of “*under*” are replaced by using *in* and another error is caused by using *up to*. The last two errors are caused by using *between* and *next to* respectively (“*next to* *the desk, there is the waste basket*”).

In the Exp. G3, there are nineteen errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*under*”. Two errors are word formation errors where *under* is written *under of* (“*the waste basket is under of the desk*”) and one is an omission error. The remaining sixteen errors are substitution ones. Students replaced “*under*” by using the spatial preposition *below* and *on* three times each. Students in this group used the spatial preposition *in* instead of “*under*” three times, and used *inside* in place of “*under*” once. The phrases *in the middle of* (“*the central unit of the computer is in the middle of the desk*”) and *in the bottom of* are used wrongly by students to replace the use of the spatial preposition “*under*”. One error is caused by replacing “*under*” by using *surrounded by* (“*the small lights are surrounded by the shelves*”), and another is caused by replacing it by *across of* (“*the waste basket and the central unit of the computer are across of the desk*”). Some relation words are used incorrectly instead of the spatial preposition “*under*”, naming *is* and *then*.

The comparison between the four groups concerning the mistaken uses of the spatial preposition “*under*” reveals that the highest average of errors is in Exp. G3 (0.56 error/student), and the lowest is that of the CG (0.15 error/student). The average of errors made in the Exp. G2 (0.36 error/student) is higher than the average of errors done in the Exp. G1 (0.30 error/student). Though the average of errors when using the spatial prepositions

“*under*” is lower than many other spatial prepositions for the four groups, it is fairly significant in the Exp. G3 where for every two students, there is at least one error.

The reason that made students use *below* instead of “*under*” is that they may not know the importance of the covering sense that exists with some uses of the spatial preposition “*under*” and its absence with the use of the spatial preposition *below*. Students used *on* instead of “*under*” because *on* is used to refer to a surface, but when this surface is from the lower side, it is more acceptable to use “*under*” (“*the light bulbs are under the shelves not on*”). Since the TR is from the lower side of the LM and not from all the sides, *surrounded by* is not the choice to speak about “*the bulbs under the shelves*”. Students may perceive these lights as a part of the shelf itself; however, this would not allow these lights to be on and off, and the picture shows that these lights are stuck on the lower side of the shelf; for this, they were mistaken to use *in* or *inside*.

Table 4.18 summarises the errors made by the student of the four groups in the pre-test when the spatial preposition “*below*” should be used:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		under	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		above	-	-	01	01	02	02	-	-
		before	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.18: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*Below*” in the Pre-test

The total number of errors related to the spatial preposition “*below*” in the four groups is five errors. There is one error in the CG, a substitution error where “*below*” is replaced by the spatial preposition *under* (“*under the shelves, there is the wastebasket*”). In the Exp. G1, one error consists of the use of *above* to substitute for the use of spatial preposition “*below*”

(“the loud speakers are **above** the books”). There are three errors in the Exp. G2; two are caused by using *above* instead of “*below*”, and the last error is the use of *before* to replace the use of “*below*” (“the telephone is **before** the first shelf”). Students in the Exp. G3 did not make errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*below*”.

When using the spatial preposition “*below*”, students in the Exp. G2 have the highest average of errors, 0.11 error/student. The average of errors made in the CG is 0.04 error/student, which is a little higher than the average of errors made in the Exp. G1 (0.03 error/student). However, the average of errors made in the four groups concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*below*” is not significant compared to the averages of errors made when using other spatial prepositions.

Students have hardly made errors when using the spatial preposition “*below*” because they might have avoided using it as they are probably not very familiar with its use. Another reason is that they sometimes use the spatial preposition *under* since it is, in most cases through their production, possible to use either *below* or “*under*” interchangeably. Students may not know that “**under** the shelves, there is a wastebasket” is not appropriate because there is no function of the spatial preposition “*under*”.

4.3.3.3. The Spatial Prepositions “*Across*” and “*Opposite to/from*”

Table 4.19 summarises the errors made by the participants of the four groups when using the spatial preposition “*across*” in the pre-test:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			11	11	09	09	11	10	05	05
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	cross	03	03	01	01	02	02	02	02
		cross to	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
Substitution		beside to	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		beside	01	01	02	02	-	-	01	01
		next to	01	01	-	-	04	04	04	04
		near/close to	01	01	-	-	-	-	01	01

on	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
in front of	-	-	03	03	04	04	09	08	
ahead	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-	
through	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-	
next	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-	
in the other side of	-	-	02	01	-	-	01	01	
on the other side of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-	
against to the back of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-	
after	-	-	02	01	01	01	-	-	
forward	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-	
between	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-	
from	-	-	-	-	01	01	01	01	
front of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
face of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
in the front of	01	01	-	-	-	-	02	01	
in the left of	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	02	
at the left of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
at the right of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
to	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	

Table 4.19: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Across” in the Pre-test

In the CG, there are twenty-one errors made when using the spatial preposition “*across*”. Eleven omission errors (“*when you get the museum, the train station is there*”), three errors are word formation errors where students used the verb form *cross* instead of the preposition “*across*” (“*you will find the train station cross the road of museum*”). The seven remaining errors are substitution ones. One of these errors is made because of using *beside to* instead of “*across*” (“*the cafe is beside to the school*”), and one because of using *beside* (“*we are now here beside the river*”). Another error of substitution is caused by replacing the spatial preposition “*across*” by the use of *next to* (“*you find the train station next to the avenue*”). One error is caused by using *near/close to* instead of “*across*” (“*the*

train station is **near to** the street of the museum”), and another error is the result of using *on* (“walk strictly **on** this river”). There is one error that resulted from using *in the front of* instead of “across” (“then you will find the train station **in the front of** the museum”). The adverb *ahead* are used erroneously once for each to substitute for the use of “across” (“go **ahead** the road and you will find the train station”).

Students in the Exp. G1 made twenty-five errors when using the spatial preposition “across”. One of these errors is a word formation error where a student used the verb *cross*. Nine errors are omission errors and fourteen errors are substitution. Three errors are caused by using *in front of* instead of “across” (“the train station is **in front of** that street”). While two errors result from using the spatial preposition *beside* in place of “across”, one error is due to using the spatial preposition *through* (“move **through** the river to get to the library”), and one is found because of using *next* instead of “across”. Some errors are the result of using some phrases to express inappropriately the meaning of “across”, naming *in the other side of* (“there is the museum and **in the other side of** the road, there is the supermarket”) used twice, *on the other side of* (“**on the other side of** the street you, find the supermarket”) used once, and *against to the back of* (“**against to the back of** the museum, there is the train station you are looking for”) used also once. The adverb *after* is used twice incorrectly to refer to the meaning expressed by “across” (“the library is **after** the river”). One use of the spatial preposition “across” was incorrectly replaced by the use of *forward* (“then the school is **forward** the cafe”). One use of the preposition “across” is substituted for by the use of *between* (“the train station is **between** the streets of the supermarket and the school”).

There are twenty-four errors in the Exp. G2 related to the use of the spatial preposition “across”, eleven of which are omission errors, three errors are word formation ones in which there are two cases where the verb *cross* is used instead of the spatial preposition “across”, and one use of *cross to* instead of “across”. The ten remaining are substitution errors. Among

the substitution errors, four errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *in front of* instead of the spatial preposition “*across*”, and four errors caused by using the spatial preposition *next to* in place of “*across*”. One error is caused by using *from* instead of “*across*” (“move **from** that street after the school, to find the train station”), and the last one is the result of using *after* instead of “*across*”.

Concerning the Exp. G3, there are thirty-three errors in using the spatial preposition “*across*”. Five of these errors are omission errors, two are word formation errors where the verb is used not the preposition, and the twenty-six remaining errors are substitution ones. There are nine errors where the use of the spatial preposition “*across*” is wrongly changed by using the spatial preposition *in front of*. One error is made because of replacing “*across*” by the group of words *front of*, another is caused by replacing it by *face to*, and two other errors are caused by replacing “*across*” by *in the front of*. There are four errors that are caused by using the spatial preposition *next to* in place of the spatial preposition “*across*”. While two errors are caused by using *in the left of* instead of using “*across*”, one error is caused by using *at the left of*, and one error is caused by using *at the right of* (“finally you will find the train station **at the left/ right of** the road”). One error is the result of using the spatial preposition *near/close to* instead of “*across*”, another is the result of using *to* instead of “*across*” (“keep walking **to** the road of the museum, to find the train station”), and one is due to using the spatial preposition *beside*. Finally, the phrase *in the other side of* is incorrectly used once to replace the use of “*across*”, and one error is due to the use of *from* instead of using the spatial preposition “*across*”.

The analysis of the use of the spatial preposition “*across*” reveals that the Exp. G3 has the highest average of errors, which is 0.97 error/student. The Exp. G2 has a slightly higher average of errors (0.86 error/student) than the Exp. G1 (0.83 error/student) and the CG (0.78 error/student), whose averages are very close. The average of errors made by students in the

four groups is remarkable, mainly in the Exp. G3, in the sense that the average of errors reveals that there is almost one error made for every student when using the spatial preposition “*across*”. The other groups’ averages of errors show that in every five students, there are at least four errors made when using the spatial preposition “*across*”.

The errors made when using the spatial preposition “*across*” could be explained by many reasons. One of these reasons is its absence in the students’ mother tongue since the meaning of this preposition is expressed through using phrases not spatial prepositions in Arabic; consequently, students used phrases to refer to the meaning of “*across*”. The second reason could be that students might think that using more general prepositions, such as *near to*, might express and include the meaning presented by a specific spatial preposition like “*across*”. The third reason is that students confuse between the use of the verb and the use of the spatial preposition. Another reason might be that the spatial preposition *in front of* is used the same way in the students’ dialect to refer to closeness relation from any side, which is not the case when it is used in English. The expressions *in the front of* and *in front of* are used by the students interchangeably though they are different.

The errors made and their types when the participants of the sample used the spatial preposition “*opposite to/from*” in the pre-test are illustrated in Table 4.20.

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	in the opposite of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		opposite of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Substitution		face to	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		at the left and at the right of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		in face	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		beside	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		across to	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01

	next	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-

Table 4.20: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*Opposite to/from*” in the Pre-test

When using the spatial preposition “*opposite to/from*”, a student in the CG made one substitution error where the use of “*opposite to/from*” was replaced by *face to* (“*the train station will be face to you*”).

In the Exp. G1, there are four errors. One is an addition error (“*opposite to* *on the left of them, there is a telephone*”), one is a word formation error that consists in using *in the opposite of* and two are substitution errors. One error is made because of using *at the left and right of* instead of “*opposite to/from*” (“*at the left and at right of* *the loud speakers, there are the encyclopaedias*”), and the other error is caused by using *in face* in place of “*opposite to/from*” (“*the supermarket, is in face the school*”).

In the Exp. G2, a student made one error, a substitution error where the spatial preposition *beside* is used in place of “*opposite to/from*” (“*my big white desk is beside my bed*”).

There are three errors concerning the use of “*opposite to/from*” in the Exp. G3. One error is a word formation error where *opposite of* is used instead of “*opposite to/from*”. The other two errors are substitution errors. One use of the spatial preposition “*opposite to/from*” is replaced mistakenly by the use of *across to* (“*when you enter my room, you will find my bed and my desk across to each other*”), and the other is the erroneous use of *next to* instead of “*opposite to/from*” (“*the school is next the café*”).

When comparing the four groups, the average of errors made in the Exp. G1 is the highest, 0.13 error/student. The Exp. G3 has a slightly higher average of errors (0.09 error/student) than the Exp. G2 and the CG, which both have the same average of errors (0.04 error/student). It can be noticed that the averages of the four groups are very close to

one another; moreover, all the averages are not significant concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*opposite to/from*”.

The main reasons that probably caused students to make those errors could be that the spatial preposition “*opposite to/from*” does not exist in the students’ mother tongue.

4.3.3.4. The Spatial Prepositions “*To/On the Right/Left of*”

Table 4.21 summarises the errors made by the student of the four groups when using the spatial preposition “*to/on the right of*” in the pre-test:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	in the right of	25	12	18	08	24	12	46	18
		from the right of	07	03	01	01	-	-	02	01
		at the right of	06	04	04	02	06	05	10	05
		with the right of	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution	in the corner of	01	01	01	01	-	-	-	-	
	in front of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.21: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*To/On the Right of*” in the Pre-test

In the CG, there are forty errors concerning the use of “*to/on the right of*”. Among these errors, thirty-nine are word formation errors; twenty-five errors concern the use of *in the right of*, seven errors are about the use *from the right of*, six errors caused by using *at the right of*, and one error is due to the use of *with the right of*. One error is a substitution error due to the use of *in the corner of* in place of using “*to/on the right of*”.

Concerning the errors made by students in the Exp. G1, there are twenty-four errors when using the spatial preposition “*to/on the right of*”. Twenty-three errors are word formation errors where the form *in the right of* is used eighteen times, *at the right of* is used

four times, and *from the right of* is used once. One error is a substitution error caused by the use of *in the corner of* instead of using “*to/on the right of*”.

There are thirty-one errors in the Exp. G2 in using the spatial preposition “*to/on the right of*”. Thirty errors are word formation errors where twenty-four concern the use of the form *in the right of*, and six errors are related to the form *at the right of*. One substitution error is caused by the use of *in front of* instead of “*to/on the right of*”.

In the Exp. G3, fifty-eight word formation errors are found. There are forty-six errors caused by the use of the form *in the right of* instead of “*to/on the right of*”. Ten errors are caused by using the form *at the right of* and two errors result from the use of the form *from the right of*.

To compare the performance of the four groups in relation to the use of the spatial preposition “*to/on the right of*”, the highest average of errors is that of the Exp. G3 (1.71 error/student) and the lowest is that of the Exp. G1 (0.80 error/student). The average of errors of the CG (1.48 error/student) is higher than that of the Exp. G2 (1.11 error/student).

Table 4.22 summarises the errors made by the student when using the spatial preposition “*to/on the left of*” in the pre-test:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	in the felt of	-	-	-	-	-	-	04	01
	Form	in the left of	20	11	17	11	31	12	49	20
		from the left of	04	02	02	02	-	-	03	03
		at the left of	08	03	05	02	07	06	16	06
		by the left of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		the left of	-	-	-	-	-	-	03	01
Substitution	behind		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	under		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-

	toward	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
Addition		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.22: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “To/On the Left of” in the Pre-test

When using the spatial preposition “*to/on the left of*”, students in the CG made thirty-two errors. All the errors are word formation errors. Twenty errors are due to the use of the form *in the left of*. Eight errors are caused by the use of the form *at the left of*. The four remaining errors result from the use of the form *from the left of*.

Concerning the Exp. G1, there are twenty-seven errors; twenty-five of these are word formation errors, and two are substitution ones. Seventeen among the word formation errors are the result of using the form *in the left of*. Five errors are caused by the use of the form *at the left of*, two are due to the use of the form *from the left of*, and one error is due to the use of *by the left of*. The two substitution errors are caused by the use of *behind* and *under* once each instead of “*to/on the left of*”.

As for the Exp. G2, thirty-nine errors are found of which thirty-eight are word formation errors, and one is a substitution error. Thirty-one word formation errors are caused by the use of the form *in the left of*, and seven uses of the form *at the left of*. The substitution error is due to the use of *toward* instead of “*to/on the left of*”.

When using the spatial preposition “*to/on the left of*”, students in the Exp. G3 made seventy-five errors. All errors are word formation ones. Four errors are related to spelling since a student wrote *in the felt of*. Forty-nine errors are related to the use of the form *in the left of*, sixteen errors are due to the use of the form *at the left of*, three caused by the use the form *from the left of*, and three errors are caused by the use of *the left of* (“***the left of*** *the desk, there is the telephone*”).

The comparison of the averages of errors made in the four groups when using the spatial preposition “*to/on the left of*” reveals that the highest average of errors is in the Exp. G3 with 2.21 error/student, while the lowest average is found in the Exp. G1 with 0.90

error/student. The average of errors made in the Exp. G2 (1.39 error/student) is higher than the average of errors made in the CG (1.19 error/student).

Shared errors concerning the use of “*to/on the right/ left (of)*” show that *in the right/left of* is the most commonly made one (“*when you turn right, you will find in the right of your hand the supermarket and in the left of your hand the school*”). The second most common error is the use of *at the right/left of* instead of “*to/on the right/left of*” (“*at the right of the room, there is the bed and at the left of it, there is a desk*”). Another common error is using *from the right/left of* instead of “*to/on the right/left of*” (“*from the right of the room, there is a bed*”). Using *with the right/left of* (“*with the right of you, there is a library*”) and *next to the right of* (“*next to your right side, there is a museum*”) constitute two error made in the CG. Moreover, the use of *in front of* (“*walk straight and you will find the school in front of you*”), *behind* (“*the plants are behind the night stand*”), *under* (“*I have a carpet under the bed*”), *in the corner of* (“*you will see a car park and in the corner of it, there is a hospital*”) instead of “*to/on the right/left of*” can stand as examples of the errors made in the Exp. G2. The use of *by the right of* is an error made in the Exp. G2 (“*by the right of the nightstand there is a tall, clean window*”). The erroneous use of *toward* instead of “*to/on the right/left of*” is found in the Exp. G3 (“*my carpet is toward the bed*”), in addition to the use of *in the felt of* instead of “*on the left of*” (“*in the felt of the window, there is the desk*”).

The reason behind students’ errors could mainly be that, in their mother language, the equivalent of *in ‘fi’* is used to refer to sides whether right or left.

4.3.4. Misuse of the Trajector and the Landmark

Because the correct use of the TR and the LM is of crucial importance in the correctness of using the spatial prepositions, students’ errors of using them are highlighted and analysed.

According to the use and the position of both the TR and the LM, students of the CG made three errors, one in identifying the TR according to a less visible LM (“*the nightstand is under the nightlight*”) and two in changing the positions of the TR and the LM (“*the decoration lights are between the computer screen*”).

In the Exp. G1, there are four errors. The four errors are caused by changing the positions of the TR and the LM (“*cinema is opposite to supermarket*”) in two cases, one case (“*two decoration lights between computer screen*”). One error is caused by using a wrong LM (“*in the middle of the room, there is a window*”).

Concerning the Exp. G2, there are four cases of using a wrong LM (“*in the middle of the room, there is window*”). In the Exp. G3, there are thirteen errors in using the TR and the LM. Three errors are due to identifying a more visible TR according to a less visible one (“*a nightstand under the nightlight*”). Five errors are caused by using a wrong TR (“*in the middle of the room [instead of the wall] there is a window*”). Two errors are due to identifying a static TR according to a movable LM (“*there train station next to a yellow car*”). Three errors are caused by changing the position of the TR and the LM, two cases when using the spatial preposition *between* (“*decoration lights between the computer screen*”) and one case when using the spatial preposition *opposite to* (“*cinema opposite to supermarket*”).

4.3.5. Comparison of the Results of the Pre-test of the Four Groups

Table 4.23 presents the total number of errors and the average of errors per student of each of the four groups in relation to their performance in the pre-test:

	CG	Exp. G1	Exp. G2	Exp. G3
Total Number of Errors	266	313	312	497
Number of Students	27	30	28	34
Average (error/student)	09.85	10.43	11.14	14.62

Table 4.23: Overall Results of the Pre-test

When comparing the overall performance of the four groups in the pre-test, it is noticeable that the average of errors made per student when using spatial prepositions in the

pre-test is the lowest in the CG with 9.85 errors/student. The average of errors made in the Exp. G1 is 10.37 errors/student, which is higher than the CG but lower than the average of the Exp. G2 with 11.18 errors/student. The highest average of errors when using spatial prepositions is found in the Exp. G3 with 14.62 errors/student.

The difference in terms of average of errors among the four groups may be explained by the difference in the levels of the students of each group because the groups taken are administratively and randomly divided. Therefore, the groups do not have the same level and the performance of each group is different from those of the others.

In terms of the types of the spatial prepositions, the four groups have different numbers of errors with different types of spatial prepositions. More detailed information concerning the number of errors made with each spatial preposition in each of the four groups participating in this experiment is summarised in Table 4.24:

Prepositions	CG	Exp. G1	Exp. G2	Exp. G3
in	10	07	06	20
on	69	94	75	103
at	04	04	05	05
between	05	12	13	10
among	-	-	-	-
in front of	19	25	18	33
behind	06	-	02	01
beyond	-	-	-	-
near/close to	01	06	03	04
by	07	03	01	03
next to	13	35	45	44
beside	01	06	01	04
up	-	-	-	-
down	-	-	-	-
into	-	-	-	-
out of	-	-	01	01
through	-	01	03	06
along	09	08	07	16
to	05	03	03	18
for	-	-	-	-
from	-	-	-	-
over	10	12	09	19
above	05	03	08	09
under	04	09	10	19

below	01	01	03	-
across	21	25	24	33
opposite to/from	01	04	01	03
to/on the right of	40	24	31	58
to/on the left of	32	27	39	75
TR&LM	03	04	04	13
Total	266	313	312	497
Number of Students	27	30	28	34
Average (error/student)	9.85	10.43	11.14	14.62

Table 4.24: Number of Errors for each Spatial Preposition in the four Groups in the Pre-test

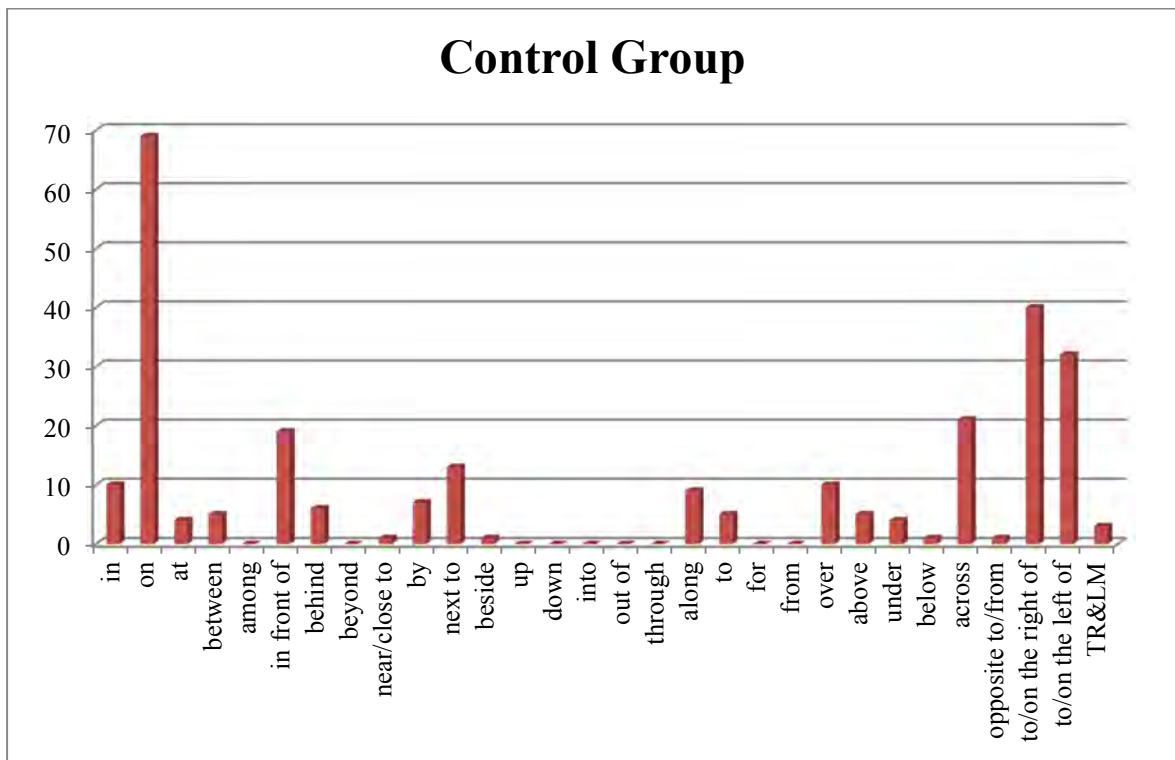


Figure 4.1: Number of Errors for each Preposition in the Control Group in the Pre-test

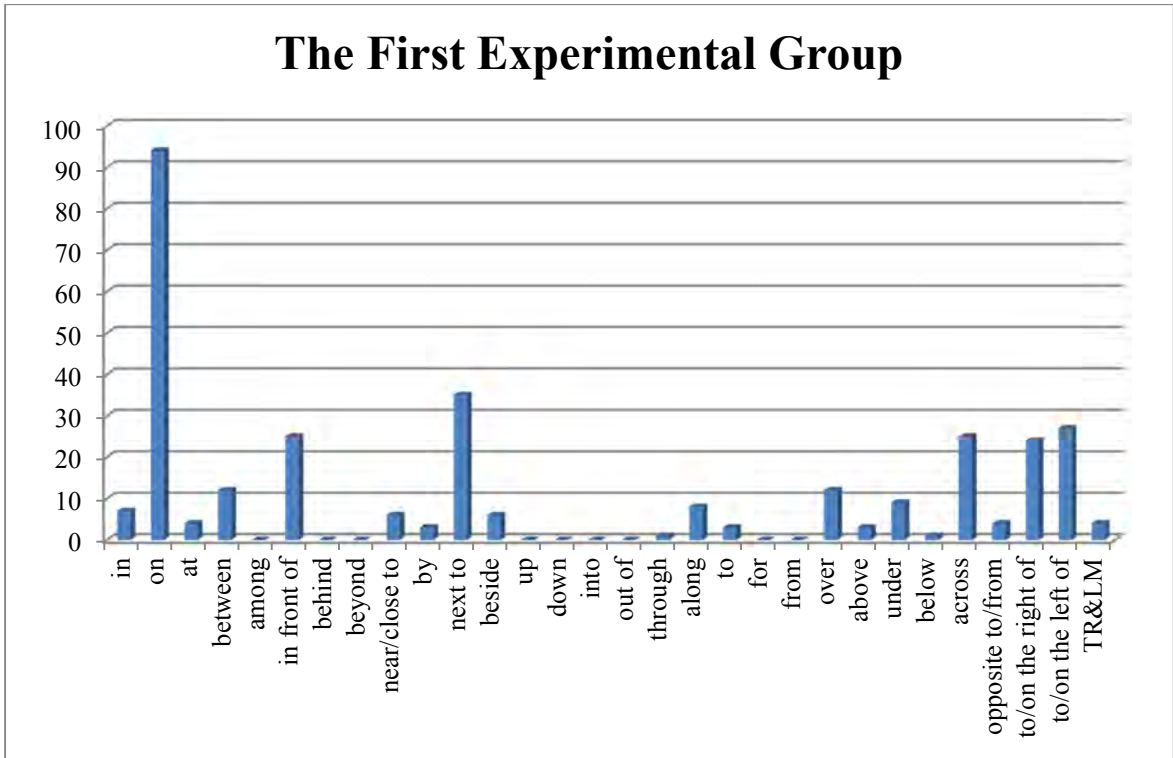


Figure 4.2: Number of Errors for each Preposition in the First Experimental Group in the Pre-test

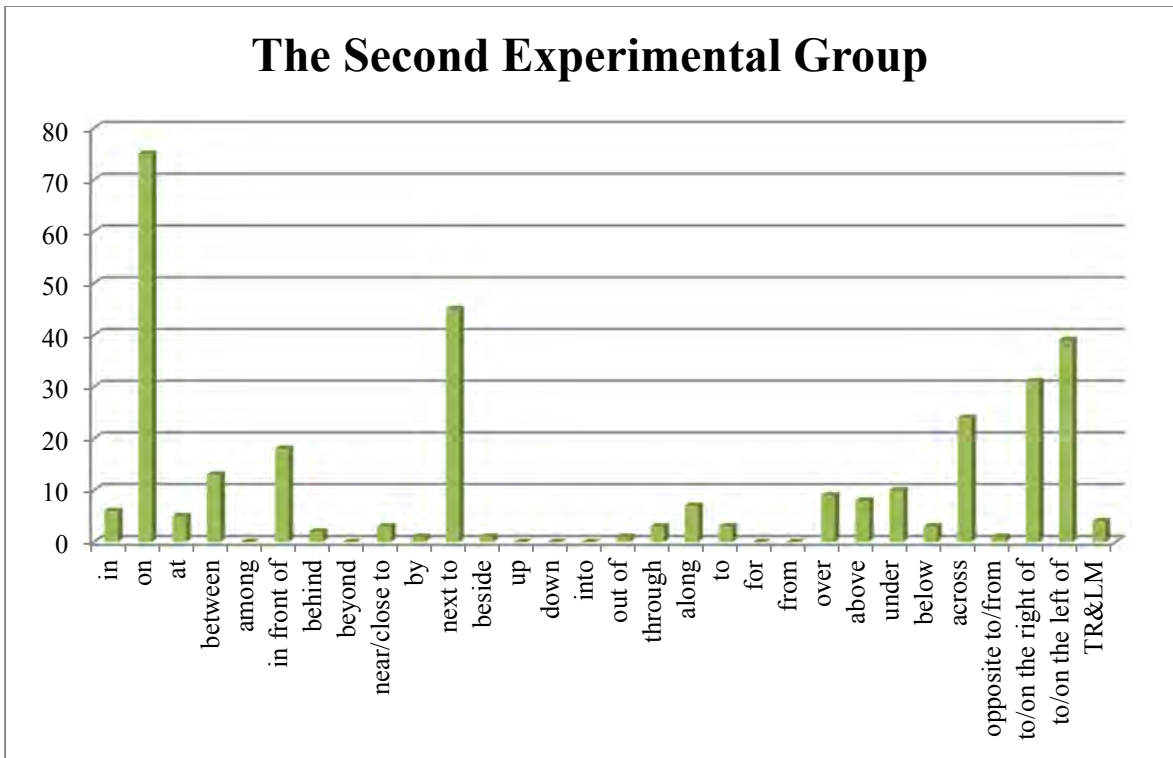


Figure 4.3: Number of Errors for each Preposition in the Second Experimental Group in the Pre-test

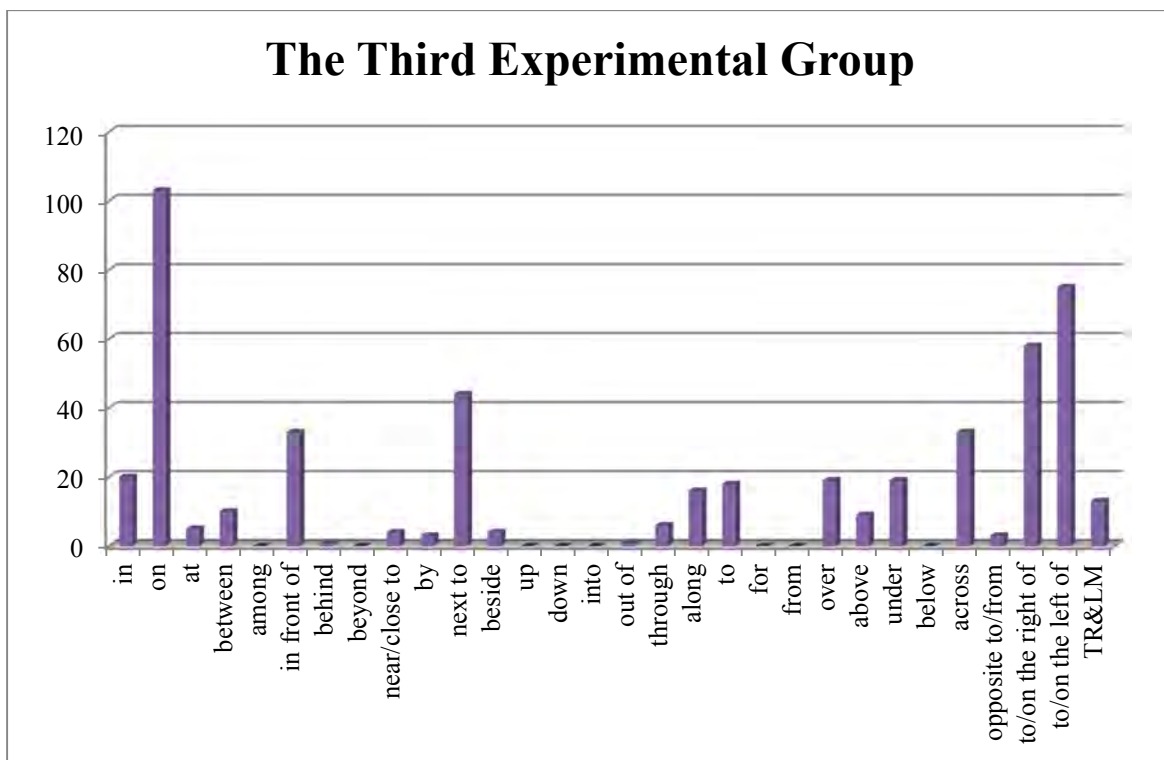


Figure 4.4: Number of Errors for each Preposition in the Third Experimental Group in the Pre-test

The diagrams above clearly illustrate that the use of the spatial preposition *on* is considered the greatest problem in the four groups. Similarly, students of the four groups share the feature of having problems concerning the use of the following spatial prepositions: *across*, *in front of*, *next to*, and *to/on the right/left of*, with different numbers of errors.

Concerning the type of errors made by the students in the four groups, results of the pre-test present the following types of errors:

Types of Errors	CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Omission	16	06.02	22	07.03	22	07.05	27	05.43
Word Formation	81	30.45	66	21.08	81	25.96	159	31.99
Substitution	159	59.77	216	69.01	199	63.79	279	56.14
Addition	07	02.63	05	01.60	06	01.92	19	03.82
TR/LM	03	01.13	04	01.28	04	01.28	13	02.62
Total	266	100	313	100	312	100	497	100

Table 4.25: Results of the Pre-test related to the Types of Errors in the Four Groups

Accordingly, it can be said that students' most common errors when using spatial prepositions are substitution errors in all the four groups, with a rate of 59.77% of all the errors in the CG, 69.01% in the Exp. G1, 63.79% in the Exp. G2, and 56.14% in the Exp. G3. The major problem that students face when using spatial prepositions is using another spatial preposition, a word, or a group of words instead of using the right one.

Though students who answered the pre-test are Second Year students of English at university, which means that they are post-intermediate pre-advanced learners, a remarkable rate of their errors is that of word formation errors. Word formation errors include spelling errors of the spatial prepositions and their forms.

4.4. Analysis of the Results of the Post-test

When using the spatial prepositions in the post-test, the differences between the groups were remarkable whether at the level of the number of the errors made in each group or at the level of the spatial preposition that students face problems with.

4.4.1. Misuse of the Spatial Prepositions of Position

Although there were no errors concerning the use of the following spatial prepositions of position: *between*, *among*, and *beyond*, the results obtained in the post-test include results of using the following spatial prepositions of position: *in*, *on*, *at*, *in front of*, *behind*, *near/close to*, *by*, *next to*, and *beside*.

4.4.1.1. The Spatial Preposition “In”

After analysing the students' productions in the post-test, the errors found related to the use of the spatial preposition “*in*” are presented in Table 4.26:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution	at		02	02	05	05	01	01	-	-
	on		11	09	03	03	06	06	03	03

	from	01	01	-	-	-	-	01	01
	under	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	to	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	among	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	into	-	-	-	-	02	02	01	01
Addition		03	03	01	01	-	-	02	02

Table 4.26: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “In” in the Post-test

In the CG, there are eighteen errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “in”. Three of these errors are addition errors (“when you enter in my room, you will find it very organized”), and fifteen are substitution errors. Eleven substitution errors are caused by the use of the spatial preposition *on* instead of “in”; (“on the corner of my desk, there is my computer screen”, “there are many shapes on the back of the chair like a star”). Two substitution errors result from the use of the spatial preposition *at* (“the flowers are at the vase”) and one error because of using *from* instead of “in” (“the central unit of the computer is from the corner of the desk”). The last error is due to using the spatial preposition *under* instead of the spatial preposition “in” (“under the long wardrobe, there are three drawers”).

Students in the Exp. G1 made eleven errors when using the spatial preposition “in”. One error is an addition error and the ten remaining errors are substitution ones. Five substitution errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *at* instead of “in” and three are due to using the spatial preposition *on*. One error is the result of using the spatial preposition *to* (“these drawers are located to the desk and the nightstand”) and one is due to using the spatial preposition *among* instead of “in” (“among my room, there is my bed”).

As for the Exp. G2, students made nine errors with the use of the spatial preposition “in”. Six errors are caused by the use of *on* instead of using the spatial preposition “in”. Only one use of the spatial preposition “in” is substituted for by using *at*. In addition to that, there are two errors caused by using the spatial preposition *into* instead of the spatial preposition “in” (“the flowers are found into the vase”).

There are seven errors made by students in the Exp. G3 related to the use of the spatial preposition “*in*”. Two of these errors are addition errors and the five remaining errors are substitution errors. Three substitution errors are caused by the use of the spatial preposition *on*, one is caused by replacing the use of “*in*” by the use of *into*, and the last error is caused by using the spatial preposition *from* instead.

When comparing the results of using the spatial preposition “*in*” in the post-test, it can be noticed that the average of errors per student is the highest in the CG with 0.67 error/student, while the lowest in that of the Exp. G3 (0.21 error/student). The average of errors in the Exp. G1 is slightly higher than that of the Exp. G2, which are 0.37 error/student and 0.32 error/student respectively.

In the four groups, there are students who are confused when dealing with the different notions related to corners depending on the context. For this reason, the majority of the errors made are caused by using the spatial preposition *on* where the spatial preposition “*in*” should have been used. However, students in the Exp. G3 seem to be more aware about the use of the spatial preposition *in* compared to the other groups.

4.4.1.2. The Spatial Preposition “*On*”

The analysis of the post-test reveals that when using the spatial preposition “*on*”, students of the four groups make the errors presented in Table 4.27:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			01	01	-	-	-	-	01	01
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution	in		28	13	23	14	12	04	12	07
	above of		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	above		14	09	16	10	05	03	-	-
	over		04	02	11	04	02	01	15	05
	on top of		04	04	03	03	04	03	-	-
	inside		04	02	-	-	01	01	-	-
	at		04	02	05	05	03	02	-	-

between	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
upon	01	01	-	-	02	01	-	-	-
to	01	01	01	01	02	02	-	-	-
up	-	-	01	01	02	02	-	-	-
next to	-	-	01	01	-	-	02	01	-
in front of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-	-
into	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	01	-
Addition	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.27: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “On” in the Post-test

There are sixty-two errors related the use of the spatial preposition “on” in the CG. One is an omission error and sixty-one are substitution ones. Twenty-eight errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *in* instead of the spatial preposition “on” (“in the middle shelve, there is a pen holder”). Fourteen errors are caused by the use of the spatial preposition *above* instead of “on” (“we have an orange nightlight above the nightstand”). While there are four errors caused by the use of the spatial preposition *over* (“the pillow is over my bed”), four errors are due to using the spatial preposition *on top of* (“on top of the last shelve, there are flowers”). In this group, there are four cases where the spatial preposition “on” is wrongly replaced by the use of *inside* (“inside this shelve, I put my books”), and four other cases where it is replaced by the spatial preposition *at* (“at the first shelve, there is a pen holder”). One error is the result of using the spatial preposition *between* (“the books are between the second and the third shelves”), and another error is caused by using *upon* instead of using “on” (“the vase is upon the last shelve”). The last error is caused by using the spatial preposition *to* instead of the spatial preposition “on” (“to the desk, there is a computer screen”).

Students in the Exp. G1 made sixty-two errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “on”; all are substitution errors. Twenty-three errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *in* instead of the spatial preposition “on”. Sixteen errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *above* in place of the spatial preposition “on” and eleven errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *over*. One error is caused by wrongly using *above*

of in place of “*on*”. While there are five errors caused by using the spatial preposition *at*, three errors are caused by using *on top of* instead of “*on*”. Two errors are the results of using *to* and *up* once each instead of “*on*” (“***up*** *this shelf, there is a plastic doll*”). The last error is caused by using *next to* instead of “*on*” (“***next to*** *the wardrobe, there is a cartoon*”).

Concerning the Exp. G2, there are thirty-four errors in relation to the use of the spatial preposition “*on*”; all these errors are substitution ones. Twelve of these errors are found because students used the spatial preposition *in* instead of the spatial preposition “*on*” and five are caused by the use of *above*. Two errors are the result of using *over* and four errors result from using *on top of* instead of “*on*”. While there are three errors caused by using the spatial preposition *at*, one error is caused by using *in front of* (“*I put a beautiful plush ***in front of*** my carpet*”). There are two errors caused by the use of *up* and two by the use of *upon*. Two errors are the result of using *to* instead of “*on*”, and one is due to using *inside*.

When using the spatial preposition “*on*”, students in the Exp. G3 made thirty-two errors. There is one omission error and thirty-one are substitution errors. Twelve errors are caused by the use of *in* instead of “*on*”, and fifteen errors are due to using *over*. Two errors result from using *next to*, and the last two errors are caused by using *into* in place of the spatial preposition “*on*” (“*I put the pen holder ***into*** the second shelf*”).

The averages of errors made in the four groups when using the spatial preposition “*on*” are quite different. The highest average is found in the CG with 2.30 error/student, while the lowest average of errors is that of the Exp. G3 with 0.94 error/student. The Exp. G1 and the Exp. G2 came second and third with 2.07 and 1.21 error/student respectively. Moreover, it is noticeable that the average of CG is nearly the double of the average of the Exp. G2, and both the CG and the Exp. G1 have averages that are more than twice the average of the Exp. G3.

When comparing the results of the four groups after the treatment, it appears that many students in the four groups could not use the spatial preposition “on” correctly. The four groups share the substitution of the spatial preposition “on” by the following prepositions: *in, over, on top of, and above*. Hence, even after the treatments, students of the three experimental groups still face problems concerning the use of the spatial preposition “on”, but with significant difference between them.

4.4.1.3. The Spatial Preposition “At”

After analysing the use of the spatial preposition “at” in the post-test, the errors made by the participants of the four groups are shown in Table 4.28:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution	in		04	04	09	08	07	06	05	05
	before		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	to		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	onto		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	besides		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	on		-	-	02	02	-	-	-	-
	by		-	-	01	01	01	01	-	-
	upon		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	inside		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
over		-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.28: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “At” in the Post-test

When using the spatial preposition “at”, students in the CG made eight errors; all are substitution ones. Four of these errors are the result of the substitution for the spatial preposition “at” by using the spatial preposition *in* (“turn right ***in*** Maple Avenue). One error is due to using *before* (“then, turn right ***before*** the Rosa’s Restaurant”) and another is caused by using the spatial preposition *to* instead of “at” (“turn left ***to*** the first corner”). The two

last errors are due to using *onto* (“and then, you will find yourself **onto** the public library”) and *besides* (“after that, turn **besides** the Fran’s Cafe”) once each.

In the Exp. G1, there are fourteen substitution errors. Nine of these errors are the result of using the spatial preposition *in* in place of the spatial preposition “at”, and two errors are caused by using *on* instead. One error is caused by using the preposition *by* in place of the spatial preposition “at” (“turn **by** that corner”), and one is due to using *upon* instead (“turn right **upon** the gas station”). The last error is caused by using *inside* rather than using the spatial preposition “at” (“you are now **inside** the hotel, walk ahead then turn right”).

Concerning the Exp. G2, nine substitution errors are found. Seven of these errors are caused by substituting for the use of the spatial preposition “at” by using the spatial preposition *in*. One error is caused by the use of *by* instead of “at”. The last error is the result of using the spatial preposition *over* (“when you get **over** the corner turn left”).

Concerning the errors made by students in the Exp. G3, there are five substitution errors. All are caused by using the spatial preposition *in* instead of the spatial preposition “at”.

When comparing the results of the use of the spatial preposition “at” obtained in the post-test, it appears that the Exp. G1 has the highest average of errors with 0.47 error/student while the average of errors of the Exp. G3 is 0.15 error/student, which is the lowest average. The CG and the Exp. G2 have very close averages with 0.30 error/student for the former, and 0.32 error/student for the latter.

Moreover, the preposition that students of the four groups used wrongly in the post-test instead of the spatial preposition “at” is the spatial preposition *in*. However, in both the CG and the Exp. G1 there is more variety of errors than in the Exp. G2 and the Exp. G3 concerning the other prepositions wrongly used instead of the spatial preposition “at”.

4.4.1.4. The Spatial Prepositions “*In Front of*” and “*Behind*”

When using the spatial preposition “*in front of*” in the post-test, the participant of the four groups made the errors that are summarised in Table 4.29:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	infront of	02	02	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	on front of	02	02	-	-	01	01	03	02
		front of	01	01	-	-	-	-	03	03
Substitution		next to	04	03	01	01	-	-	-	-
		in	02	02	-	-	-	-	-	-
		near	01	01	-	-	02	02	-	-
		beside	01	01	-	-	01	01	-	-
		under	01	01	03	03	02	02	-	-
		in the front of	01	01	01	01	-	-	02	02
		face to	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		below	-	-	02	02	01	01	01	01
		forwards	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		between the face of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		near from	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		near of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		behind	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		surrounded by	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		inside of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	across	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
	at the back of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.29: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*In Front of*” in the Post-test

Students in the CG made fifteen errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*in front of*”. Five errors are word formation errors; two of these errors are spelling errors where *infront of* is written instead of “*in front of*” (“*the computer screen is **infront of** the chair*”). Three errors are form errors, among which two refer to the use of the form *on front of* not “*in front of*” (“*the window is **on front of** the chair*”), and one refers to the use of *front of* instead of “*in front of*” (“**front of** this window, there is a coat holder”). The ten remaining

errors are substitution errors. Four of these substitution errors are the result of using *next to* instead of “*in front of*” (“*the window is next to the chair*”), and two are due to using the spatial preposition *in* (“*the King Plaza Hotel is in the Rosa’s Restaurant*”). While one error is caused by using *near* instead of “*in front of*” (“*the plush is directly near the wardrobe*”), one error is caused by using *beside* instead (“*when you enter my room, you first see the carpet beside you*”). Another error is caused by the use of *under* in place of “*in front of*” (“*the chair is under the desk*”), and the last error in this group is caused by using *in the front of* (“*the King Plaza Hotel is in the front of the Rosa’s Restaurant*”).

In the Exp. G1, there are ten substitution errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*in front of*”. Three errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *under* instead of the spatial preposition “*in front of*” and two are caused by using the spatial preposition *below* instead (“*the chair is below the desk*”). One error is the result of using *face to* instead of the spatial preposition “*in front of*” (“*the coat holder is face to the window*”). One error is due to using *next to* in place of using “*in front of*”, and one due to the use of *forwards* (“*when you enter my room, you will see my bed, just forwards you*”). One of the errors is the result of using *between the face of* instead of using “*in front of*” (“*I put the chair between the face of the desk and the face of the drawers*”), and the last error in this group is caused by using *in the front of* instead.

As for the Exp. G2, there are twelve errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*in front of*”. One of these errors is a word formation error where the spatial preposition “*in front of*” is replaced by the form *on front of*. The other errors are substitution ones. Two of those errors are caused by using *near* instead of “*in front of*”, one caused by using *near from*, one by using *near of* and another error is caused by using *beside* instead. Two errors result from using *under* instead of “*in front of*”, one error is due to using *below* and one error is caused by using *behind* (“*the chair is behind the window*”). The last two errors are due to

the use of *surrounded by* (“and the chair is **surrounded by** the window”) and *inside of* (“the chair is **inside of** the desk”) instead of “*in front of*”.

In relation to the use of the spatial preposition “*in front of*”, students in the Exp. G3 made eleven errors. Six of these errors are word formation where three of them refer to the use of the form *front of* instead of “*in front of*” and three errors are due to the use of the form *on front of*. The five remaining errors are substitution. Two substitution errors are caused by using *in the front of* and one is caused by using *across* (“the king plaza hotel is **across** the Rosa’s Restaurant”). The last error is due to the use of *at the back of* instead of using “*in front of*” (“**at the back of** the window, there is a green chair”).

When comparing the results of using the spatial preposition “*in front of*” in the post-test, it appears that the average of errors in the CG (0.56 error/student) is the highest among all averages followed by the average of errors in the Exp. G2 (0.43 error/student). The averages of the Exp. G1 and the Exp. G3 are very close to each other, with 0.33 error/student and 0.32 error/student respectively.

Students’ errors in the four groups after the analysis of using the spatial preposition “*behind*” in the students’ production in the post-test are shown in Table 4.30:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution	in front of		02	02	02	02	02	02	02	02
	beside		01	01	02	02	-	-	-	-
	next to		01	01	-	-	01	01	02	02
	around		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	in the front of		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	opposite to/from		-	-	01	01	-	-	03	03
	in the opposite of		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-

	opposite from the back side of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	above	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	below	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
	near to	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.30: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Behind” in the Post-test

In the CG, there are five substitution errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*behind*”. Two errors are caused by using *in front of* instead of “*behind*” (“*the bed which in front of the plush is so big*”). One error is caused by using *beside* (“*you will also see the Gas station beside the First National Bank*”) and another is caused by using *next to* instead (“*The public library is next to the Prince’s Grocery store*”). The last error is the result of using *around* instead of “*behind*” (“*the First National bank is around the King Plaza hotel*”).

Students in the Exp. G1 made eight substitution errors. Two errors are due to using *in front of* instead of “*behind*” and two are caused by using *beside* instead. One error is caused by using *in the front of* (“*the first gas station in the front of the first national bank*”) and another is the result of using *opposite from* (“*the gas station is opposite from the first national bank*”). The last two errors are caused by using the phrases *in the opposite of* (“*The Prince Grocery Store is in the opposite of the King Plaza Hotel*”) and *opposite from the back side of* (“*on the right there is Laundromat opposite from the back side of the Post office*”), once each.

Concerning the Exp. G2, students made four errors. Two errors are due to the use of *in front of* instead of “*behind*” and one is caused by using *next to* instead. The last error in this group is the result of using *above* in place of “*behind*” (“*The first Avenue shopping is above the second gas station*”).

In relation with the use of the spatial preposition “*behind*”, students in the Exp. G3 made nine substitution errors. Two of these errors are caused by using *in front of*, and two are caused by using *next to* instead of using “*behind*”. Three errors are the result of the use of *opposite to/from*, and one is the result of using *near to* instead of “*behind*” (“*the bed is near to that plush*”). One last error is caused by using *below* instead of using “*behind*” (“*then you will find the public library below that prince’s grocery store*”).

When using the spatial preposition “*behind*”, the average of errors in the Exp. G1 (0.27 error/student) is higher than but very close to the average of errors made in the Exp. G3 (0.26 error/student). However, the lowest average of errors is in the Exp. G2 (0.14 error/student), while the average in the CG is a little higher than that (0.19 error/student).

4.4.1.5. The Spatial Prepositions “*Near/Close to*”, “*By*”, “*Next to*” and “*Beside*”

The analysis of using the spatial preposition “*near/close to*” in the post-test reveals two errors made in the four groups as shown in Table 4.31:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		opposite to	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		in front of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.31: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*Near/Close to*” in the Post-test

Concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*near/close to*”, there are two errors in the Exp. G1 and the Exp. G3, while there is no errors in the CG and the Exp. G2. One error is found in the Exp. G1 where the use of the spatial preposition “*near/close to*” is wrongly replaced by using *opposite to/from* (“*opposite to my nightstand, there is a carpet and the plush on it*”). The second error is found in the Exp. G3; it consists in using *in front of* instead of using “*near/close to*” (“*there is another Hotel in front of the hotel you are in*”).

It is noticeable that the average of errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “near/close to” is the same in both the Exp. G1 and the Exp. G3 (0.03 error/student).

When using the spatial preposition “by” the participants of the sample in the post-test, three errors are found as illustrated in Table 4.32:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		next to	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		over	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		with	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.32: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “By” in the Post-test

When using the spatial preposition “by”, students in the four groups made three substitution errors. Two errors are found in the CG where the use of the spatial preposition “by” is substituted by the use of *next to* in one case (“then, you will pass **next to** the gas station”) and is substituted by the use of *over* in another (“cross the pine street then pass **over** the Prince’s Grocery store”). The third error is found in the Exp. G3 in which the spatial preposition “by” is incorrectly replaced by the use of *with* (“after first national bank, you will walk **with** the gas station”). Concerning the Exp. G1 and the Exp. G2, there are no errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “by”.

It is noticeable that the average of errors made in the CG is higher than that of the Exp. G3; however, the difference between the two averages is barely noticeable because of the small number of errors made in each group.

The errors made by the students of the four groups when using the spatial preposition “next to” in the post-test are shown in Table 4.33:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	next to	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		next	-	-	01	01	01	01	-	-
Substitution		behind	03	03	-	-	09	08	03	01
		at	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		before	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		near	07	07	01	01	-	-	-	-
		near/close to	04	04	-	-	07	05	14	08
		near of	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		near to the bottom	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		opposite to	01	01	01	01	-	-	-	-
		in the opposite to	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		in the other side of	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		in the front side of	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		under	-	-	01	01	-	-	02	02
		between	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		to	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		face to	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		front of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		in between	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		by its side	-	-	02	01	-	-	-	-
		after	-	-	01	01	-	-	01	01
		beyond	-	-	-	-	02	02	-	-
	below	-	-	-	-	01	01	01	01	
	in the back of	-	-	-	-	01	01	01	01	
	along	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.33: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Next to” in the Post-test

Students in the CG made twenty-two substitution errors when using the spatial preposition “next to”. Three of these errors are due to using the spatial preposition *behind* instead of using “next to” (“**behind** the Jamison Hotel, there is Frank’s cafe”), one error is caused by using *at* (“**at** the desk, a long coat holder”) and one error is the result of using

before instead (“you will find post Office **before** Joe’s Gym”). Seven errors are caused by using *near* (“the coat holder is **near** the desk”), four by using *near/close to* (“there is a nightstand **near to** the bed”) and one by using *near of* in place of “next to”. One error is the result of using *near to the bottom of* (“Frank’s cafe is **near to the bottom of** Jamison Hotel”). While one error is caused by using *opposite to* instead of “next to” (“**opposite to** the coat roach is the desk”), another error is due to using *in the opposite of* (“the nightstand is **in the opposite of** the bed”), and one error is the result of using *in the other side of* in place of “next to” (“the frank’s cafe is **in the other side of** Jamison Hotel”). One last error is caused by using *in the front side of* (“The Prince’s Grocery store is **in the front of** First National Bank”).

Concerning students in the Exp. G1, they made fourteen errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “next to”. One error is an omission error (“when you get out of the hotel, there is a cafe there”) and two are word formation errors where the forms *next of* (“my bed is **next of** the nightstand”) and *next* (“the wardrobe is **next** the window”) are used. The eleven remaining errors are substitution ones. One of these errors is caused by using *near* instead of “next to”, and one is caused by using *opposite to* instead. Another error is the result of using *under* (“The Prince’s Grocery is **under** the First National Bank”), one error is the result of using *between* (“there is a Rosa’s Restaurant **between** Frank’s Cafe and Jamison Hotel”), and one is due to using *to* in place of “next to” (“**to** the wall, stands my big bed”). There is one error caused by using *face to* (“the window is **face to** the wardrobe”), and another caused by using *front of*. While one error is due using the phrase *in between* (“the Rosa’s Restaurant is **in between** the Jamison Hotel and Frank’s Cafe”), two errors are caused by using the phrase *by its side* (“there is my desk and **by its side** there is a coat roach”). The last error is caused by using the transition *after* where “next to” should have been used (“**after** the coat roach, there is my desk”).

In the Exp. G2, there are twenty-one errors. One is a word formation error where the form *next* is used and the other twenty errors are substitution ones. Nine errors are caused by using *behind* instead of “*next to*” and seven are caused by using *near/close to* instead. Two errors are the result of using *beyond* in place of “*next to*” (“*there is a coat roach **beyond** the desk*”), and one is due to using *below* instead (“*the Frank’s cafe is **below** the Jamison Hotel*”). The last error in this group is caused by using *in the back of* instead of “*next to*” (“*my nightstand is **in the back of** my bed*”).

Students in the Exp. G3 made twenty-three substitution errors. Fourteen errors are caused by using *near/close to* instead of “*next to*” and three are caused by using *behind*. Two of the errors are the result of using *under* in place of “*next to*” and one is due to using *below* instead. While one error is caused by using *along* (“*The Prince’s Grocery store is **along** the first national bank*”), one error is caused by using *after* and one by using the phrase *in the back of*.

The comparison of the results related to the use of the spatial preposition “*next to*” reveals that the highest average of errors is the one scored by students in the CG (0.81 error/student) and that the lowest average is the one obtained by students in the Exp. G1 (0.47 error/student). The averages of errors of the Exp. G2 and the Exp. G3 are, respectively, 0.75 error/student and 0.68 error/student.

Table 4.34 illustrates the errors made by the students of the four groups when using the spatial preposition “*beside*” in the post-test:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	beside to	03	02	-	-	-	-	-	-
		besides	-	-	01	01	04	02	03	01
Substitution		near/close to	02	02	-	-	03	03	01	01

	by the side of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	near	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.34: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Beside” in the Post-test

Students in the CG made five errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “beside”. Three of these errors are word formation errors where the form *beside to* is used instead of the spatial preposition “beside” (“beside to the coat roach, there is a wardrobe”). The two last errors are substitution errors where using “beside” is erroneously replaced by using *near/close to* (“the public library is near to the second gas station”).

In the Exp. G1, students made two errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “beside”. One is a word formation error where *besides* is used instead of “beside” (“the bed is besides the shelves”). The other error is a substitution that is caused by using *by the side of* to using “beside” (“by the side of the bed, there are many shelves and another nightstand”).

There are seven errors made concerning the use of the spatial preposition “beside” in the Exp. G2. Four of these errors are word formation errors where the spatial preposition “beside” is replaced by the use of *besides*. The three remaining errors are substitution ones where the use of “beside” is replaced by using *near/close to*.

Students in the Exp. G3 made five errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “beside”. Three of these errors where the word *besides* is used are considered word formation errors. The two other errors are caused by replacing the use of “beside” by using *near/close to* and *near*, once each.

When using the spatial preposition “beside” in the post-test, students in the Exp. G2 scored the highest average of errors (0.25 error/student) while students in the Exp. G1 scored the lowest average (0.07 error/student). Students in the CG have a higher average (0.25 error/student) than that of the students in the Exp. G3 (0.15 error/student).

4.4.2. Use of the Spatial Prepositions of Movement

The results obtained in the post-test include results of using the following spatial prepositions of movement: *into*, *out of*, *along*, *to* and *from*, while there were no errors concerning the use of the spatial prepositions of movement *up*, *down*, *through*, and *for*.

4.4.2.1. The Spatial Prepositions “*Into*” and “*Out of*”

The errors made when using the spatial preposition “*into*” by the students of the four groups in the post-test are shown in Table 4.35:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	02	02	01	01	01	01
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.35: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*Into*” in the Post-test

There are four addition errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*into*” in the four groups. These errors refer to the use of the spatial preposition “*into*” where it should not have been used (“*when you enter into my room, you will find many things*”). Two of these errors are found in the Exp. G1, one is found in the Exp. G2 and the last one is found in the Exp. G3.

Concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*into*” in the post-test, the highest average of errors is that of the Exp. G1 (0.07 error/student) and the lowest is the one of the CG since no error is made in this group. The averages of the Exp. G2 and the Exp. G3 are close to each other, with 0.04 error/student for the former and 0.03 error/student for the latter.

Errors related to the spatial preposition “*into*” are obviously due to the negative influence of the students’ mother language. The combination of the spatial preposition “*into*” with the verb *to enter* corresponds to the Arabic form where the verb is always related to a preposition.

The errors found in the production of the four groups' students when using the spatial preposition “*out of*” in the post-test are shown in Table 4.36:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	out from	05	05	03	03	01	01	02	02
		out	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	02
		out to	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Substitution			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.36: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*Out of*” in the Post-test

There are five word formation errors made in the CG when using the spatial preposition “*out of*” that refer to the use of the form *out from* (“when you get ***out from*** the hotel, turn right and walk straight”). In the Exp. G1, students made three word formation errors. Similar to the errors in the CG, these errors refer to the use of the form *out from*. Concerning the Exp. G2, only one word formation error is found; it consists in the use of the form *out from* where the spatial preposition “*out of*” should have been used. Students in the Exp. G3 made five word formation errors. Two errors are caused by the use of the form *out from* instead of “*out of*”, two errors are due to the use of *out* and one error is the result of using *out to* (“when you get ***out/out to*** the hotel, you will find Elm street”).

The averages of errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*out of*” in the post-test show that the highest average of errors is that of the CG (0.19 error/student), while the lowest average is that of the Exp. G2 (0.04 error/student). On the other hand, the average of the Exp. G3 (0.15 error/student) is higher than that of the Exp. G1.

4.4.2.2. The Spatial Preposition “*Along*”

When using the spatial preposition “*along*” in the post-test, the participants of the four groups made the following errors shown in Table 4.37:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			02	01	05	04	02	01	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	along of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		long	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		belong	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	01
Substitution	across		04	03	-	-	-	-	-	-
	through		05	04	02	02	02	02	-	-
	beside		03	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	near		02	02	-	-	-	-	-	-
	next to		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	from		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	with		04	02	-	-	-	-	01	01
	to		01	01	-	-	01	01	-	-
	till		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	crossing		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	through out		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	toward		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	behind		-	-	-	-	02	01	-	-
	among		-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
in front of		-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-	
over		-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.37: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Along” in the Post-test

In the CG, twenty-five errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “along” are found. Two of these errors are omission ones (“move Ø the Elm Street till get to the second corner”), and the twenty-three remaining errors are substitution errors. Four of these errors are caused by using *across* instead of using “along” (“first, go across the Elm Street till you get to the first corner”), and five errors are caused by the use of *through* (“turn left and carry on walking through the Rosa’s Restaurant”). Three errors are due to using *beside* in place of “along” (“now walk beside the second gas station to get to the public library”), and two errors are due to using *near* (“to reach Maple Avenue, move near Frank’s cafe”). One error is caused by the use of *next to* instead of “along” (“to get to Maple Avenue, you need to walk next to Jamison Hotel and Frank’s cafe”), while another is caused by using *from* (“keep moving from first avenue then turn left”). Four errors are caused by using *with* (“walk with

the King Plaza Hotel and you will reach the second corner”), and one is due to using *to* instead of “*along*” (“*turn right then walk to Maple Avenue to get to a street named Pine Street*”). The last two errors in this group are caused by using *till* (“*when you turn left, you walk till the First national Bank and Prince’s Grocery to get to that corner*”) and *crossing* instead of “*along*” (“*keep walking crossing the Frank’s cafe to find Maple Street*”).

Concerning the Exp. G1, there are ten errors. One error is a word formation error where the form *along of* is used instead of “*along*” (“*now, walk along of Maple Avenue, then turn left*”) and five errors are omission ones. The four remaining errors are substitution ones. Two of these errors are caused by using *through* in place of “*along*” and one is caused by using *through out* instead (“*walk through out the First Avenue and you will see the two gas stations on your left*”). The last error is caused by using *toward* in place of using “*along*” (“*when you turn right, you will find the First Avenue, walk toward it till you find the main street*”).

As for the Exp. G 2, ten errors are found. One of the errors is a word formation error where the form *long* is used instead of “*along*” (“*finally, turn left then walk long that Main Street till you get to the library*”), two errors are omission errors and the other seven are substitution errors. Two substitution errors are the result of using *through* instead of “*along*”, and two are due to using *behind* instead. While there is one error caused by using *to* in place of “*along*”, there is one error caused by using *among* (“*turn left and walk among the Pine Street till you get to the second corner*”), and one caused by using *in front of* instead (“*keep walking in front of King Plaza Hotel then turn right*”).

Students in the Exp. G3 made four errors in relation to the use of the spatial preposition “*along*”. Two are word formation errors where the form *belong* is used (“*now, you need just to walk belong the second gas station and you will find the public library*”). The two

remaining errors are substitution ones, one of which is caused by using *with* and the other is caused by using *over* instead of “*along*” (“walk ***over*** the Elm Street then turn right”).

The use of the spatial preposition *along* in the post-test shows that students in the CG scored the highest average of errors (0.93 error/student) followed by those in the Exp. G2 (0.36 error/student). Students in the Exp. G3 have an average that is very close to that of the Exp. G1 (0.33 error/student), while student of the Exp. G3 scored the lowest average of errors (0.12 error/student) compared to the last three ones.

4.4.2.3. The Spatial Prepositions “*To*” and “*From*”

After analysing the four groups’ productions, the errors made and their types when using the spatial preposition “*to*” are illustrated in Table 4.38:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution	with		02	02	01	01	-	-	-	-
	in		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	into		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	onto		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	along		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	for		-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
Addition			05	05	05	01	01	01	05	05

Table 4.38: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*To*” in the Post-test

In the CG, students made ten errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*to*”. Five errors are addition errors that refer to the use of the spatial preposition “*to*” where it should not have been used (“when you enter ***to*** my room”). The five remaining errors are substitution ones. Two errors are caused by using *with* instead of using “*to*” (“the shelves are attached ***with*** the desk”), and one error is caused by using *in* (“welcome ***in*** our town”). One error is due to using *into* in place of using “*to*” (“the following are the directions to go

from Jamison hotel into the public library”), and the last error is caused by using *onto* instead (“and cross the street onto the First Avenue”).

Students in the Exp. G1 made seven errors. Five errors are addition and two are substitution errors. One substitution error is caused by using *with* instead of “*to*” and the other is caused by using *along* instead (“go along Laundromat then walk across first avenue to get to the gas station”).

Concerning Exp. G2, there are two errors. One is an addition error and the other is caused by the use of *for* to substitute for the use of the spatial preposition “*to*” (“for go to public library, you need to take my directions”).

In relation with the use of the spatial preposition “*to*”, students in the Exp. G3 made five errors, all of which are addition errors that concern the use of the spatial preposition “*to*” where it should not have been used.

The average of errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*to*” is the highest in the CG (0.37 error/student) and the lowest is in the Exp. G2 (0.07 error/student). The average of errors in the Exp. G1 (0.23 error/student) is higher than that of the Exp. G3 (0.15 error/student).

In the all the students’ productions, only one error has been made when using the spatial preposition “*from*” in the post-test:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		of	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.39: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*From*” in the Post-test

There is only one error concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*from*” found in the Exp. G3. This error refers to the replacement of the use of the spatial preposition “*from*”

by the use of the preposition *of* (“to go of the Hotel to the Public Library, you should follow my directions”). The average of errors in this group is 0.03 error/student.

4.4.3. Misuse of the Spatial Prepositions of Position and Movement

The results obtained in the post-test include results of using the following spatial prepositions of position and movement: *over, above, under, below, across, opposite to/from, to/on the right of, and to/on the left of*.

4.4.3.1. The Spatial Prepositions “Over” and “Above”

The analysis of using the spatial preposition “*over*” shows that the errors that the participants of the sample made in the post-test are summarised in Table 4.40:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	over to	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
Substitution		above	03	03	02	02	-	-	02	02
		on	02	02	01	01	03	01	-	-
		near	02	02	-	-	-	-	-	-
		beside	02	02	-	-	-	-	01	01
		in	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		on the left of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		up	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		near/close to	-	-	01	01	-	-	01	01
		on top of	-	-	-	-	02	02	-	-
		next to	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
		near from	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	to the left of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-	
Addition			-	-	01	01	-	-	01	01

Table 4.40: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Over” in the Post-test

In the CG, there are ten substitution errors made by students when using the spatial preposition “*over*”. Three errors are caused by using the spatial preposition *above* instead of the spatial preposition “*over*” (“above the desk, there are many shelves”), and two are caused

by using the spatial preposition *on* (“*there are several shelves on the drawers and desk*”). Two errors result from using the spatial preposition *near* instead of “*over*” (“*near the desk, there are many shelves*”), and two from using the spatial preposition *beside* (“*those shelves are beside the desk*”). The last error is due to the use of the spatial preposition *in* (“*the shelves of my room are in my desk*”).

When using the spatial preposition “*over*”, students in the Exp. G1 made seven errors. One of the errors is an addition error (“*on the nightstand, there is a nightlight over there*”), and the six remaining are substitution errors. Two errors concern the use of the spatial preposition *above* instead of using “*over*”, and one is caused by using the spatial preposition *on*. One error is caused by using *on the left of* (“*there are many shelves on the left of the desk*”), another by using *at up* instead (“*the shelves are up the desk*”), and the last error is caused by using *near/close to*.

Concerning the Exp. G2, there are nine errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*over*”. One of these errors is a word formation error in which the form *over to* is used (“*the shelves are over to my desk*”), and the eight remaining errors are substitution ones. Three errors result from wrongly substituting the use of “*over*” by the use of *on*, and two are caused by the use of *on top of* instead. One error is caused by using *next to* in place of “*over*” (“*next to the desk, there are a lot of shelves*”), and one is caused by using *near from*. The last error is caused by using *to the left of* instead of the spatial preposition “*over*”.

Students in the Exp. G3 made five errors when using the spatial preposition “*over*”. One of these errors is an addition error, while the four remaining are substitution errors. Two errors are caused by the use of the spatial preposition *above* to substitute for the use of “*over*”. One error is caused by using the spatial preposition *beside* and the last error is caused by using the spatial preposition *near/close to* (“*the shelves are close to my desk*”).

The averages of errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*over*” in the four groups are quite different. The average of errors in the CG (0.37 error/student) is higher than but very close to the average of errors of the Exp. G2 (0.32 error/student). Both averages are higher than that of the Exp. G1 (0.27 error/student). The lowest average of errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*over*” is that of the Exp. G3 (0.15 error/student).

The results obtained after the analysis of the errors the participants of the control group and the experimental groups made when using the spatial preposition “*above*” in the post-test are summed up in Table 4.41:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	above of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
Substitution		on	02	02	01	01	01	01	-	-
		at top of	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		beside	01	01	-	-	01	01	-	-
		beside to	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		next to	02	02	-	-	02	02	-	-
		between	02	02	01	01	01	01	01	01
		behind	01	01	01	01	02	02	02	02
		opposite to	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		on top of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
		in front of	-	-	-	-	01	01	02	02
		across	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	in	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.41: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*Above*” in the Post-test

Students in the CG made eleven errors in relation to the use of the spatial preposition “*above*”; all of them are substitution errors. Two errors are caused by using *on* instead of “*above*” (“*on* the cartoon character there are other shelves”), and one is caused by using *at top of* (“*at top of* the computer screen, there is a pen holder”). One error is due to the use of the preposition *beside* (“the plastic dolls are *beside* the jar”) and one to the use of *beside to* (“the flowers are *beside to* the books”). While two errors are made because of using *next to*

instead of the spatial preposition “above” (“the window is **next to** the desk”), two errors are caused by using *between* (“the window is **between** the desk and the wardrobe”), and one is the result of using *behind* instead (“my window is **behind** my desk”). The last error is due to the use of *opposite to* in place of using “above” (“there is a desk, **opposite to** it along window”).

In the Exp. G1, there are five errors related to the use of “above”. One error is a word formation error where the form *above of* is used (“**above of** the computer screen, you will see a blue pen-holder”); the four remaining errors are substitution ones. One substitution error is caused by the use of *on* instead of “above”, and another is caused by using *on top of*. One error is caused by using *between* in place of “above”, and the last error is caused by using *behind* instead.

The number of errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition “above” in the Exp. G2 is nine substitution errors. There are two errors caused by using *behind* instead of “above”, and two errors caused by using *next to*. One error is caused by using *beside* instead of “above”, and one is due to the use of *between* and another is caused by using *on*. The last two errors are the result of using *in front of* (“then, you will find my small desk, **in front of** it my beautiful window”) and *across* (“**across** that desk, you find my window”).

As far as the Exp. G3 is concerned, there are six substitution errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “above”. Two errors are the result of using *behind*, and two other errors are the result of using *in front of*. One error is caused by using *between*, and the last error is due to using *in* instead of “above”.

The comparison of the performance of the four groups concerning the use of the spatial preposition “above” reveals that the average of errors made in the CG (0.41 error/student) is higher than the average of errors made in the Exp. G2 (0.32 error/student). These groups’

averages are both higher than the averages of the Exp. G3 and the Exp. G1, which are 0.18 and 0.17 error/student respectively.

4.4.3.2. The Spatial Prepositions “Under” and “Below”

The number and the types of errors made by the participants of the sample when using the spatial preposition “under” in the post-test are illustrated in Table 4.42:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution	next to		03	03	-	-	-	-	-	-
	below		02	02	02	02	-	-	02	02
	near		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	beside		01	01	-	-	01	01	-	-
	beside to		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	on		01	01	-	-	01	01	-	-
	at the bottom of		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	in		-	-	02	02	-	-	-	-
	in front of		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	in down		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	above		-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	inside		-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
	behind		-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01
in opposite of		-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.42: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Under” in the Post-test

In the CG, there are ten substitution errors. Three errors are due to using *next to* instead of “under” (“the central unit is **next to** the desk”), and two errors are due to using *below* (“there is a big drawer **below** the bed”). One error is caused by using *near* in place of using “under” (“**near** the desk, there is a central unit of the computer”), one caused by using *beside*, and another caused by using *beside to* (“the central unit of the computer is **beside** the desk”). One error results from using the spatial preposition *on* instead of “under” (“**on** the

desk, my central unit of the computer”), and the last error is caused by using *at the bottom* of (“*there is a big drawer at the bottom of the bed*”).

When using the spatial preposition “*under*”, students in the Exp. G1 made six errors. Two errors are caused by using *in* instead of “*under*” (“*the central unit of the computer is in the desk*”), and two errors are caused by using *below*. One error is caused by using *in front of* where “*under*” should have been used (“*the central unit of the computer is in front of the desk*”), and one last error is caused by using *in down* in place of the spatial preposition “*under*” (“*the secret drawer is in down the bed*”).

Concerning the Exp. G2, there are four errors made when using the spatial preposition “*under*”. While one of these errors is caused by substituting the use of “*under*” by using *beside*, one error is caused by the use of *on*, and another error is caused by using *above* instead (“*above the bed, there is my big drawer*”). The last error is caused by using *inside* instead of “*under*” (“*the central unit of the computer is inside the desk*”).

Students in the Exp. G3 made four errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*under*”. Two of these errors are the results of replacing the use of the spatial preposition “*under*” by using *below*. One error is due to using *behind* instead of “*under*” (“*behind my bed, there is my secret drawer*”), and another error is caused by using *in opposite of* (“*in opposite of the desk, there is the central unit of the computer*”).

When using the spatial preposition “*under*”, the highest average of errors is that of the CG (0.37 error/student) and the lowest is found in the Exp. G3 (0.12 error/student). The average of errors found in the Exp. G1 (0.20 error/student) is higher than that of the Exp. G2 (0.14 error/student). It is also noticeable that the averages of the Exp. G2 and the Exp. G3 are close to each other.

Table 4.43 summarised the errors made by the student of the four groups in the post-test when the spatial preposition “*below*” should be used:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3			
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students		
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	Form	below of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-		
Substitution			down	02	01	-	-	-	-	-	-	
			next to	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
			between	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-	-
			on front of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-	-
			near of	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-	-
			beside	-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	-
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		

Table 4.43: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Below” in the Post-test

There are three substitution errors in the CG related to the use of the spatial preposition “below”. Two of these errors result from using *down* instead of using “below” (“**down** the flowers, there is a series of books”), and one is caused by using *next to* instead (“**next to** the pen holder, there is a computer screen”).

In Exp. G1, there is one error related to using the spatial preposition “below”. This error is caused by replacing the use of “below” by using *between* (“the desk is **between** the window and the wardrobe”).

There are three errors in the Exp. G2 concerning the use of the spatial preposition “below”. One of these errors is a word formation error that refers to the use of the form *below of* (“the small jar is **below of** the plastic dolls”). The other errors are substitution ones. One substitution error is caused by using *on front of* instead of “below” (“my desk in **on front of** my window”), and another is caused by using *near of* (“**near of** the window there is my big desk”).

Concerning the Exp. G3, there is one error of using the spatial preposition “below”. This error concerns the case where the use of the spatial preposition “below” is replaced by using *beside* (“**beside** the vase of flowers, there are many books”).

The average of errors in the CG is equal to the one of the Exp. G2 (0.11 error/student). This latter is higher than that of both the Exp. G1 and the Exp. G3, which have the same average (0.03 error/student).

4.4.3.3. The Spatial Prepositions “Across” and “Opposite to/from”

Table 4.44 summarises the errors made by the participants of the four groups when using the spatial preposition “across” in the post-test:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			08	08	07	07	06	06	10	10
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	cross	-	-	-	-	-	-	02	02
Substitution	in front of		02	02	02	02	03	03	-	-
	toward		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	then		01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
	face to		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	next		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	on		-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
	behind		-	-	-	-	01	01	02	02
	near/close to		-	-	-	-	02	02	02	02
	after		-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
near		-	-	-	-	-	-	01	01	
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.44: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “Across” in the Post-test

Students in the CG made twelve errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “across”. Eight of these errors are omission errors (“*turn left at the corner, you will see a gas station; the public library is there*”), and four are substitution errors. Two substitution errors are caused by the use of *in front of* instead of “across” (“*when you turn left, the public library is **in front of** the first gas station*”). One is due to the use of *toward* (“*the public library is **toward** the gas station just on your left*”), and the last error is caused by using the transition *then* instead of using the spatial preposition “across” (“*after turning left, you will see a gas station, **then** you will find the public library*”).

Concerning students in the Exp. G1, they made twelve errors when using the spatial preposition “*across*”. Seven of these are omission errors and five are substitution ones. Two of the substitution errors are caused by using *in front of* instead of “*across*”, and one is caused by using *face to* instead. The two last errors are caused by using *next* (“*the public library is next the first gas station you find on the left*”), and *on* instead of “*across*” (“*on that gas station, there is the public library*”).

As for the Exp. G2, there are thirteen errors. Six of these errors are omission and the seven remaining errors are substitution ones. Three of these errors are the result of using *in front of* in place of “*across*”, and one is caused by using *behind* instead (“*behind the gas station on your left, there is the public library*”). Two errors are caused by using *near/close to* instead of the spatial preposition “*across*”. The last error is caused by using *after* (“*after this gas station, you will find the public library*”).

When using the spatial preposition “*across*”, students in the Exp. G3 made seventeen errors. Ten errors are omission, two are word formation errors where the verb *cross* is used instead of the preposition “*across*” (“*the public library you are looking for is cross that first gas station*”), and the five remaining errors are substitution ones. Two of the substitution errors result from using the spatial preposition *behind* instead of “*across*” (“*the public library is behind the main street*”), and two are caused by using *near/close to*. The last error is due to using *near* in place of using the spatial preposition “*across*”.

It is clear that the average of errors made when using the spatial preposition “*across*” is the highest in the Exp. G3 (0.50 error/student) while the lowest is in the Exp. G1 (0.40 error/student). The averages of errors in the Exp. G2 and the CG are close to each other, with 0.46 error/student in the former and 0.44 error/student in the latter.

Students made errors when using the spatial preposition “*across*” because it does not exist in their mother tongue. Students’ reliance on transfer in earlier situations where they

were required to use the spatial preposition “*across*” has led to fossilisation. This is reflected in the use of the prepositions such as *in front of*, *toward*, *behind* and *after* as attempts to express the meaning of *across*.

When using the spatial preposition “*opposite to/from*” in the post-test, one error is made in the four groups:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Substitution		behind	-	-	-	-	01	01	-	-
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.45: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*Opposite to/from*” in the Post-test

In the four groups, there is only one error concerning the use of the spatial preposition “*opposite to/from*”, which is found in the Exp. G2. This error is a substitution error that is caused by using the spatial preposition *behind* in place of the spatial preposition “*opposite to/from*” (“*when you turn left, you will see two gas stations behind each others*”).

No errors are made in the four groups except the one made by a student in the Exp. G2, which scored an average of 0.04 error/student.

4.3.3.4. The Spatial Prepositions “*To/On the Right/Left of*”

Table 4.46 summarises the errors made by the students of the control group and the experimental groups when using the spatial preposition “*to/on the right of*” in the post-test:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	the right of	01	01	-	-	-	-	-	-
		in the right of	17	10	04	04	09	09	14	09
		at the right of	03	03	07	03	02	01	02	02

	from the right of	-	-	03	01	-	-	-	-
	of the right of	-	-	01	01	-	-	-	-
Substitution	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Addition		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.46: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “To/On the Right of” in the Post-test

In relation to the use of the spatial preposition “*to/on the right of*”, there are twenty-one word formation errors in the CG. All are form errors. One error is due to the use of the form *the right of* (“***the right of*** Maple Avenue, there is a restaurant named Rosa’s Restaurant”). Seventeen errors are caused by the use of the form *in the right of* (“***in the right of*** the room, there is the wardrobe”), and three are the result of using the form *at the right of* (“***at the right of*** you, there is the public library”).

In the Exp. G1, students made fifteen word formation errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*to/on the right of*”. Seven of these errors are caused by the use of the form *at the right of*, and four are caused by the use of *in the right of*. Three errors are the result of using *from the right of* (“***from the right of*** First Avenue, there is a garden”), and one is due to using *of the right of* (“***of the right of*** my room, there is a long wardrobe”).

Concerning the Exp. G2, students made eleven word formation errors. Nine of these errors are caused by using the form *in the right of*, and two errors are due to using *at the right of*.

Students in the Exp. G3 made sixteen word formation errors. Fourteen of these errors result from using the form *in the right of*, while two errors are due to using *at the right of*.

Comparing students’ performance in the post-test when using of the spatial preposition “*to/on the right of*” reveals that students in the CG have the highest average of errors (0.78 error/student) while students in the Exp. G2 have the lowest average (0.39 error/student). The averages of errors scored by students in the Exp. G1 and the Exp. G3 are relatively close, with 0.50 error/student and 0.47error/student respectively.

When using the spatial preposition “*to/on the left of*” in the post-test, the following errors have been made by the participants as illustrated in Table 4.47:

Types of Errors			CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
			N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students	N° of Errors	N° of Students
Omission			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Word Formation	Spelling	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Form	the left of	-	-	02	02	03	03	-	-
		at the left of	07	04	05	02	04	02	02	02
		in the left of	17	07	06	05	12	08	10	07
		from the left of	02	02	04	03	-	-	-	-
by the left of	-	-	-	-	02	02	-	-		
Substitution		/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Addition			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.47: Misuse of the Spatial Preposition “*To/On the Left of*” in the Post-test

Students in the CG made twenty-six word formation errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*to/on the right of*”. Seven errors are caused by the use of the form *at the left of* (“***at the left of*** your this road, there is the first national bank”), and seventeen errors are due to using the form *in the left of* (“and ***in the left of*** it, there is King Plaza Hotel”). The two remaining errors are caused by using *from the left of* (“***from the left of*** room, there is the nightstand”).

Concerning students in the Exp. G1, they made seventeen word formation errors. Two of these errors occurred because students used the form *the left of* (“***the left of*** Maple Avenue, there is King Plaza Hotel”). Five errors are caused by the use of the form *at the left of*, six errors are due to using the form *in the left of*, and four errors are the result of using *from the left of*.

Students in the Exp. G2 made twenty-one word formation errors related to the use of the spatial preposition “*to/on the left of*”. Three of these errors are due to using the form *the left of* while “*to/on the left of*” should have been used. Twelve errors result from using *in the*

left of, and four errors are caused by using *at the left of*. The last two errors are due to using *by the left of* (“***by the left of*** *Second Avenue, there is a garden*”).

Finally, students in the Exp. G3 made twelve word formation errors. Ten of these errors are caused by the use of the form *in the left of*, and two errors result from using the form *at the left of*.

After the analysis of the use of the spatial preposition “*to/on the left of*” in the post-test, it is worth noticing that the highest average of errors is found in the CG (0.96 error/student) and that the lowest average of errors is in the Exp. G3 (0.35 error/student). The average of errors made in the Exp. G2 (0.75 error/student) is higher than that of the Exp. G1 (0.57 error/student).

4.4.4. Use of the *Trajector* and the *Landmark*

Concerning the use of the TR and the LM, there are three errors made by students in the CG. These errors refer to the cases where the TR is not appropriate in reference to the context (“***the public library*** *is behind* ***the first nation bank***”). The TR is not behind the LM by any means, not even a part of its scene. Though using *near to* can be acceptable, it is not appropriate for this reason, and the TR should have been totally replaced by another thing that is behind the LM (“*the gas station or the shopping centre*”); the LM should also have been replaced by another one (*the Prince’s Grocery*).

There are two errors in the Exp. G3 where the uses of the TR and LM are not appropriate (“***the night stand is*** *under* ***the nightlight***”) because the LM is less visible than the TR.

4.4.5. Comparison of the Results of the Post-test of the Four Groups

Correcting the paragraphs written in the post-test by students of the four groups participating to the study allows the display of the following general results:

	CG	Exp. G1	Exp. G2	Exp. G3
Total Number of Errors	273	207	181	173
Number of Students	27	30	28	34
Average (error/student)	10.11	06.90	06.46	05.09

Table 4.48: Overall Results of the Post-test

Analysing the results of the post-test reveals differences in the numbers and averages of errors in the four groups. The comparison of the results of the four groups shows that the highest average of errors is that of the CG with 10.11 error/student, while the average of the Exp. G3 is the lowest with 5.09 errors/student. The Exp. G1 and the Exp. G2 are second and third respectively concerning their averages, with 6.90 error/student for the former and 6.46 error/student for the latter.

Moreover, discrepancies between the four groups are caused by the manipulation each group has been subject to. The CG did not undergo any manipulation and was taught spatial prepositions following the usual instruction. The Exp. G1 was taught spatial prepositions using error correction techniques. The Exp. G2 was taught spatial prepositions by dealing with the semantics of these prepositions. The Exp. G3 underwent a treatment that consisted of teaching spatial prepositions using both semantics of this type of prepositions and the error correction techniques.

Similarly, the four groups performed differently with each spatial preposition. Table 4.49 shows the number of errors of each group with each preposition:

Prepositions	CG	Exp. G1	Exp. G2	Exp. G3
in	18	11	09	07
on	62	62	34	32
at	08	14	09	05
between	-	-	-	-
among	-	-	-	-
in front of	15	10	12	11
behind	05	08	04	09
beyond	-	-	-	-
near/close to	-	01	-	01
by	02	-	-	01
next to	22	14	21	23
beside	05	02	07	05

up	-	-	-	-
down	-	-	-	-
into	-	02	01	01
out of	05	03	01	05
through	-	-	-	-
along	25	10	10	04
to	10	07	02	05
for	-	-	-	-
from	-	-	-	01
over	10	07	09	05
above	11	05	09	06
under	10	06	04	04
below	03	01	03	01
across	12	12	13	17
opposite to/from	-	-	1	-
to/on the right of	21	15	11	16
to/on the left of	26	17	21	12
TR&LM	03	-	-	02
Total	273	207	181	173
Number of Students	27	30	28	34
Average (error/student)	10.11	6.90	6.46	5.09

Table 4.49: Number of Errors for each Spatial Preposition in the Four Groups in the Post-test

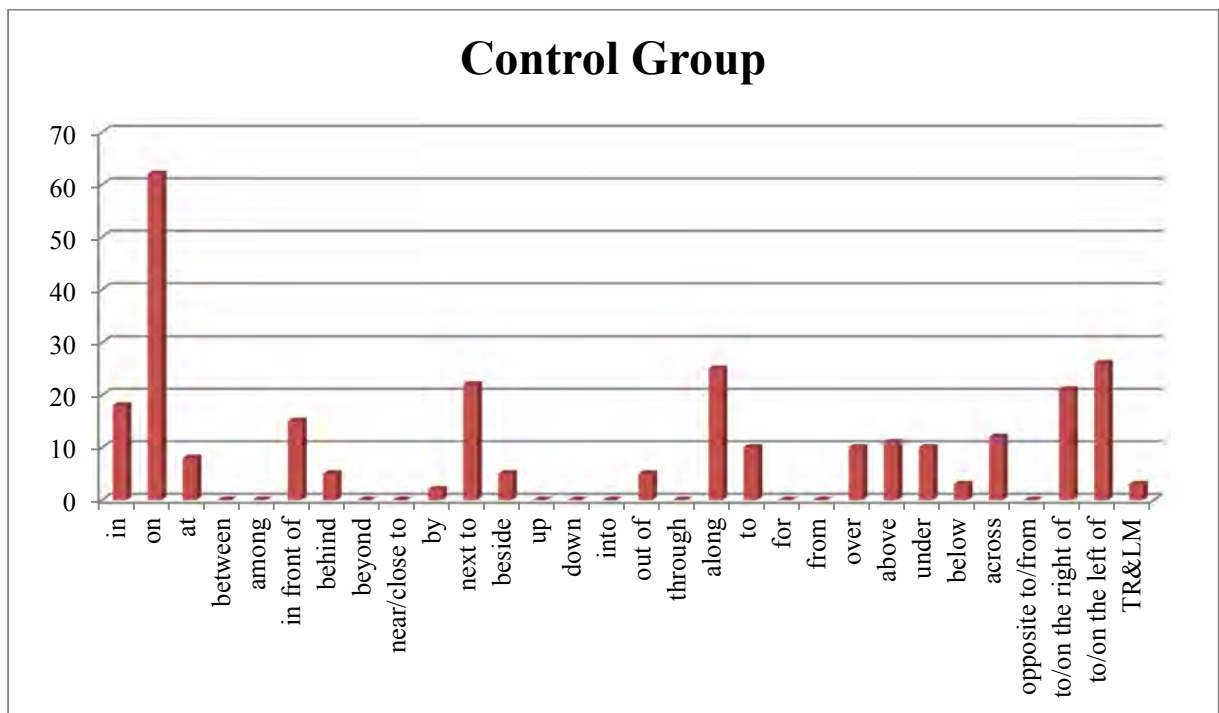


Figure 4.5: Number of Errors for each Preposition in the Control Group in the Post-test

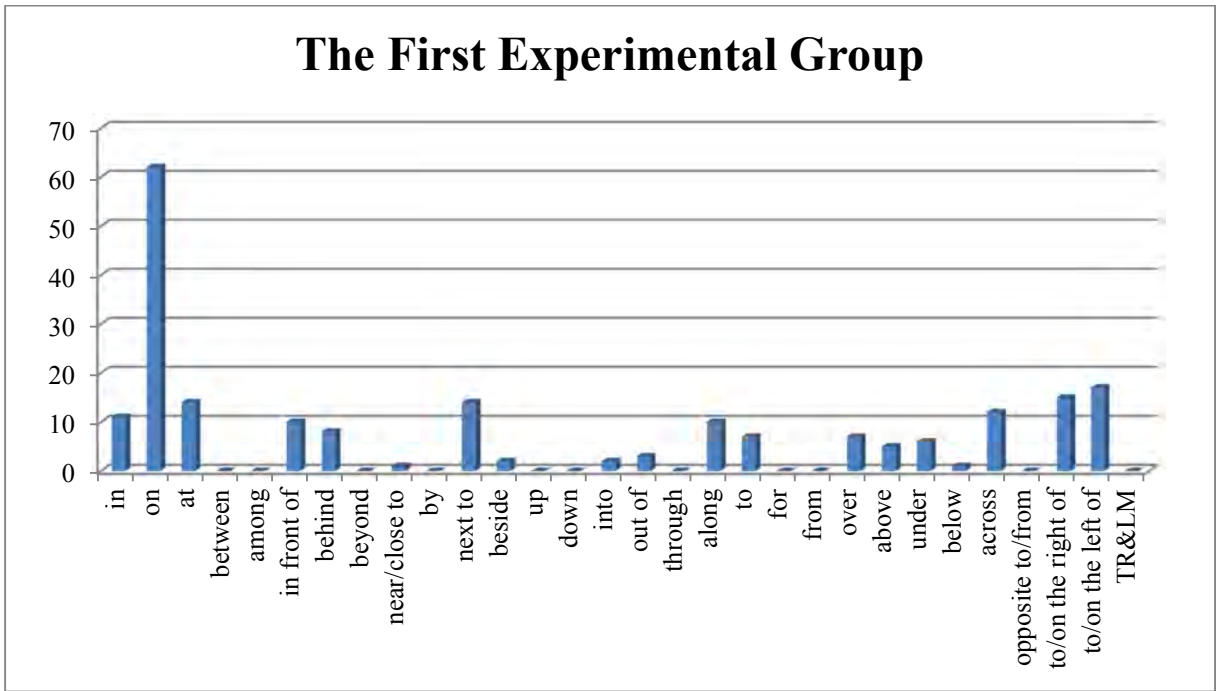


Figure 4.6: Number of Errors for each Preposition in the First Experimental Group in the Post-test

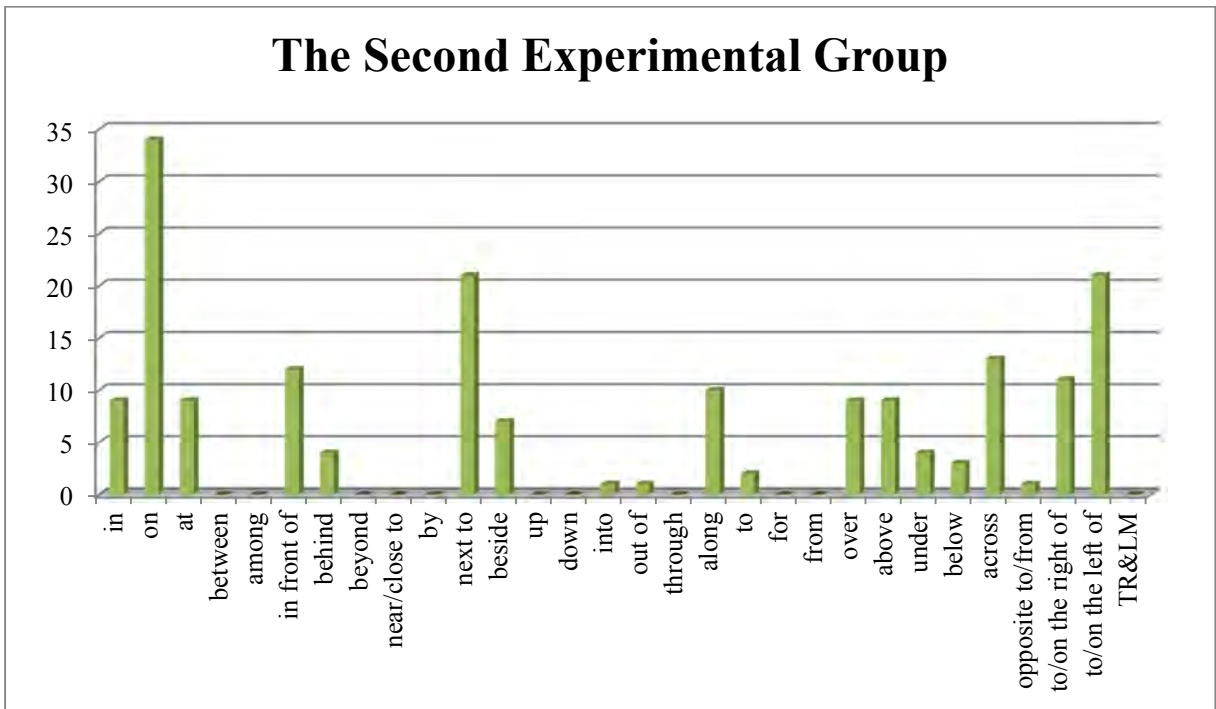


Figure 4.7: Number of Errors for each Preposition in the Second Experimental in the Post-test

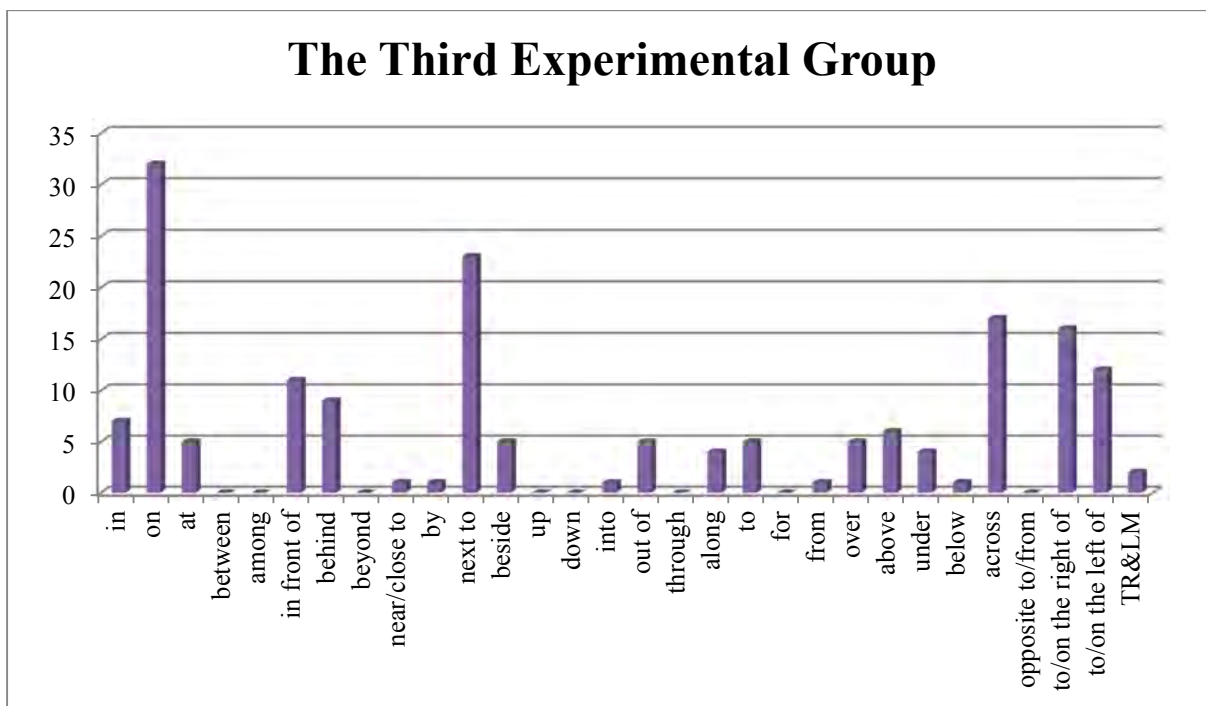


Figure 4.8: Number of Errors for each Preposition in the Third Experimental Group in the Post-test

The figures 4.5, 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8 show that students in the four groups find the spatial preposition *on* most problematic despite the treatment each of the experimental groups has undergone. Considerable numbers of errors are also found concerning the spatial prepositions *across*, *next to*, *to/on the right/left of*, with differences between the four groups.

As far as the types of errors made by students in the four groups are concerned, the results of the post-test are presented the following:

Types of Errors	CG		Exp. G1		Exp. G2		Exp. G3	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Omission	11	04.03	13	06.28	08	04.42	11	06.36
Word Formation	60	21.98	40	19.32	42	23.20	46	26.59
Substitution	191	69.96	145	70.05	129	71.27	105	60.69
Addition	08	02.93	09	04.35	02	01.11	09	05.20
TR/LM	03	01.10	00	00.00	00	00.00	02	01.16
Total	273	100	207	100	181	100	173	100

Table 4.50: Results of the Post-test related to the Types of Errors in the Four Groups

It is worth noticing that the total number of errors in the CG is the highest with 273 errors. The average of errors made when using spatial prepositions in the post-test in this

group is 10.11 error/student. These errors are mostly substitution errors, with a rate of 69.96% of the total number of errors. In addition to this, the total number of errors in the Exp. G1 is 207 errors with an average of 6.9 error/student, which is lower than that of the CG. Most of the errors in this group are also substitution ones, and they form 70.05% of the total number of errors. The number of errors in the Exp. G2 is 181 errors, which gives an average of 6.46 error/student. The common type of errors in this group is substitution errors; they are 71.27% of the total number of errors. Finally, the lowest number of errors is that of the Exp. G3, 173 errors. This is reflected in the low average of errors, which is 5.09 error/student. Like the three previous groups, the common type of errors in the Exp. G3 when using spatial prepositions is substitution errors; that is 60.69% of the total number of errors.

4.5. Overall Analysis

After analysing the results of the pre-test and post-test for each spatial preposition separately, the comparison of the results obtained in the pre-test and those obtained in the post-test for the four groups is required.

When comparing the results of the performance of the CG students obtained in the pre-test and post-test when using spatial prepositions, it appears that the use of some prepositions is problematic in both tests. The use of other prepositions is problematic in the pre-test, while that of others is problematic in the post-test.

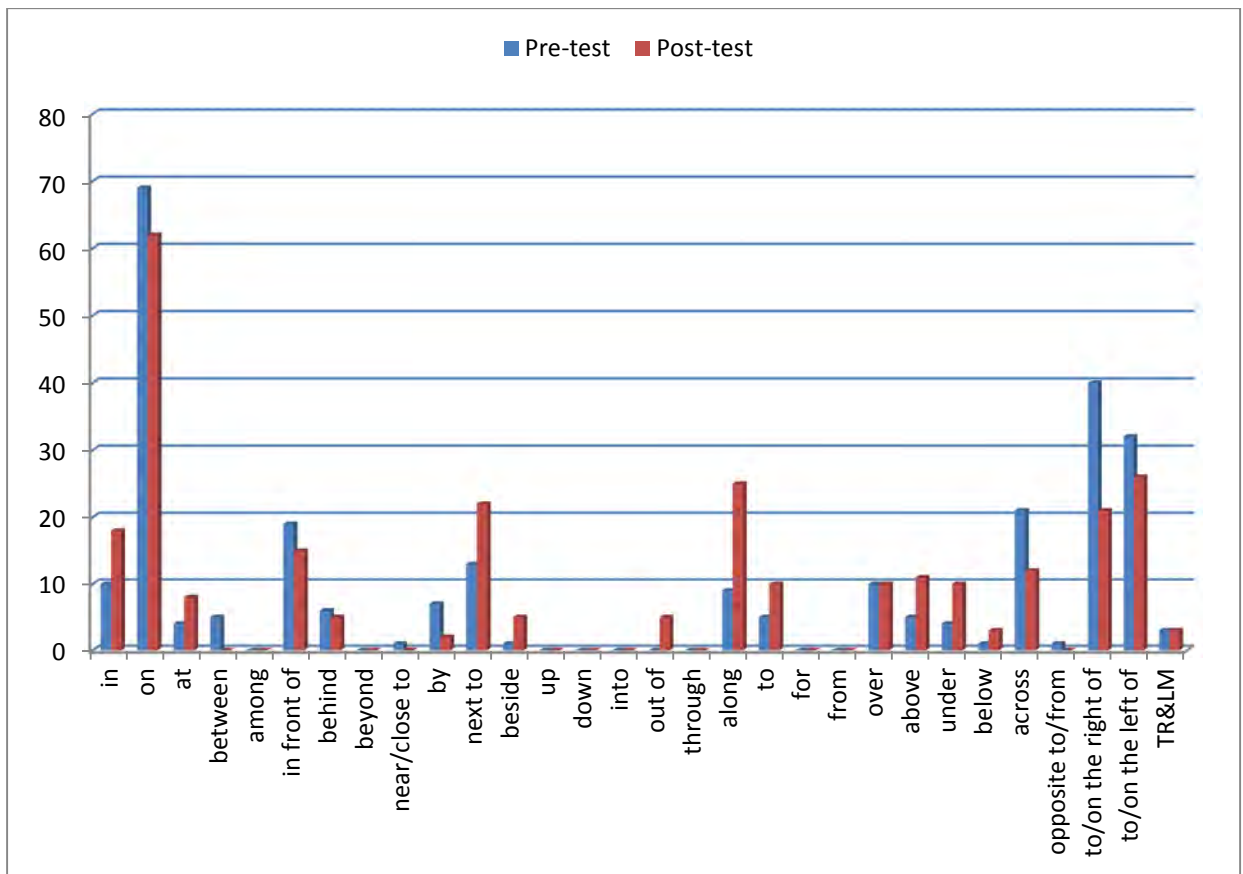


Figure 4.9: Comparison of the Performance of the Control Group with each Preposition in the Pre-test and Post-test

The comparison of the students' performance when using the spatial prepositions of locality (*in, on, at*) in the pre-test and post-test shows that the performance of students when using the spatial preposition *in* has not improved and, on the contrary, the number of students' errors has increased. As far the use of the spatial preposition *in* is concerned, the number of errors in the post-test has increased with eight errors in comparison with the pre-test. The number of errors when using the spatial preposition *on* is high in both the pre-test and the post-test; however, it is slightly higher in the pre-test than in the post-test with seven errors, which illustrates an improvement. When using the spatial preposition *at*, the performance of students in the post-test reveals more errors than in the pre-test, which is illustrated by a difference of four errors.

The evaluation of students' productions reveals some results related to the use of the spatial prepositions of verticality (*over, above, under, below*). Though the number of errors is the same in both the pre-test and post-test concerning the use of the spatial preposition *over*, students have made more errors when using the spatial preposition *above* in the post-test than in the pre-test; it is seen through the six errors difference between the two tests. The numbers of errors made when using both spatial prepositions *under* and *below* in the post-test are higher than the numbers of errors made in the pre-test, with a difference of six errors for the former and two errors for the latter.

The students in the CG have made no errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *through* neither in the pre-test nor in the post-test. Nevertheless, the numbers of errors made when using the spatial prepositions *across* and *opposite to/from* have decreased considerably in the post-test as students have made nine errors less when using the spatial preposition *across*, and no error when using the spatial preposition *opposite to/from*. Conversely, the number of errors made when using the spatial preposition *along* is higher in the post-test, where students have made twenty-five errors, than in the pre-test, where there are nine errors only.

When comparing the use of the spatial prepositions of closeness (*next to, beside, by, near/close to*) in the pre-test and post-test, it appears that the numbers of errors made when using the spatial prepositions *next to* and *beside* have increased in the post-test. The number of errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *next to* has increased from thirteen errors in the pre-test to twenty-two in the post-test, while that of the spatial preposition *beside* has increased to five errors in the post-test while there is only one error in the pre-test. On the other hand, the number of students' errors when using the spatial preposition *by* has decreased from seven in the pre-test to two in the post-test. Similarly, when using the spatial

preposition *near/close to*, there is one error in the pre-test and no error is found in the post-test.

Concerning the use of the spatial prepositions *in front of*, *behind* and *to/on the right/left of*, the difference in the number of students' errors is noticeable. The number of errors has decreased from nineteen errors in the pre-test to fifteen in the post-test when using the spatial preposition *in front of*. As for the use of the spatial preposition *behind*, there is a difference of one error in the number of errors between the pre-test and the post-test. The number of errors related to the use of the spatial prepositions *to/on the right/left of*, which are considered the second most problematic spatial prepositions after the spatial preposition *on*, has decreased considerably in the post-test. There are forty errors related to the use *to/on the right of* in the pre-test and only twenty-one errors in the post-test; on the other hand, twenty-six errors related to the use of *to/on the left of* are found in the post-test while there are thirty-two in the pre-test.

There are no errors, neither in the pre-test nor in the post-test, concerning the use of the spatial prepositions *into* and *from*. In the case of both spatial prepositions *out of* and *to*, there is an increase in the number of errors. No error with the use of *out of* is found in the pre-test while there are five in the post-test; five errors with the use of *to* are found in the pre-test, but there are ten errors in the post-test.

With the spatial preposition *between*, there is a decrease in the number of students' errors in the post-test to none, while there are five errors in the pre-test.

Figure 4.11 shows differences in the number of students' errors in the CG when using all the spatial prepositions in the pre-test and the post-test.

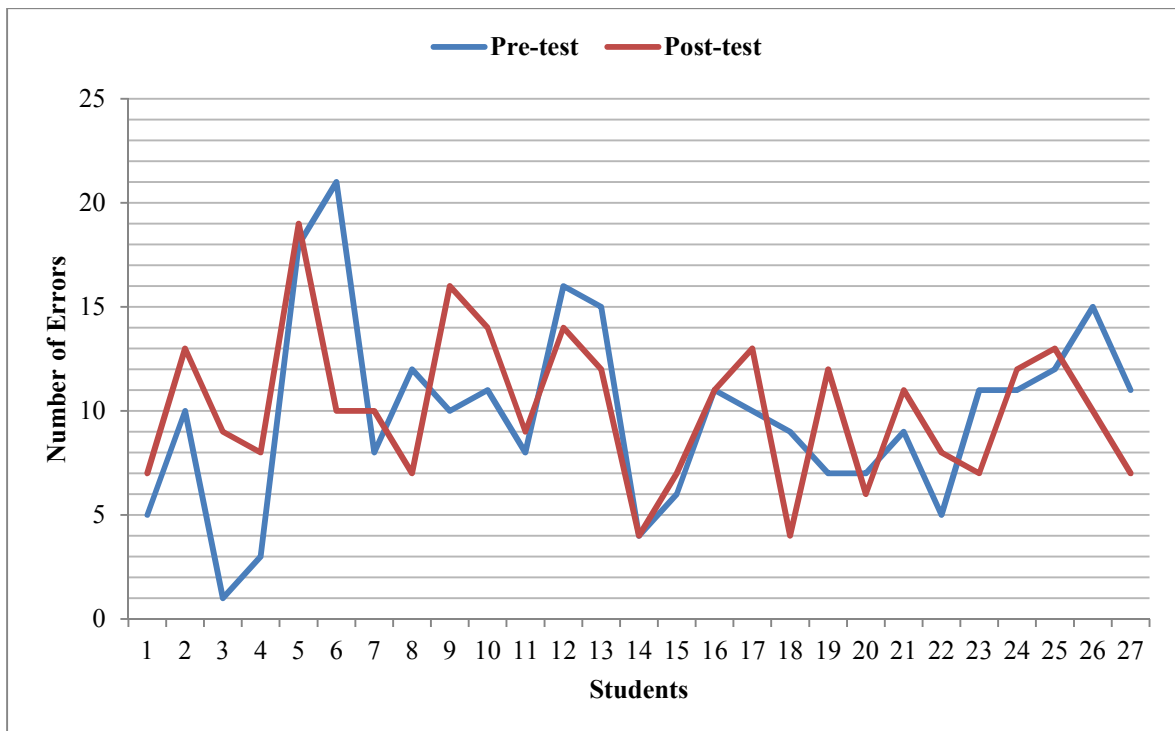


Figure 4.10: Comparison of the Performance of each Student in the Control Group in the Pre-test and the Post-test

It is worth noticing that the number of errors of most students in the post-test is higher than or very close to that scored in the pre-test. However, some exceptions are found where the performance in the post-test is better than the performance in the pre-test. This could be due to the good level the students have.

When comparing the average of errors in the CG in the pre-test and in the post-test in relation to the use of spatial prepositions, it appears that the results of the CG, whose students received no treatment, have not improved. Though some students' errors have decreased in the post-test, the majority of students have made more errors in the post-test than in the pre-test. This is illustrated by the difference between the averages obtained in the pre-test and in the post-test, 0.26 error/student, which shows an increase in the number of errors in the post-test.

The students who underwent treatments in the three experimental groups have made errors in the post-test. The reasons behind these errors vary according to the type of treatment each of the experimental groups was subjected to.

When comparing the results of the Exp. G1 in the pre-test and post-test, it appears that the differences between the number of errors made in both tests is relevant to the spatial preposition itself.

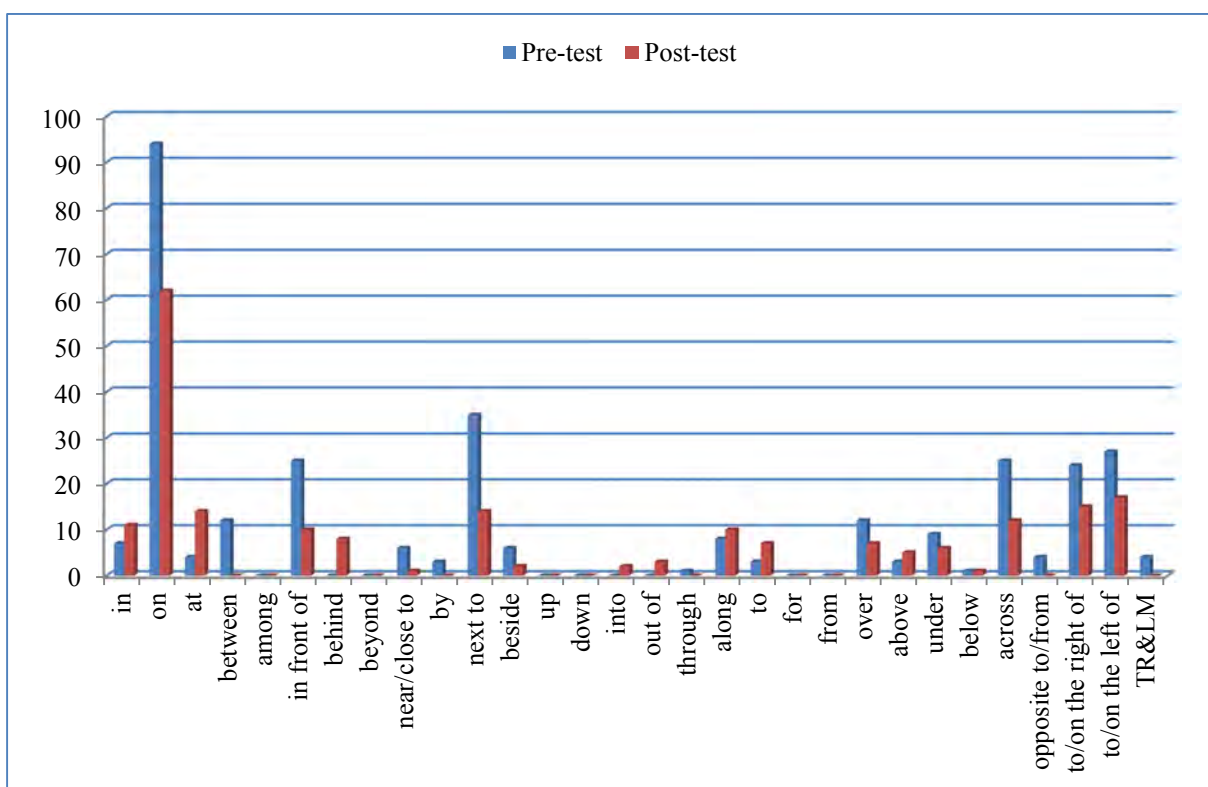


Figure 4.11: Comparison of the Performance of the First Experimental Group with each Preposition in the Pre-test and Post-test

In general, the students of the Exp. G1 were exposed to all types of error correction. Despite drawing the students' attention to the errors they have made in the pre-test, and the different techniques applied to deal with those errors, errors can still be found in the post-test. Errors have been made when using the spatial prepositions *in*, *on*, *at*, *under*, *along* and *to* because no explanation was provided concerning the reasons of using one spatial preposition and not another. A probable reason for errors with the spatial prepositions *over*, *above*, *in front of*, *next to*, *to/on the right/left of* and *behind* may be fossilisation. This means

that these students might not have received adequate feedback at an earlier stage of the foreign language learning process, which led to the ineffectiveness of the error correction provided during the treatment.

Comparison of the performance of students in the pre-test and post-test when using the local prepositions (*in*, *on*, and *at*) reveals differences in the number of errors. It can be noticed that the number of errors when using the spatial preposition *on*, which is considered the most problematic preposition, is higher in the pre-test than in the post-test with a remarkable difference of thirty-two errors. However, the number of errors found when using the spatial prepositions *in* and *at* is higher in the post-test than it is in the pre-test as students have made four more errors when using *in* and ten more errors when using *at*.

The analysis of errors related to the use of the vertical spatial prepositions *over*, *above*, *under* and *below* shows that the numbers of errors made when using the spatial prepositions *over* and *under* has decreased in the post-test in comparison to those made in the pre-test with five errors less for the former, and three for the latter. Conversely, the number of errors of the use of the spatial preposition *above* has increased in the post-test by two more errors, and the number of errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *below* is stable with one error in both tests.

When using the spatial prepositions *across*, *opposite to/from*, and *through*, it appears that students have made fewer errors in the post-test than in the pre-test. The number of errors when using the spatial preposition *across* in the post-test has decreased to more than half the number of errors made in the pre-test. Moreover, no error is found in the post-test concerning the use of *opposite to/from* while there are four in the pre-test. Similarly, there is one error concerning the use of the spatial preposition *through* in the pre-test, but there is no error in the post-test. With reference to the use of the spatial preposition *along*, it is clear from the diagram that the students' errors have increased in the post-test by two errors.

In relation to the use of the spatial prepositions *in front of* and *to/on the right/left of*, which are considered among the problematic spatial prepositions in this group, results show an improvement of performance in the post-test. Students have made fifteen errors less than in the pre-test concerning the use of *in front of*, nine errors less in relation to the use of *to/on the right of*, and ten errors less when using *to/on the left of*. However, comparison of the results obtained in the pre-test and the post-test concerning the use of the spatial preposition *behind* reveals that eight errors have been made in the post-test while there is no error in the pre-test.

Regarding the use of the spatial preposition *next to*, the second most problematic spatial preposition in this group, students' performance has improved as errors in the post-test have decreased to two fifths (2/5) of those made in the pre-test, fourteen errors in the post-test compared to thirty-five in the pre-test. The numbers of errors of the spatial prepositions *beside* and *near/close to* have decreased as well in the post-test as students made four errors less when using *beside* and five less when using *near/close to*. No error has been made when using the spatial preposition *by* in the post-test, while there are three errors in the pre-test.

The number of errors concerning the spatial prepositions *to*, *out of* and *into* has increased in the post-test. There are four more errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition *to* in the post-test. Three errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *out of* and two errors concerning the use of *into* are found in the post-test while there is none in the pre-test. The results of the tests related to the use of the spatial preposition *from* obtained in the Exp. G1 show that there is no error made in the pre-test nor in the post-test.

Concerning the use of the spatial preposition *between* and the use of the *TR* and the *LM* in this group, no error is found in the post-test while there are twelve errors related to

the spatial preposition *between*, and four concerning the *TR* and the *LM* in the pre-test whereas none is made in post-test.

Figure 4.12 shows the performance of all the students in the Exp. G1 when using spatial prepositions in the pre-test and the post-test.

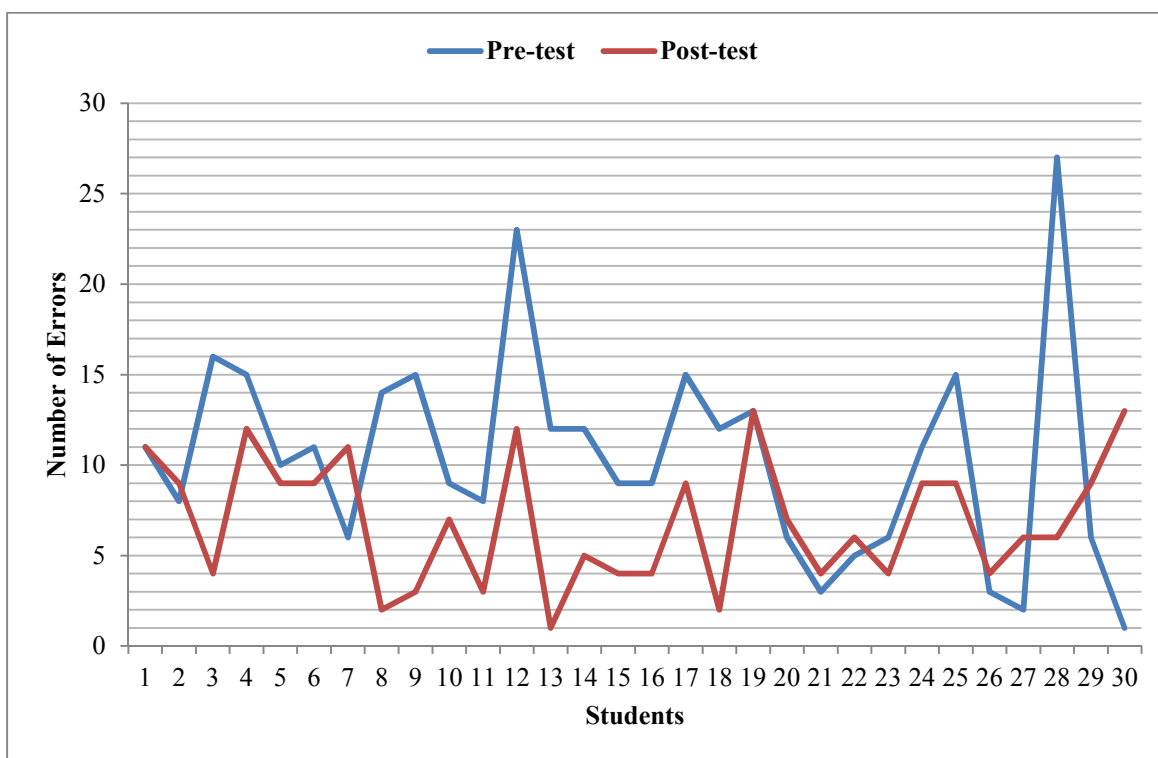


Figure 4.12: Comparison of the Performance of each Student in the First Experimental Group in the Pre-test and the Post-test

Figure 4.12 shows that most students in the Exp. G1 have made less errors when using spatial prepositions in general. However, some students have made more errors in the post-test, while a few others have made almost the same number of errors in both the pre-test and the post-test. The reason behind this could be that the students of this group might need more than error correction to decrease the number of errors in the use of the spatial prepositions.

The comparison between the averages of errors per student in the pre-test and the post-test for the Exp. G1, which received a treatment based on providing different types of errors correction, reveals that there is an improvement. The difference between the average of errors in the pre-test and that obtained in the post-test is 3.53 error/student. This regression

in the average of errors in the post-test illustrates the improvement students in the Exp. G1 have made. However, it is worth noticing that even after undergoing the treatment, errors have not disappeared but have decreased remarkably and students' performance has improved to some extent.

Concerning the Exp. G2, the difference between the numbers of errors made in the pre-test and the post-test varies from one the spatial preposition to another.

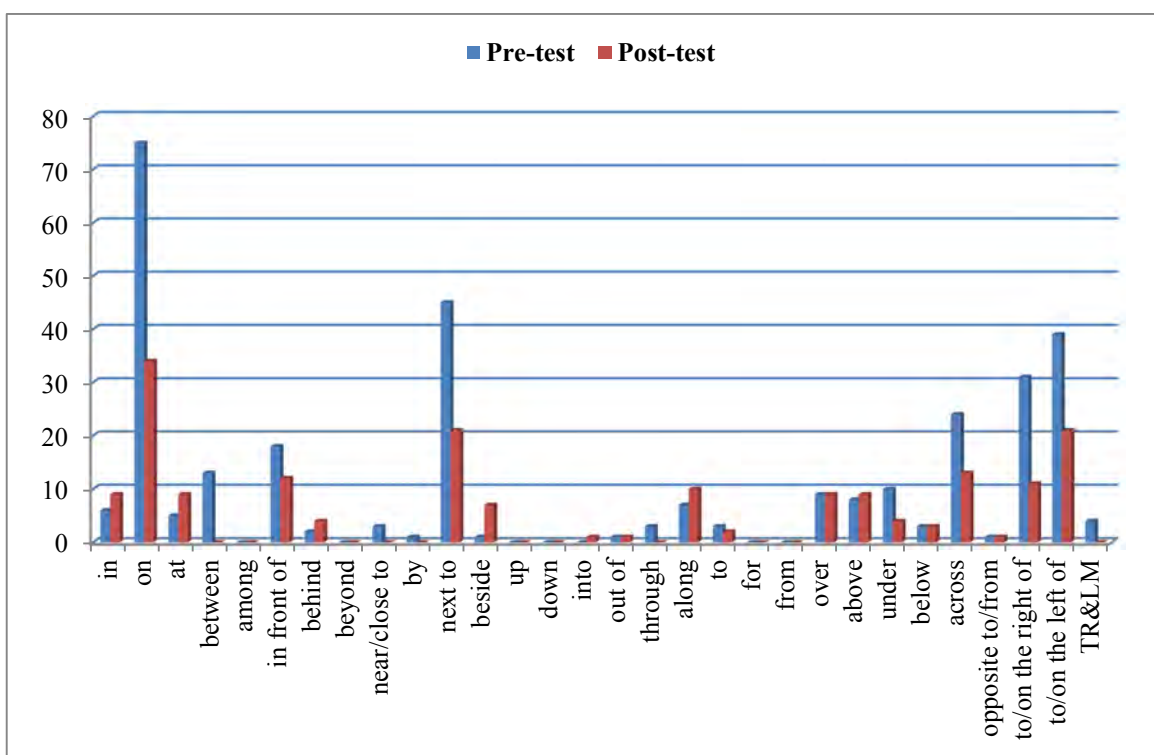


Figure 4.13: Comparison of the Performance of the Second Experimental Group with each Preposition in the Pre-test and Post-test

On the whole, the students in the Exp. G2 were subjected to an explanation of the semantics of spatial prepositions. Each meaning for each spatial preposition was presented and explained. Moreover, the relations of a meaning with other meanings of the same spatial preposition and the meanings of other spatial prepositions were highlighted. However, errors can be found in the results of the post-test with the spatial prepositions *over*, *above*, *below* and *beside*. These errors are due to providing students with purely theoretical explanations and no reference to their errors in the pre-test. In other words, students received thorough

explanation of the semantics of spatial prepositions in a limited number of sessions. In addition to that, lack of internalisation has probably played a role in making errors in the Exp. G2. This phenomenon is related to the short period during which students in the Exp. G2 were exposed to a great number of meanings of different spatial prepositions highlighting the relationships between these meanings and the meanings of other spatial prepositions. Lack of internalisation has led to making errors with the spatial prepositions *under*, *along*, *across*, *in front of*, *next to* and *to/on the right of*.

Figure 4.13 shows clearly that the number of students' errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *on*, which is considered the most problematic preposition in this group, has decreased in the post-test to more than half that obtained in the pre-test; in the pre-test, students made seventy-five errors; this number has dropped to thirty-four errors in the post-test, which reveals a significant improvement in the use of *on*. However, when using both spatial prepositions *in* and *at* the number of students' errors has increased from six errors in the pre-test to nine in the post-test concerning the preposition *in*, and from five errors in the pre-test to nine errors in the post-test for the spatial preposition *at*. Unlike the spatial preposition *on*, students' performance when using both *in* and *at* has not improved after the treatment this group underwent.

Concerning the use of the vertical spatial prepositions, it is clear that students' errors are stable between the pre-test and the post-test when using the spatial prepositions *over* and *below*. For both prepositions, there are respectively nine and three errors. However, the number of errors when using the spatial preposition *above* has increased from eight errors in the pre-test to nine in the post-test. Finally, the number of errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *under* has remarkably decreased as there are ten errors in pre-test and four errors in the post-test.

Comparing the numbers of errors related to the use of the spatial prepositions *across* and *through* shows an amelioration in the use of these prepositions. The number of errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *across* has dropped from twenty-four errors in the pre-test to thirteen errors in the post-test. Similarly, three errors are found in the pre-test concerning the use of the spatial preposition *through* while none is found in the post-test. The number of errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *along* is higher in the post-test where ten errors have been made, while the number of errors made in the pre-test is seven. Considering the performance of the group in relation to the use of the spatial preposition *opposite to/from* shows that one error is found in both the pre-test and the post-test.

Regarding the use of the prepositions of proximity *next to*, *by* and *near/close to*, it is clear that the number of students' errors has decreased in the post-test compared to the pre-test. When using the spatial preposition *next to*, there are forty-five errors in the pre-test while, in the post-test, this number has diminished to twenty-one errors. As for the prepositions *by* and *near/close to*, there are no errors in the post-test though there are respectively one and three errors in the pre-test. On the other hand, the number of errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *beside* has increased from one error in the pre-test to seven errors in the post-test.

When using the spatial prepositions *in front of* and *to/on the right/left of*, students' errors in the pre-test are higher than those of the post-test. There are eighteen errors related to the use of *in front of* in the pre-test, and twelve in the post-test. Concerning the preposition *to/on the right of*, there are only eleven errors in the post-test, while there are thirty-one in the pre-test. As for the preposition *to/on the left of*, there are thirty-nine errors in the pre-test, and this number has dropped to twenty one errors in the post-test. Conversely, the number

of students' errors when using the spatial preposition *behind* has increased in the post-test to four errors while there are two errors in pre-test.

The students in the Exp. G2 have made no errors concerning the use of the spatial preposition *from* neither in the pre-test nor in the post-test. However, the number of errors when using the spatial preposition *to* has decreased from three errors in the pre-test to two errors in the post-test. When using the spatial preposition *into*, students have made no error in the pre-test, but there is one error made in the post-test. Nevertheless, when using the spatial preposition *out of*, there is only one error made in the pre-test, and another in the post-test.

Concerning the use of the spatial preposition *between* and the use of the *TR* and the *LM*, the errors made in the pre-test in this group have disappeared in the post-test. There are thirteen errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *between* in the pre-test, but none is made in the post-test. Similarly, four errors related to the use of the *TR* and the *LM* are made in the pre-test, and no error in the post-test.

Figure 4.14 summarises the performance of students of the Exp. G2 who received a detailed explanation about the semantics of spatial prepositions when using the spatial prepositions in general:

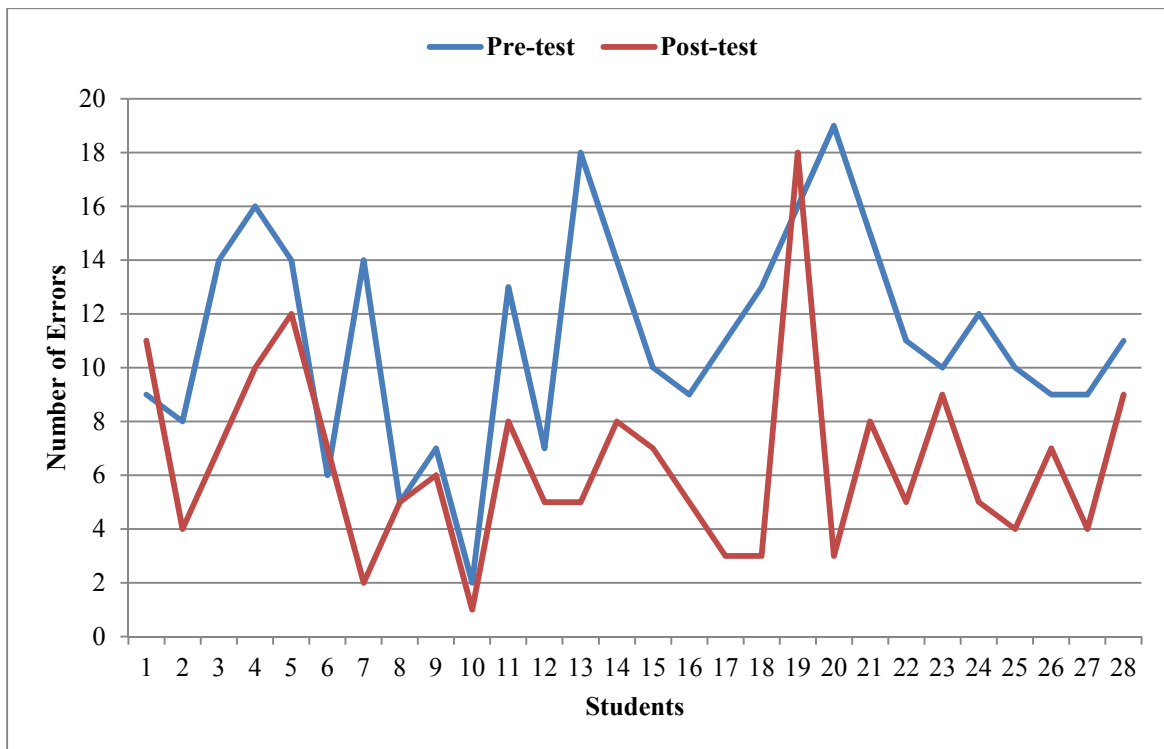


Figure 4.14: Comparison of the Performance of each Student in the Second Experimental Group in the Pre-test and the Post-test

Figure 4.14 shows that the performance of the majority of the students when using spatial prepositions improved to a good extent. Nevertheless, there are exceptions where students probably have got confused by the explanation of the semantics of spatial prepositions.

It is clear that after students in this group received a treatment consisting of the explanation of the semantics of the spatial preposition have performed in the post-test better than the pre-test. This is confirmed by the difference of 4.68 error/student between the average of errors in the pre-test and the average of errors in the post-test obtained by students in the Exp. G2.

In the Exp. G3, the performance of the students when using the spatial prepositions is highly different in the pre-test from the post-test

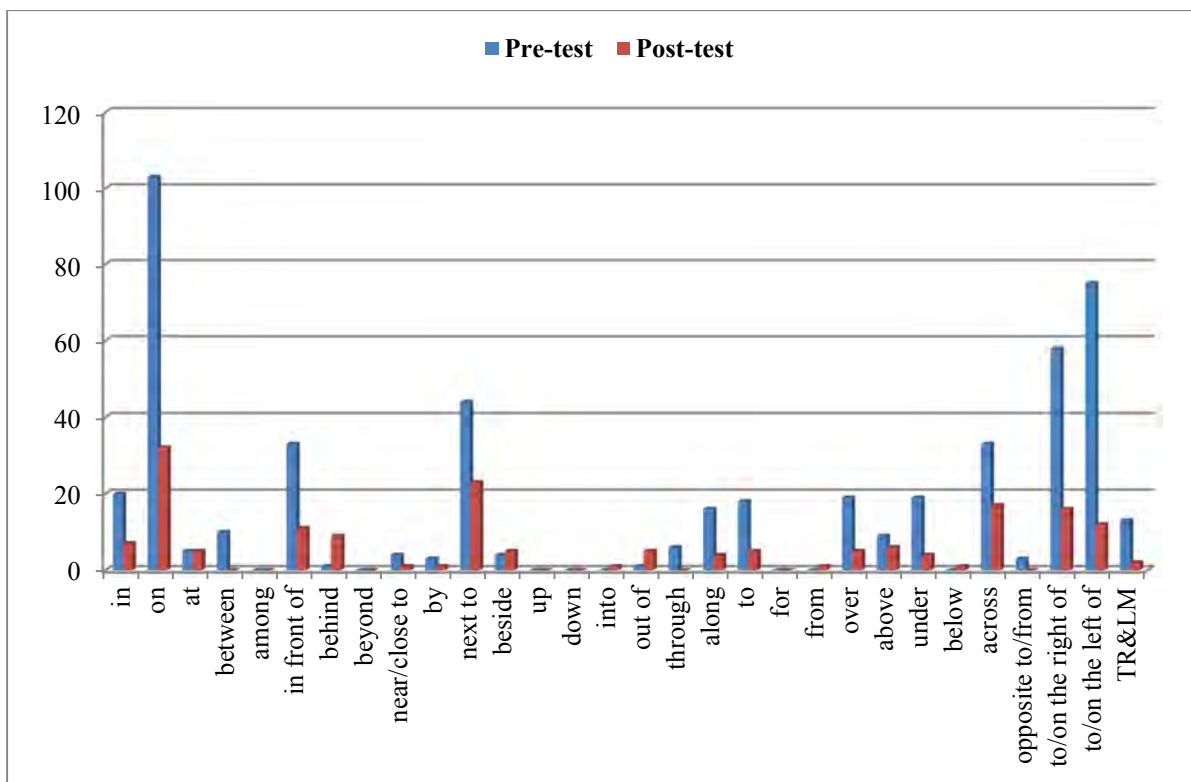


Figure 4.15: Comparison of the Performance of the Third Experimental Group with each Preposition in the Pre-test and Post-test

The students in the Exp. G3 have made errors after they received a treatment that consists of a combination of error correction and presentation and explanation of the meanings of each spatial preposition with reference to the relationship between these meanings and the meanings of other close spatial prepositions. The errors that have occurred when using spatial prepositions such *across*, *next to*, *to/on the right/left of*, *behind* and *out of* could be the outcomes of fossilisation because, despite providing different types of error correction, students have made errors since these incorrect uses are integrated lastingly in their linguistics competence. Though the number of errors when using the spatial prepositions *in* and *on* is remarkably smaller in the post-test than the numbers of errors when using the same spatial prepositions in the Exp. G1 and the Exp. G2, it is significant. The possible reason for making these errors could be that students have not internalised the explanations of the meanings of these prepositions, and/or have failed to make the distinction

between the relationships of the meanings of the same spatial preposition and those with the meanings of other spatial prepositions.

It is noticeable that the students' performance concerning their use of the spatial preposition *in* has improved; there are twenty errors in the pre-test, and only seven are made in the post-test. Concerning the use of the spatial preposition *on*, the number of students' errors in the post-test has decreased to thirty-two errors while it is a hundred and three errors in the pre-test, which means that the errors diminished by more than two thirds. However, there are five errors made when using the spatial preposition *at* in both the pre-test and the post-test.

Concerning the use of the spatial prepositions of verticality, students' errors have decreased in the post-test to six errors when using the spatial prepositions *above* while there are nine errors in the pre-test. Students' errors have diminished remarkably when using the spatial preposition *over* from nineteen errors in the pre-test to five errors only in the post-test. Similarly, the number of errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *under* has decreased from nineteen errors in the pre-test to four errors in the post-test. Nevertheless, there is one error concerning the use of the spatial preposition *below* in the post-test and none in the pre-test.

The numbers of errors related to the use of the spatial prepositions *along* and *across* have decreased in the post-test in comparison to the pre-test. There are sixteen errors in the pre-test when using the preposition *along*; in the post-test, only a quarter of this number of errors has been made. Correspondingly, while there are thirty-three errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *across* in the pre-test, the number has decreased to seventeen errors in the post-test, which is almost half the previous number of errors. In addition, there are six errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *through* and three errors related to the

spatial preposition *opposite to/from* in the pre-test, and no error has been made in the post-test concerning these two spatial prepositions.

Referring to the spatial prepositions *in front of* and *to/on the right/left of*, students' errors have decreased significantly in the post-test when compared to the students' performance in the pre-test. Eleven errors related to the use of the spatial preposition *in front of* have been made in the post-test, while the number of errors is three times this one in the pre-test. Likewise, fifty-eight errors have been made in the pre-test in relation to the use of the spatial preposition *to/on the right of*, while there are sixteen errors in the post-test. Concerning the use of the spatial preposition *to/on the left of*, the number of errors has diminished from seventy-five errors in the pre-test to twelve errors in the post-test, which is one sixth the number of errors made in the pre-test. However, when using the spatial preposition *behind*, students' errors have increased from one error in the pre-test to nine errors in the post-test.

Regarding the use of the spatial preposition *to*, students' performance has improved in the post-test when compared to pre-test. The number of errors related to this preposition in the pre-test is eighteen errors, and it has decreased to five errors in the post-test. When using the spatial preposition *out of*, students made one error in the pre-test and five errors in the post-test. However, when using the spatial prepositions *into* and *from*, it is noticed that students have made no errors in the pre-test but have made one error in the post-test with each preposition.

Students in the Exp. G3 have made no errors in the post-test when using the spatial preposition *between* while there are ten errors in the pre-test. Equally, the number of errors related to the use of the *TR* and the *LM* has decreased in the post-test to two errors, while there are thirteen errors in the pre-test.

Figure 4.16 summarises the performance of students in the Exp. G3 when using spatial prepositions in general:

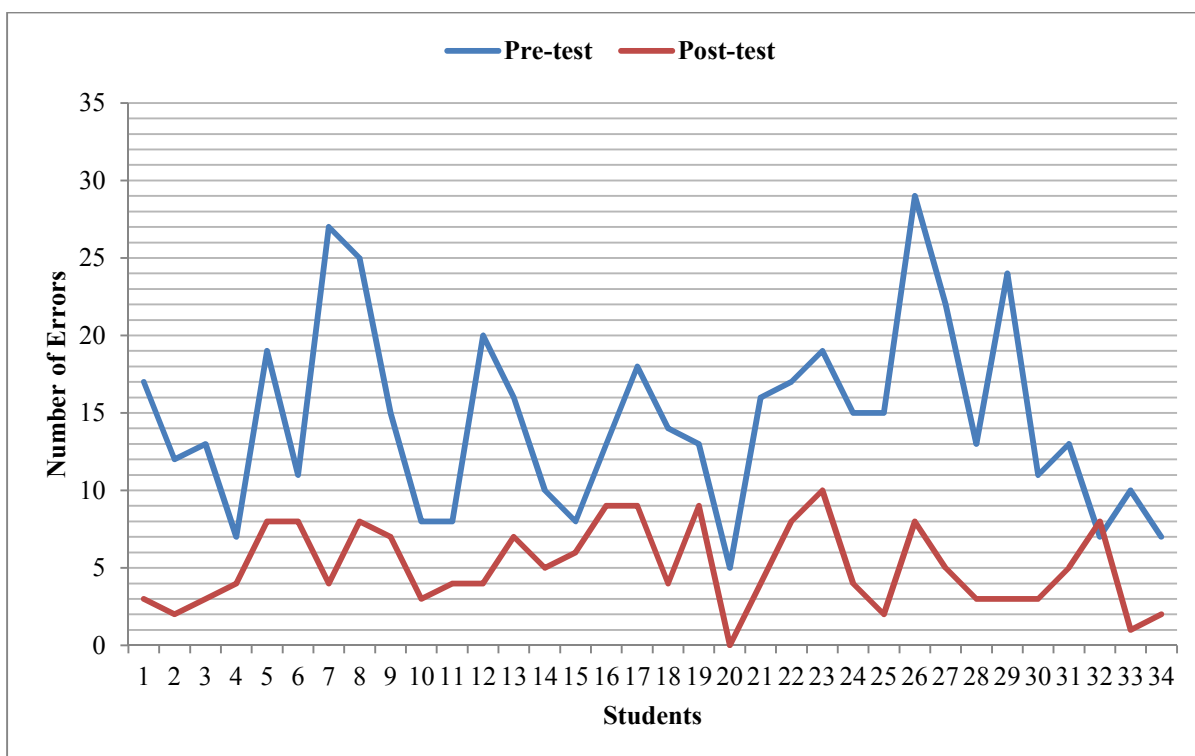


Figure 4.16: Comparison of the Performance of each Student in the Third Experimental Group in the Pre-test and the Post-test

Figure 4.16 clearly shows that the students who received the treatment of error correction in addition to the semantics of spatial prepositions have made fewer errors in the post-test compared to the pre-test. Nonetheless, one student has made more errors in the post-test than in the pre-test, which may be explained by the fact this student might have been absent during the treatment the other students underwent, or his/her level of proficiency has not allowed him to internalise the explanations. It is also worth mentioning that one student has made the least number of errors in the pre-test (five errors), and no error at all in the post-test; making no error could be due to the good level of the student concerned.

The comparison of the performance of students in the Exp. G3 in the pre-test and post-test reveals that the average of errors has decreased largely after they underwent the two forms of treatment. The significant improvement in the students' performance is illustrated

by the great difference of 9.53 error/student between the averages obtained in the pre-test and the post-test.

The diagrams show that students in the four groups still make errors when using the spatial preposition *on*. Though students in the CG and the Exp. G1 have made errors in most of the prepositions (*in, on, at, over, above, under, next to, along, across, in front of, to/on the right/left of, to* and *behind*), there are differences in the number and frequency of the errors students have made when using each preposition. Students in the Exp. G2 and the Exp. G3 have made fewer errors when using most of the spatial prepositions. Students in the Exp. G3 have made the fewest errors with most of the prepositions.

Conclusion

The analysis of the results of the pre-test and post-test reveals that students in the three experimental groups have noticeably improved, as they have made fewer errors in the post-test while students in the CG have regressed. The average of errors in the latter is 10.11 error/student in the post-test, while it is 9.85 error/student in the pre-test; that is a difference of 0.26 error/student. On the other hand, the averages of errors of the three experimental groups have decreased, with 6.90 error/student in Exp. G1, 6.46 error/student in the Exp. G2, and 5.09 in the Exp. G3; that is, a difference rate of 3.53, 4.68, and 9.53 in the three experimental groups respectively.

These results explicitly reject the hypothesis that if teachers use error correction method when teaching spatial prepositions, students will use them more appropriately. This means that error correction alone is ineffective in teaching and learning spatial prepositions because the students who have undergone a treatment based exclusively on error correction have made no significant progress in the post-test. Moreover, the results partly confirm the hypothesis that if teachers present the semantics of spatial prepositions when teaching them, students will better their performance when using this type of prepositions. The results

obtained demonstrate that presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions is partially effective in the teaching and learning of spatial prepositions, as the students who have been exposed to it have made some improvement when using spatial prepositions in the post-test. However, the results reveal that using error correction in combination with presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions is largely effective in the acquisition of spatial prepositions since students who underwent the treatment based on this combination have made the most significant progress in the post-test. This totally confirms the hypothesis that if teachers combine between using both methods – presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions and using error correction – when teaching spatial prepositions, students will improve their use of this type of prepositions.

Chapter Five

Attitudes towards Learning/Teaching Spatial Prepositions

Introduction

5.1. The Sample

5.2. The Students' Questionnaire

5.2.1. Description of the Students' Questionnaire

5.2.2. Results of the Students' Questionnaire

5.2.3. Interpretation of the Results of the Students' Questionnaire

5.3. The Teachers' Questionnaire

5.3.1. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire

5.3.2. Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire

5.3.3. Interpretations of the Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire

5.4. Overall Analysis

Conclusion

Introduction

The Students' Questionnaire has been devised to collect data about the students since they are the centre of the teaching/learning process. The questionnaire portrays students' use of prepositions, of spatial prepositions in particular, their attitudes towards techniques and methods of teaching/learning spatial prepositions, in addition to their attitudes towards correcting their errors in the Grammar class.

The Teachers' Questionnaire is a supporting tool that is used to provide more data about the teaching of spatial prepositions. The questionnaire is set to depict the beliefs, attitudes and experience of Grammar teachers with teaching spatial prepositions through using error correction, and the Semantics of English spatial prepositions.

5.1. The Sample

The Students' Questionnaire (Appendix III) was administrated at the end of the second semester of the academic year 2012-2013. It was given to a sample of 132 Second Year students of English at the Department of English at the University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine, who belonged to the four groups that underwent the experiment. The number of the students who answered the questionnaire is higher than that of those who took part in the experiment because no absences were recorded in the four groups the day the questionnaire was administered. The sample represents 16.50% of the population of the study which is composed of 800 students. It took the participants between 30 and 50 minutes to answer the questionnaire. Moreover, the participants were allowed to ask any question about the questionnaire whenever they faced a problem in understanding any item or statement, or when there was any ambiguous point to them.

The Teachers' Questionnaire (Appendix IV) is directed to teachers who have taught Grammar at the University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine. This questionnaire was given to a sample of 17 teachers of Grammar at the end of the academic year 2012-2013.

5.2. The Students' Questionnaire

The Students' Questionnaire aims at collecting data about students' attitudes and views concerning learning and teaching spatial prepositions using the semantics of spatial prepositions and error correction.

5.2.1. Description of the Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire is composed of four sections; each section consists of a group of questions related to each other because they seek data about the same area.

Section One: Learning Prepositions (Question 1 to Question 6)

This section is about learning prepositions. Questions in this section request students to provide information about the difficulty of learning prepositions, its cause(s), the method(s) that they think fit them to learn prepositions and the type(s) of prepositions that they face more problems in learning.

Section Two: Practising the Use of Spatial Prepositions (Question 7 to Question 11)

This section deals with questions about students' attitudes concerning different methods used in teaching spatial prepositions, different types of practising spatial prepositions, students' attitudes towards materials used in practising spatial prepositions and students' feelings after finishing the practice of spatial prepositions.

Section Three: Error correction (Question 12 to Question 20)

In this section, the information collected is about error correction in the Grammar class, the students' attitudes towards the frequency of error correction, the different types of error correction, and the different sources that could correct students' errors.

Section Four: Further Suggestions (Question 21)

This section is designed for students to provide further suggestions and comments concerning prepositions and spatial prepositions in particular, and any additional comment about learning prepositions and/or spatial prepositions.

5.2.2. Results of the Students' Questionnaire

Section One: Learning Prepositions

1. Learning prepositions is difficult.

- Yes
- No

Options	N	%
Yes	121	91.67
No	11	08.33
Total	132	100

Table 5.1: Rate of Participants who find Learning Prepositions Difficult

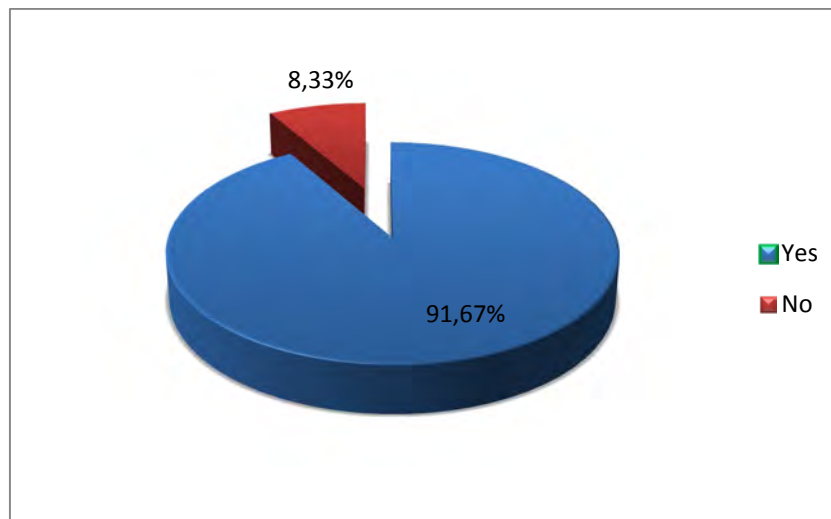


Figure 5.1: Rate of Participants who find Learning Prepositions Difficult

Students' answers concerning whether learning prepositions is difficult support the thought about the difficulty of learning prepositions since the great majority of participants (91.67%) find that learning prepositions, in general, is difficult.

2. Please, explain why.

.....

The reason behind asking the participants to explain why they find learning prepositions difficult or not is to see whether the participants are aware of the reasons behind the difficulty or ease of learning prepositions.

The students who had previously answered that learning prepositions was difficult (121) have given the reasons listed below:

Reasons	N	%
I cannot distinguish between the use of the different prepositions and the different meanings of each preposition in context.	43	35.54
There is no rule and there are many exceptions that make learning prepositions needs a lot of concentration.	24	19.83
Using prepositions in English is not like using them in Arabic.	17	14.05
No answer.	37	30.58
Total	121	100

Table 5.2: Reasons behind the Difficulty of Learning Prepositions

When reporting the reasons behind finding learning prepositions difficult, the great majority of participants who answered they found difficulty in learning prepositions (35.54%) explain that they cannot distinguish between the meanings of the different prepositions as well as the different meanings of each preposition. This can be explained by the large number of prepositions and, at the same time, the number of meanings each preposition has. In addition, it can be seen that a remarkable number of participants, 30.58% of those who said they found learning prepositions difficult, have not justified their answer. This reveals that these participants are most probably not conscious of the reasons that make learning prepositions difficult to them or could not express themselves concerning the reason(s) that influenced their answer in a written form.

Students who answered that learning preposition is not difficult (11 students) gave the following reasons:

Reasons	N	%
I started learning prepositions since an early stage.	08	72.73
The list of prepositions is limited not like some other word categories; it can be easily learnt.	03	27.27
Total	11	100

Table 5.3: Reasons behind the Ease of Learning Prepositions

The majority of participants who found that learning prepositions was not difficult (72.73%) explain this attitude by the fact of having enough knowledge about how to use prepositions. According to them, they have been learning and even using them since their first stages of learning English and, consequently, learning prepositions at their present level is not difficult. The other participants (27.27%) explain that they do not think learning prepositions is difficult because they compare learning prepositions to learning other language items. This has led them to suggest that prepositions are easy to learn because their number is limited in comparison to other items, such as verbs and nouns that are seen as open-ended categories of words.

3. You prefer your teacher to teach you prepositions through:

- a. Giving a list of the most common prepositions with examples.**
- b. Asking you to check their meanings in the dictionary.**
- c. Presenting the different meanings and uses of each preposition with examples.**
- d. Practising the different uses of prepositions through activities.**
- e. Other: Please, justify:**

.....

Options	N	%
a	09	06.81
b	00	00.00
c	19	14.39
d	08	06.06
ab	02	01.51
ac	06	04.55
ad	14	10.61
bc	03	02.27
bd	06	04.55
cd	43	32.57
abc	01	00.76
acd	18	13.64

abd	01	00.76
bcd	01	00.76
abcd	01	00.76
Total	132	100

Table 5.4: Participants' Preferred Ways of Teaching Prepositions

When answering about how they prefer their teachers to teach them prepositions, the majority of participants chose more than one option. The most chosen options are both option *c* (Presenting the different meanings and uses of each preposition with examples) and option *d* (Practising the different uses of prepositions through activities). Ninety-two participants opted for option *c* as they prefer their teachers to present the different meanings and uses of each preposition when teaching them, which represents 69.70% of the participants (*c*, 14.39%; a + *c*, 04.55%; b + *c*, 02.27%; *c* + d, 32.57%; a + b + *c*, 00.76%; a + *c* + d, 13.64%; b + *c* + d, 00.76%; a + b + *c* + d, 00.76%). Similarly, ninety-two participants include option *d*, practising the different uses of prepositions through activities in their choices of what they prefer their teachers to include while teaching prepositions, which equals 69.70% of the participants (*d*, 06.06%; a + *d*, 10.61%; b + *d*, 04.55%; c + *d*, 32.57%; a + b + *d*, 00.76%; a + c + *d*, 13.64%; b + c + *d*, 00.76%; a + b + c + *d*, 00.76%).

In addition, option *a* (Giving a list of the most common prepositions with examples) was chosen by fifty-two students, who represent 39.39% of the participants. Finally, fifteen students opted for option *b* (Asking you to check their meanings in the dictionary), which means 11.39% of the participant students.

The fact of largely choosing both options *c* and *d* reflects a certain level of awareness of the students about the importance of learning the meanings of each preposition as well as the importance of using practice in the teaching/learning process.

4. You face problems in using prepositions because of:

- a. The diversity of the meanings of every preposition.**
- b. The difference between the use of prepositions in Arabic and English.**
- c. Using a preposition instead of another one.**
- d. Lack of Practice.**
- e. Other: Please, justify:**

.....

Options	N	%
a	29	21.97
b	11	08.33
c	10	07.57
d	12	09.09
ab	09	06.82
ac	14	10.61
ad	15	11.36
bc	07	05.30
bd	03	02.27
cd	05	03.79
abc	01	00.76
acd	05	03.79
abd	04	03.03
bcd	01	00.76
No answer	06	04.54
Total	132	100

Table 5.5: Reasons for Facing Problems in Using Prepositions

Option *a*, which refers to the diversity of the meanings of every preposition, was the most largely chosen option. More than half of the participants (77 participants) have opted for the diversity of the meanings of each preposition as the main reason behind the problems they face in learning preposition, which represents 58.34% (*a*, 21.97%; *a* + b, 06.82%; *a* + c, 10.61%; *a* + d, 11.36%; *a* + b + c, 0.76%; *a* + c + d, 03.79%; *a* + b + d, 03.03%).

Six students among those who do not think learning prepositions is difficult have opted for no option in the last list.

The options are ordered based on the number of the students who have chosen them as Table 5.6 demonstrates:

Options	N	%
a. The diversity of meanings of every preposition.	77	58.34
d. Lack of practice.	45	34.09
c. Using a preposition instead of others	43	32.58
b. The difference between the use of preposition in Arabic and English	36	27.27
No Answer	06	04.55

Table 5.6: Frequency of Reasons for Facing Difficulty with Learning Prepositions

Most of the participants who think learning prepositions is difficult are aware that the reason of the difficulty lies in the fact that prepositions have various meanings; they understand that prepositions have meanings and that these meanings are different from one another. Similarly, a third of the participants that find learning prepositions is difficult is conscious of the role of practice and has reported that the lack of practice makes learning prepositions difficult for them. Hence, participants' answers reflect their needs to understand and to practise the different meanings of each preposition in different context.

5. The type(s) of prepositions that cause(s) you problems most is (are):

a. Time

b. Place

c. Movement

d. Other: Please, justify:

.....

Options	N	%
a	12	09.52
b	27	21.43
c	46	36.51
ab	10	07.94

ac	05	03.97
bc	20	15.87
abc	06	04.76
Total	126	100

Table 5.7: Types of Prepositions that cause most Problems to Participants

The hundred and twenty-six participants who answered this question are the same participants who answered the previous question, in addition to five participants who gave a negative answer to the first question. Seventy-seven participants have reported that the most problematic prepositions are movement prepositions, option *c*, that is 61.11% of the participants who answered this question (*c*, 36.51%; a + *c*, 03.97%; b + *c*, 15.87%; a + b + *c*, 04.76%). The second most problematic type of prepositions, according to the answers of sixty-three participants is prepositions of place (option *b*), which represents 50% of the answers (*b*, 21.43%; a + *b*, 07.94%; *b* + c, 15.87%; a + *b* + c, 04.76%). The least problematic type of prepositions is prepositions of time, option *a*, as thirty-three participants report, that is 26.19% of the answers (*a*, 09.52%; *a* + b, 07.94%; *a* + c, 03.97%; *a* + b + c, 04.76%).

Hence, the most problematic prepositions for the students of our sample are spatial prepositions (prepositions of place and of movement). Students' choice of spatial prepositions as the most problematic type could be explained by the fact that they are quite different from the prepositions they usually use in their mother tongue and by the polysemous nature of this type of prepositions.

6. If “place and/or movement”, which are referred to as spatial prepositions, please illustrate with examples of the most difficult ones.

.....

Answers	N	%
in, on	29	25.44
in, on, at	11	09.65
on, at	04	03.51
in, at	05	04.39

in, on, over	02	01.75
in, on, over, below	01	00.88
in, on, at, over, above	04	03.51
in, on, at, over, above, under, below	07	06.14
on, over, above	16	14.04
over, above	03	02.63
over, above, under, below	07	06.14
over, across	03	02.63
over, across, through	02	01.75
across, through	03	02.63
across, through, along	01	00.88
across, in front of, opposite to	02	01.75
at, over, across, to	01	00.88
to, for	01	00.88
over, across, into, out of	01	00.88
in, on, into, out of, to	01	00.88
next to, near to, beside	05	04.39
behind, beyond	01	00.88
next to, behind	02	01.75
next to, in front of	02	01.75
Total	114	100

Table 5.8: Prepositions of Place and/or Movement that cause most Problems to Participants

There are a hundred and fourteen participants who report that they face problems using spatial preposition (prepositions of place and/or prepositions of movements), which represents 86.36% of the participants.

In general, seventy-five participants report that the most problematic spatial preposition to them is the spatial preposition *on* (65.80%: in + ***on***, 25.44%; in + ***on*** + at, 09.65%; ***on*** + at, 03.51%; in + ***on***+ over, 01.75%; in + ***on***+ over + below, 00.88%; in + ***on*** + at + over + above, 03.51%; in + ***on*** + at + over + above + under + below, 06.14%; ***on*** + over + above, 14.04%; in + ***on*** + into + out of + to, 00.88%). The second most problematic spatial preposition is *in* as sixty participants suggest, which refers to 52.64% of the answers (***in*** + on, 25.44%; ***in*** + on + at, 09.65%; ***in*** + at, 04.39%; ***in*** + on+ over, 01.75%; ***in*** + on+

over + below, 00.88%; in + on + at + over + above, 03.51%; in + on + at + over + above + under + below, 06.14%; in + on + into + out of + to, 00.88%). The third chosen problematic spatial preposition is *over* as forty-seven participants claim, which means 41.23% (in + on + over, 01.75%; in + on + over + below, 00.88%; in + on + at + over + above, 03.51%; in + on + at + over + above + under + below, 06.14%; on + over + above, 14.04%; over + above, 02.63%, over + above + under + below, 06.14%, over + across, 02.63%, over + across + through, 01.75%; at + over + across + to, 00.88%; over + across + into + out of, 00.88%).

The summary of the general number and the order of spatial prepositions chosen by participants as problematic for them are represented in Table 5.9:

Answers	N	%
on	75	65.79
in	60	52.63
over	47	41.23
above	37	32.46
at	32	28.07
under	14	12.28
below	14	12.28
across	13	11.40
next to	09	07.89
through	06	05.26
near to	05	04.39
beside	05	04.39
in front of	04	03.51
behind	03	02.36
to	02	01.75
into	02	01.75
out of	02	01.75
opposite to	02	01.75
for	01	00.88
along	01	00.88
beyond	01	00.88

Table 5.9: Problematic Spatial Preposition to Participants

Table 5.8 and Table 5.9 suggest that participants face more problems when using spatial prepositions that are close in meanings or spatial preposition whose meanings overlap

in some contexts, such as *in/on/at*, *over/above*, *on/over/above*, *under/below*, and *next to/beside/near to*.

The total number of problematic spatial prepositions suggested by all participants is three hundred and thirty-five suggestions of different spatial prepositions. This means that the average of the number of problematic spatial prepositions for each participant is almost three difficult spatial prepositions.

Section Two: Practising the Use of Spatial Prepositions

7. You prefer your teacher to teach you spatial prepositions through:

- a. Presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition.**
- b. Providing a context for each use of each spatial preposition.**
- c. Drawing your attention to the relation between the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition.**
- d. Explaining that spatial prepositions are to be learnt as a part of culture.**
- e. Using your errors to explain the use of spatial prepositions.**
- f. Drawing your attention, whenever you misuse spatial prepositions, to the correct answer without explanation.**
- g. Focusing on practice rather than explanation.**
- h. Asking you to use your dictionaries to check the different meanings of spatial prepositions.**
- i. Other: Please, justify:**

.....

In this question, participants could choose more than one option to describe how they prefer to be taught spatial prepositions in particular, which could allow a comparison with their preferences concerning being taught prepositions in general. Most participants have

chosen two or more options as they believe those options reflect their preferences in relation to what they prefer their teachers to use when teaching spatial prepositions.

Options	N	%
a	13	09.85
b	05	03.79
c	04	03.03
ab	08	06.06
ac	06	04.55
ae	02	01.51
af	01	00.76
ag	03	02.27
bc	04	03.03
bd	02	01.51
be	04	03.03
bf	01	00.76
bh	01	00.76
ce	02	01.51
ch	01	00.76
de	01	00.76
gh	01	00.76
abc	07	05.30
abd	01	00.76
abe	05	03.79
abh	01	00.76
ace	06	04.55
acf	01	00.76
adf	01	00.76
adg	02	01.51
aeg	03	02.27
bce	08	06.06
bdg	02	01.51
beg	01	00.76
beh	01	00.76
ceg	01	00.76
ceh	02	01.51
abcd	01	00.76
abce	07	05.30
abcf	01	00.76
abdg	01	00.76
abeh	02	01.51
acfg	04	03.03
acfh	03	02.27

adeg	01	00.76
afgh	01	00.76
befg	02	01.51
abceg	01	00.76
abceh	02	01.51
abdef	01	00.76
abdeg	01	00.76
acdeg	02	01.51
acdeh	01	00.76
Total	132	100

Table 5.10: How Participants prefer to be taught Spatial Prepositions

The most largely chosen option is option *a*, presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition. A majority of eighty-nine participants prefer their teachers to teach them spatial prepositions through presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition, which is equal to 67.42% of the participants (*a*: 09.85%; *a*+ *b*, 06.06%; *a* + *c*, 04.55%; *a* + *e*, 01.51 %; *a* + *f*, 00.76%; *a* + *g*, 02.27%; *a* + *b* + *c* 05.30%; *a* + *b* + *d*, 00.76%; *a* + *b* + *e*, 03.79%; *a* + *b* + *h*, 00.76%; *a* + *c* + *e*, 04.55%; *a* + *c* + *f*, 00.76%; *a* + *d* + *f*, 00.76%; *a* + *d* + *g*, 01.51%; *a* + *e* + *g*, 02.27%; *a* + *b* + *c* + *d*, 00.76%; *a* + *b* + *c* + *e*, 05.30%; *a* + *b* + *c* + *f*, 00.76%; *a* + *b* + *d* + *g*, 00.76%; *a*+ *b* + *e* + *h*, 01.51%; *a* + *c* + *f* + *g*, 03.03%; *a* + *c* + *f* + *h*, 02.27%; *a*+ *d* + *e* + *g*, 00.76%; *a* + *f* + *g* + *h*, 00.76%; *a*+ *b* + *c* + *e* + *g*, 00.76%; *a* + *b* + *c* + *e* + *h*, 01.51%; *a* + *b* + *d* + *e* + *g*, 00.76%; *a* + *b* + *d* + *e* + *h*, 00.76%; *a* + *c* + *d* + *e* + *g*, 01.51%; *a*+ *c* + *d* + *e* + *h*, 00.76%). Choosing option *a* as an answer to this question or including it with other options corresponds to the previous choice of the majority who prefers to be taught prepositions, in general, through presenting the meanings and uses of each preposition.

In addition to the previous results, Table 5.11 summarises the number of participants who have chosen for each option in the question above:

Options	N	%
a. Presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition.	89	67.42
b. Providing a context for each use of spatial preposition.	70	53.03
c. Drawing your attention to the relation between the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition.	65	49.24
e. Using your errors to explain the use of spatial preposition.	56	42.42
g. Focusing on practice rather than on explanation.	26	19.70
d. Explaining that spatial prepositions are to be learnt as a part of culture.	17	12.88
f. Drawing your attentions, whenever you misuse spatial prepositions, to the correct answer without explanation.	16	12.12
h. Asking you to use your dictionaries to check the different meanings of spatial prepositions	16	12.12

Table 5.11: Frequency of the Preferred Methods to be Taught Spatial Prepositions

The least preferred methods of teaching spatial prepositions by students are to have their errors corrected without explanation (option *f*) followed by to be asked to check the meaning of the spatial preposition in the dictionaries (option *h*). This might be explained by the fact that participants have been largely exposed to these methods which, according to them, have not helped them overcome the difficulty of learning prepositions in general, and spatial prepositions in particular.

It can be noticed that the majority of participants prefer their teachers to combine more than one method to teach spatial prepositions. A large number of participants insist on the importance of context to understand the different meanings and uses of spatial prepositions.

8. When practising the use of spatial prepositions, you prefer to use:

- a. Fill-in-the-Gaps activities.**
- b. Multiple Choice activities.**
- c. Paragraph writing activities.**
- d. Sentence writing activities.**
- e. Checking dictionaries for their meanings and uses.**

f. Other: Please, justify

Options	N	%
a	26	19.70
b	08	06.06
c	08	06.06
d	04	03.03
e	03	02.27
ab	17	12.88
ac	19	14.39
ad	08	06.06
ae	03	02.27
bc	02	01.52
bd	04	03.03
cd	02	01.52
de	01	00.76
abc	04	03.03
abd	04	03.03
abe	04	03.03
acd	03	02.27
ade	03	02.27
bcd	05	03.78
bce	01	00.76
abce	01	00.76
acde	01	00.76
abcde	01	00.76
Total	132	100

Table 5.12: Participants' Preferred Practice Methods of Spatial Prepositions

It is noticeable that a majority of ninety-four participants prefer to practise spatial prepositions through Fill-in-the-Gaps activities, which is the most common form of practice used in Grammar (71.21%: a, 19.70%; a + b, 12.88%; a + c, 14.39%; a + d, 06.06%; a + e, 02.27%; a + b +c, 03.03%; a + b + d, 03.03%; a + b + e, 03.03%; a + c + d, 02.27%; a + c + e, 02.27%; a + b + c + e, 00.76%; a + c + d + e, 00.76%; a + b + c + d + e, 00.76%).

The summary of the order and number of the options according to the participants' choice is presented in Table 5.13:

Options	N	%
a. Fill-in-the-Gaps activities.	94	71.21
b. Multiple Choice activities.	51	38.63
c. Paragraph writing activities.	47	35.61
d. Sentence writing activities.	36	27.27
e. Checking dictionaries for their meanings and uses.	18	13.64

Table 5.13: Frequency of Preferred Methods of Practice of Spatial Prepositions.

Largely choosing options *a* and *b* could be due to the fact that these types of activities are characterised by directness and the limited possibilities of answers that can be provided by students. It could also be caused by the low involvement of the students' other skills, such as writing.

9. After practising spatial prepositions, you feel that you:

- a. Still have question(s) about the different meanings and uses of spatial prepositions**
- b. Need to ask for more activities.**
- c. Need to ask for specific rules of the use of these prepositions.**
- d. Other: Please, justify:**

.....

Options	N	%
a	09	06.82
b	39	29.54
c	29	21.97
ab	11	08.33
ac	18	13.64
bc	13	09.85
abc	12	09.09
d (No answer)	01	00.76
Total	132	100

Table 5.14: Participants' Feelings after Practising Spatial Prepositions.

Table 5.14 shows that seventy-five participants feel they need more activities after going through the process of practising spatial prepositions in order to master the use of these prepositions, which means 56.81% of the participants (b, 29.54%; a + b, 08.33%; b + c, 09.85%; a + b + c, 09.09%). Seventy-two participants feel that they need to have specific rules for using spatial prepositions after practising them, that is 54.55% of the participants (c, 21.97%; a + c, 13.64%; b + c, 09.85%; a + b + c, 09.09%). Finally, fifty participants (37, 88%) feel that they still have questions about the different meanings of spatial prepositions after they go through the process of practising them (option *a*). Only one student chose no option that expresses the difficulty after practising spatial prepositions.

It is worth noticing that participants' answers show their needs for an organised and direct way to explain the different uses of spatial prepositions, in addition to a sufficient number of activities for practice to internalise this explanation. The complexity of using spatial prepositions for the learners might be the cause for participants to have these needs.

10. Using pictures as a guide for practising spatial prepositions is interesting.

Yes.

No.

Options	N	%
Yes	112	84.85
No	20	15.15
Total	132	100

Table 5.15: Participants' Opinion about Using Pictures while Practising Spatial Prepositions

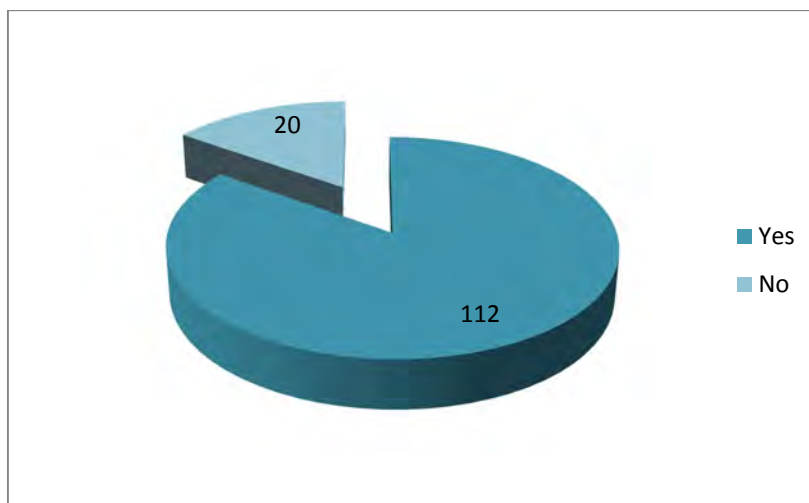


Figure 5.2: Participants' Opinions about Using Pictures while Practising Spatial Prepositions

Answers to this question reveal that a majority of a hundred and twelve participants (84.85%) find using pictures as a guide in practising spatial prepositions interesting. Pictures are visual media that participants believe can help them to visualise the real physical world where spatial prepositions could be used.

11. Please, explain why.

.....

When asked to give the reasons behind their choices, the participants who thought that using pictures is interesting (112 participants) have given the following reasons:

Reasons	N	%
Using pictures makes explanation and understanding clearer.	40	35.71
Using pictures helps in remembering and memorisation.	27	24.11
Using pictures helps in imagination.	21	18.75
They just liked using them.	13	11.61
Using pictures is a good and enjoyable practice.	11	09.82
Total	112	100

Table 5.16: The Reasons for which Participants find Using Pictures as Guide while Teaching Spatial Prepositions Interesting

More than one third of the participants who find using pictures is interesting, which represents 35.71% of the participants who are in favour of using pictures while practising

spatial prepositions, report that it clarifies the explanation of the teacher concerning the meanings of spatial prepositions and helps to better understand them. According to these participants, using pictures helps in visualising the scene as part of the real physical world instead of imagining it. In such a case, all students would have the same scene in front of them and the use of spatial prepositions will be uniform instead of having the students imagine different scenes and using spatial prepositions differently.

Students who thought that using pictures to teach spatial prepositions is not interesting (20 participants) have given the following reasons:

Reasons	N	%
Using pictures does not fit our age nor level.	12	60
Pictures are additional because using them is easy.	05	25
Using pictures is boring.	03	15
Total	20	100

Table 5.17: The Reasons for which Participants find Using Pictures as Guide while Teaching Spatial Prepositions Uninteresting

Twelve participants, which is 60%, of those who find using pictures uninteresting justified their answer by the fact that using them neither fits their age nor their level. The reason behind this opinion could be found in the Algerian teaching methods and practices where pictures are mostly used in Elementary and/or Middle schools with beginner learners. Hence, university students feel that since they are post-intermediate or pre-advanced and older learners of English, it is not appropriate to use pictures in learning spatial prepositions.

Section Three: Error Correction

12. Your errors in grammar are corrected.

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	129	97.73
No	03	02.27
Total	132	100

Table 5.18: Participants' Answers concerning the Correction of their Grammar Errors

The large majority of participants state that their errors in Grammar sessions are corrected, which refers to 97.73% of the participants. Only three participants report that their errors in Grammar are not corrected; this may be due to the fact that these participants do not often attend sessions wherein their teachers correct Grammar errors.

13. You errors are corrected:

- a. Always.
- b. Very often.
- c. Sometimes.
- d. Rarely.

Participants are requested to report on the frequency of having their Grammar errors corrected.

Options	N	%
a	26	20.16
b	44	34.11
c	57	44.19
d	02	01.55
Total	129	100

Table 5.19: Frequency of Correction of Participants' Grammar Errors

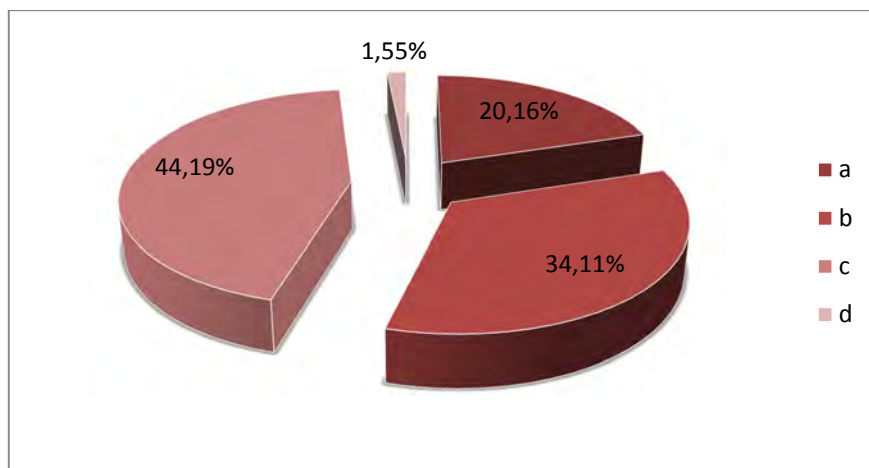


Figure 5.3: Frequency of Correction of Participants' Grammar Errors

Almost half of the participants (44.19%) of those who have stated that their errors are corrected in the Grammar session say that their errors are sometimes corrected (option *c*), and a little more than a third of the participants (34.11%) report that their errors are very often corrected.

These differences of the frequency can be explained by the different methods used by the teachers to alert students about their errors whether direct or indirect. Another reason could be the difference in the teachers' frequency of correcting students since the sample is composed of different administrative groups taught by different teachers.

14. You like your errors to be corrected.

Yes.

No.

Options	N	%
Yes	131	99.24
No	01	00.76
Total	132	100

Table 5.20: Participants' Feeling about Having their Errors Corrected

All the participants but one (99.24%) like their errors to be corrected, including those participants who say their teachers do not correct their errors, which means that they are aware of the usefulness of having their errors corrected by the teachers.

15. Please, explain why.

.....

Participants who like their errors to be corrected (131 participants) justify their answer with the following reasons:

Reasons	N	%
Error correction helps them not to repeat that mistake again.	63	48.09
Error correction helps to learn and understand better and more.	42	32.06
Error correction helps them to improve their English language.	26	19.85
Total	131	100

Table 5.21: Reasons why Participants Like their Errors to be Corrected

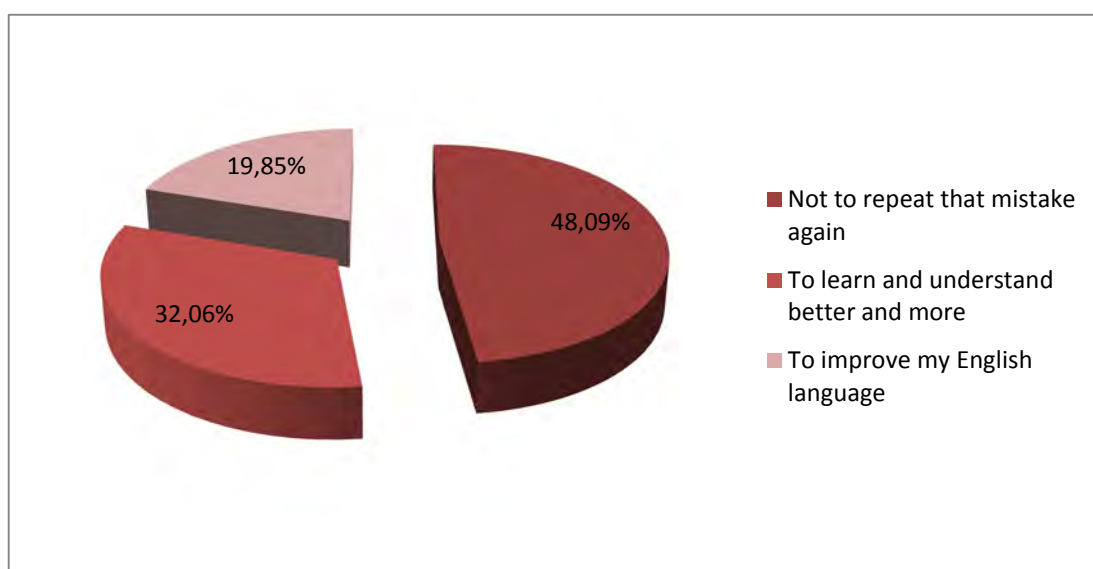


Figure 5.4: Reasons why Participants Like their Errors to be Corrected

It can be noticed that the large majority of students expects error correction to have positive effects on their process of learning English. According to the reasons given by the participants, nearly half of the participants who like their errors to be corrected (48.09%) feel so because they want to avoid repeating the same errors again. Almost one third of the participants who like their errors to be corrected (32.06%) consider the correction of those errors a learning strategy and an understanding method.

The only participant who stated that s/he does not like his/her errors to be corrected explained his/her attitude by saying that errors will be learned through time. This participant may feel embarrassed or disturbed when his/her errors are being corrected and, thus, s/he does not like to have his/her errors to be corrected and waits until s/he learns them through time.

16. The element(s) that is (are) corrected more is (are)

- a. Meaning.**
- b. Structure.**
- c. Misusing grammatical elements.**
- d. Other: Please, justify:**

.....

Options	N	%
a	08	06.20
b	39	30.23
c	35	27.13
ab	07	05.43
ac	05	03.88
bc	17	13.18
abc	06	04.65
ab + Spelling mistakes	04	03.10
c + Spelling mistakes	02	01.55
bc + Spelling mistakes	06	04.65
Total	129	100

Table 5.22: Participants' Most Corrected Aspect in the Grammar Class

Table 5.22 shows that the most chosen option is option *b*, both alone and with other options. Seventy-nine participants report that the most corrected element in the Grammar class is structure (option *b*), which represents 61.24% of the participants who said that their errors were corrected (*b*, 30.23%; a + *b*, 05.43%; *b* + c, 13.18%; a + *b* + c, 04.65%; a + *b* + spelling mistakes, 03.10%; *b* + c + spelling mistakes, 04.65%). With a very slight difference from the first chosen option, seventy-one participants (55.04%) have chosen misusing

grammatical elements (option *c*) as the aspect that is corrected most in the Grammar session. The last option chosen by thirty participants (23.25%) concerns meaning as the element that is corrected most in Grammar session (option *a*).

The participants' answers show that most Grammar teachers give priority to form over other aspects of language. This reflects the traditional view of Grammar teaching as merely form-focused instruction, which gives more importance to form than meaning.

17. You prefer to have corrected:

- a. All the errors.**
- b. A specific kind of errors depending on the lesson.**

Options	N	%
a. All the errors	101	77.10
b. A specific kind of errors depending on the lesson.	30	22.90
Total	131	100

Table 5.23: Participants' Preferences Concerning the Correction of their Errors

Concerning the type of error correction, a majority of a hundred and one participants (77.10%) who like their errors to be corrected prefer to have all their errors corrected. The reason behind this attitude could be that they do not consider error correction a learning strategy that can be used to understand the lesson better through selecting the errors related to the that lesson. They rather want to be alerted about all their errors because they think that when they know their errors, they will not repeat them again.

18. You prefer having errors corrected by:

- a. The teacher.**
- b. Classroom discussion.**
- c. Peer correction: classmates correcting each other's mistakes.**
- d. Self-correction: correcting your own mistakes.**

This question was designed in order to identify the method through which participants prefer their errors to be corrected.

Options	N	%
a	56	42.75
b	08	06.11
c	04	03.05
d	04	03.05
ab	18	13.74
ac	15	11.45
ad	13	09.92
bc	01	00.76
bd	02	01.53
cd	00	00.00
abc	02	01.53
acd	03	02.29
abd	05	03.82
Total	131	100

Table 5.24: How Participants Prefer their Errors to be Corrected

It is noticeable that a large number of students, a hundred and twelve participants, have reported that they prefer the teacher to be the one in charge of correcting their errors (option *a*), which is equivalent to 85.50% (*a*, 42.75%; *a* + b, 13.74%; *a* + c, 11.45%; *a* + d, 09.92%; *a* + b + c, 01.53%; *a* + c + d, 02.29%; *a* + b + d, 03.82%).

Table 5.25 presents the order of the options based on the number of participants who chose them:

Options	N	%
a. The teacher	112	85.50
b. Classroom discussion.	36	27.48
d. Peer correction: classmates correcting each other's mistake.	27	20.61
c. Self-correction: correcting your own mistakes.	25	19.08

Table 5.25: Frequency of Error Correction Methods as Preferred by Students

The reason behind the majority of participants' preference to be corrected by the teacher is that they prefer to get information directly. They prefer to have direct and explicit

correction; since the teacher could more probably be the most trustful source to do this in classroom environment, most students have chosen the teacher to correct their errors.

19. If “the teacher” or “classroom discussion”, you prefer the teacher to:

- a. Spot the error, identify its type and give you the correction.**
- b. Spot the error, identify its type, and let you think of the correction then check with you.**
- c. Spot the error, let you think of its type and its correction then check with you.**

The answers to the question will help collect data about the degree of the participants’ dependence on their teachers in the process of correction, mainly those participants who prefer to have correction from their teacher and/or in classroom discussion.

There are a hundred and twenty-three participants whose answers to the previous question include choosing option *a* (the teacher) and/or option *b* (classroom discussion) as the most preferable sources of correction:

Options	N	%
a	42	34.15
b	59	47.97
c	18	14.63
bc	01	00.81
abc	03	02.44
Total	123	100

Table 5.26: Degree of Dependence on the Teacher while Correcting Errors

In reference to Table 5.26, a little more than half of the participants who want to have their errors corrected by the teacher and/or classroom discussion (63 participants) prefer the teacher to spot the error, identify it and let them think of the correction then check with them, option b; this represents 51.22% of the participants who prefer their errors to be corrected by the teacher (*b*, 49.97%; *b* + c, 00.81%; a + *b* + c, 02.44%). These participants are not highly dependent on their teacher and prefer to take part in the process of error correction under the teachers’ guidance.

However, there is a considerable number of students, forty-five participants, who are totally dependent on their teachers, which is equivalent to 36.59% (a, 34.15%; a + b + c, 02.44%), because they prefer the teacher to spot the error, identify its type and give them the correction explicitly. This could be caused by their preference to have a completely direct error correction type given from their most reliable source, the teacher.

20. If “peer correction” or “self-correction”, you prefer that:

- a. You/your peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the correction and the explanation with others.**
- b. You/your peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the explanation with others.**
- c. You/your peer spot the error, identify its type, its correction and its explanation.**

The answers to this question will help to get data concerning the participants who prefer to have peer or self-correction and the extent to which they are dependent on the teacher, classmates, and/or themselves in the process of error correction.

The number of participants who opted for (peer correction or/and self-correction) is forty-nine.

Options	N	%
a	39	79.59
b	05	10.20
c	02	04.08
abc	03	06.12
Total	49	100

Table 5.27: Participants’ Independence from Teacher Correction

Regarding the results in Table 5.27, the vast majority of the students, forty-two participants among those who like to have peer or self-correction prefer to have the error spotted and its type and correction identified, but they need to check this correction and its

explanation with the teacher; this number equals 85.71% of the participants who opted for peer or self-correction (\underline{a} , 79.59%; $\underline{a} + b + c$, 06.12%). Therefore, these participants prefer to be independent (autonomous) but, at the same time, they need the teacher to give them a little help while correcting and explaining the correction of their errors.

Section Four: Further Suggestions

21. Please, add any further comment or suggestion.

No participant student provided any suggestion or comment concerning the questionnaire.

5.2.3. Interpretation of the Results of the Students' Questionnaire

Though there are eleven participants who do not think learning prepositions is difficult in Question 1, there are five participants among them (45.45%) who give the reason of lack of practice (option *d*) for the problems they face in using prepositions when they answer Question 4, and who suggest the most difficult type(s) of prepositions for them in Question 5. This contradiction could be caused by the fact that these students do not regard using and practising prepositions as being parts of learning them when answering the first question; they probably consider learning prepositions as simply knowing them. Therefore, they face problems in using the different types of preposition because of the lack of practice.

When answering Question 4, the majority of participants state that the main reasons behind the difficulty of using prepositions are both the diversity of meanings and uses of each preposition (option *a*) and the lack of practice (option *d*). Most of the students have confirmed also in both Question 3 and Question 7 that they prefer their teachers to present the meanings and uses of each preposition in general, and each spatial preposition in particular. Moreover, students express their need for practice to consolidate their understanding of using all prepositions. Hence, their answers can be consistent with the possible solutions for the problems they face when using prepositions.

However, when answering Question 8 about the most preferable method of practising spatial prepositions, the majority of students opt for the Fill-in-the-Gaps type of activities, which helps neither to express nor to practise the different close and related meanings of each preposition. The students have chosen this type of activities for its directness and easiness but not to solve their problematic use of prepositions, and particularly spatial prepositions. Their answers to this question show a lack of awareness of the importance of the other types of activities in explaining, practising and consolidating the appropriate use of prepositions and mainly spatial prepositions in context.

All the students of the sample except one, including ten out of the eleven students who say that they have no difficulty when learning prepositions in Question 1, affirm that they have a problem or more in understanding the use of spatial prepositions even after practising (option *a*, option *b*, option *c*). This contradiction can be explained by the fact that those ten students may not find learning prepositions difficult, but they do not perfectly master using spatial prepositions. The answers to this question highly support the concern about the difficulty of spatial prepositions. Moreover, they strongly indicate the ineffectiveness of the methods used earlier when presenting and when practising spatial prepositions.

Almost two thirds of the participants (82 participants, 63.57%) have opted for one option (*a*, *b*, or *c*) when answering Question 16. According to the participants, teachers do not correct more than one aspect in the Grammar session, while the majority of students like all their errors to be corrected whether at the level of aspects (meaning, structures and use) or at the level of types, based on their answers of Question 17. They think that when all their errors are corrected, they will not repeat any of them and will understand all of them at the same time according to the reasons given in Question 14. Hence, students fear that if they concentrate on one aspect or one topic when their errors are corrected, they will repeat the errors related to the other topics or other aspects and will not understand them again. For the

same reasons, the vast majority of the participants like their errors to be corrected by the teacher or through classroom discussion in reference to their answers to Question 18. Therefore, they want all the errors of all the aspects and types to be directly corrected by the teacher because they think that this method will help them avoid making the same errors another time and learn better, which is not the case neither based on the theory presented in the literature review nor in the experience of the teaching/learning process.

5.3. The Teachers' Questionnaire

The Teachers' Questionnaire aims at gathering information about Grammar teachers' experience and attitudes concerning teaching prepositions, spatial prepositions in particular, using semantics of spatial prepositions and errors correction.

5.3.1. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaire is composed of an introduction that explains the aim of the questionnaire. The teachers were requested to tick in the box corresponding to the statement they think appropriate or to write a statement where necessary.

The questionnaire is composed of five sections:

Section One: General Information (Question 01 and Question 02)

This section aims at collecting data about teachers' experience in teaching Grammar and the level(s) they have taught.

Section Two: Teaching Prepositions (Question 03 to Question 08)

This section deals with teaching prepositions. Teachers are asked about the difficulty of teaching prepositions, its cause(s), the method(s) they use to teach prepositions and the type(s) of prepositions that their students face more problems with while leaning them.

Section Three: Practising Spatial Prepositions (Question 09 to Question 12)

The third section is about different methods used in teaching spatial prepositions, different types of practice used with spatial prepositions, and teachers' opinions concerning students' feelings after practising spatial prepositions.

Section Four: Error correction (Question 13 to Question 21)

In this section, the information collected is about error correction in the Grammar class and the teachers' frequency of using it, the different types of error correction teachers use, and the different methods of error correction used in their classes.

Section Five: Further Suggestions (Question 21)

This section is a space for teachers' suggestions or any further comments concerning prepositions and spatial prepositions, in particular, and any further comment about their teaching.

5.3.2. Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire

Section One: General Information

1. You have been teaching Grammar for:

..... years.

Years of Experience	N	%
01	03	17.65
02	07	41.18
03	01	05.88
04	01	05.88
05	02	11.76
07	01	05.88
08	01	05.88
09	01	05.88
Total	17	100

Table 5.28: Teachers' Years of Experience in Teaching Grammar

Table 5.28 shows that the majority of teachers who responded to the questionnaire have been teaching Grammar for one to five years (14 teachers, 82.35%), which indicates that the teachers of Grammar at The University “Des Frères Mentouri”, Constantine have different years of experience and, hence, have different methods of teaching and learning. The majority of teachers have been students in the new system at the University “Des Frères Mentouri”, Constantine (LMD System). The average of the teaching experience of Grammar teachers in this sample is calculated through applying the formula of the arithmetic mean for grouped data which is the following:

$$x = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i f_i}{N}$$

$$x = \frac{x_1 \times f_1 + x_2 \times f_2 + x_3 \times f_3 + \dots + x_n \times f_n}{N}$$

In this formula, x represents the different values in the group, N is the number of items in the group, and f is the frequency of each value. As a result, the formula is represented as follows:

$$\frac{(3 \times 1) + (7 \times 2) + (1 \times 3) + (1 \times 4) + (2 \times 5) + (1 \times 7) + (1 \times 8) + (1 \times 9)}{17}$$

$$= 3.41$$

The average of the years of experience of the Grammar teachers is 3.41 years. This implies that the average years of experience of Grammar teachers is significantly low in comparison to the importance of Grammar in learning a foreign language. This is mainly due to the fact that the majority of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire (14 teachers) are new in teaching Grammar, which is reflected in their short experience, while those teachers whose experience is relatively long (07 to 09 years) are only three out of seventeen teachers.

2. You have been teaching:

a. First year.

b. Second year.

Options	N	%
First year	08	47.06
Second year	07	41.18
First and second year	02	11.76
Total	17	100

Table 5.29: First and Second Year Teachers of Grammar

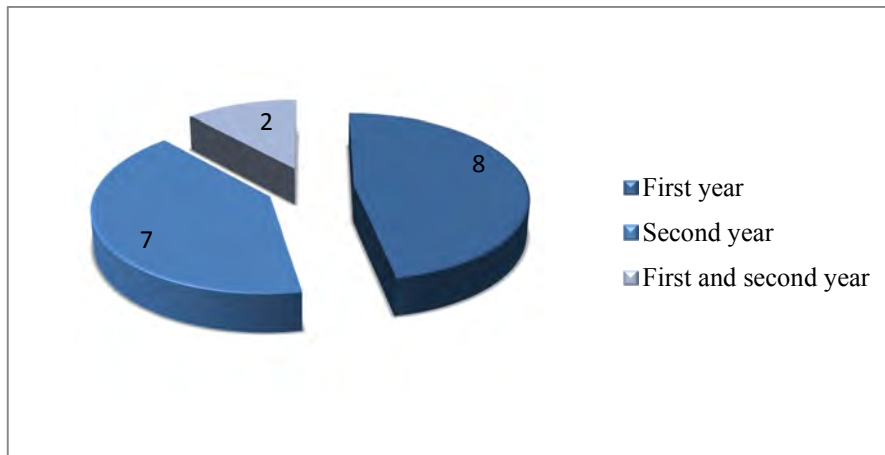


Figure 5.5: First and Second Year Teachers of Grammar

There are eight teachers who have been teaching Grammar to first year students and seven to second year students; however, only two teachers have taught Grammar to both first and second year students.

This indicates that the majority of teachers of Grammar at the University “Des Frères Mentouri”, Constantine are teaching the same level every year. Therefore, the majority of them have no idea about what students will have in the second year or what students had in the first year in order to make a link between the two.

Section Two: Teaching Prepositions

3. Teaching prepositions is difficult.

Yes.

No.

Options	N	%
Yes	16	94.12
No	01	05.88
Total	17	100

Table 5.30: Teachers’ Opinions about the Difficulty of Teaching Prepositions

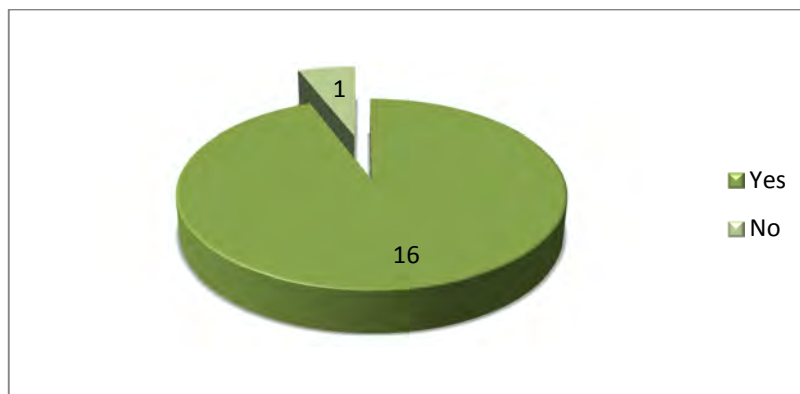


Figure 5.6: Teachers’ Opinions about the Difficulty of Teaching Prepositions

The vast majority of teachers with an average of experience of 03.56 years think that teaching prepositions is difficult. Only one teacher who has one-year experience thinks that teaching prepositions is not difficult. The opinion of teachers concerning whether teaching prepositions is difficult or not does not seem to be affected by the years of experience; both teachers who have five years or less experience and those who have seven, eight and nine years of experience find teaching prepositions difficult.

4. Please, explain why.

.....

Reasons	N	%
They are numerous with no rule that students generally want, related to context.	08	47.06
They have different meanings that they generally overlap.	05	29.41
Students rely on Arabic or French in understanding them which most of the time cause negative Transfer.	03	17.65
Students learnt prepositions in their first years of learning English and their teaching is generally easy because it depends on the students’ level.	01	05.88
Total	17	100

Table 5.31: Teachers’ Reasons behind the Difficulty of Teaching Prepositions

Almost half of the teachers who think teaching prepositions is difficult (47.06%) explain this difficulty by the fact that a large numbers of prepositions have no rules to govern their use, which students usually want to learn, and because their use is related to context.

The teacher who reports that teaching prepositions is not difficult explains that the reason behind his/her answer is the fact that students learnt prepositions in their first years of learning English, and their teaching is generally easy because it depends on the students' level.

5. You teach prepositions through:

- a. Giving a list of the most common prepositions with examples.
- b. Asking the students to check their meanings in the dictionary.
- c. Presenting the different meanings and uses of each preposition with examples.
- d. Practising the different uses of prepositions through activities.
- e. Other: Please, justify:

.....

Options	N	Rate
a	04	23.53
d	02	11.76
ab	01	05.88
ad	03	17.65
cd	01	05.88
abd	01	05.88
abcd	01	05.88
a + examples of the exceptions	01	05.88
ad+ examples of the most confusing ones	01	05.88
ad + comparison between different but close uses	01	05.88
ad + discussion of the exceptions	01	05.88
Total	17	100

Table 5.32: The Methods Teachers Use in Teaching Prepositions

According to Table 5.32, the majority of teachers (14 teachers) include the first option in their answers where teachers give a list of the most common prepositions with examples,

which means 82.35% of the participant teachers (a, 23.23%; a + b, 05.88%; a + d, 17.65%; a + b + d, 05.88%; a + b + c + d, 05.88%; a + examples of the exceptions, 05.88%; a + d + examples of the most confusing ones, 05.88%; a + d + comparison between the different but close uses, 05.88%; a + d + discussion of the exceptions, 05.88%).

It is worth noticing that almost two thirds of the teachers (11 teachers) use more than one method to teach prepositions. This indicates that teachers of Grammar try to vary the methods of teaching prepositions.

The order of the options in Question 05 according to the number of teachers who opted for them is summarised in Table 5.33:

Options	N	%
a	14	82.35
d	11	64.71
b	03	17.65
c	02	11.76

Table 5.33: Frequency of the Methods Teachers use in Teaching Prepositions

Table 5.33 shows that the majority of teachers think the best method to use in teaching prepositions is providing students with lists of common prepositions in addition to examples about their use. The second most common method teachers opt for is practising the different uses of prepositions through activities. However, it is worth noticing that only two teachers report that presenting prepositions' various meanings and uses of each prepositions, in addition to examples, is the method they use in teaching prepositions.

6. Students face problems in using prepositions because of:

- a. The diversity of the meanings of every preposition.**
- b. The difference between the use of prepositions in both Arabic and English.**
- c. Using a preposition instead of another (mixing up the close meanings).**
- d. Lack of practice.**
- e. Other: Please, justify:**

.....

Options	N	%
a	02	11.76
b	01	05.88
c	00	00.00
d	00	00.00
ab	02	11.76
ac	02	11.76
ad	01	05.88
bc	01	05.88
bd	01	05.88
cd	01	05.88
abc	01	05.88
acd	01	05.88
abcd	03	17.65
abcd + No material available	01	05.88
Total	17	100

Table 5.34: Teachers' Opinions about the Reasons behind Students' Problems in Using Prepositions

According to the answers shown in Table 5.34, thirteen teachers think that the most common reason that causes students to have problems when using prepositions is the diversity in nature of the meanings of every preposition (76.47%: a, 11.76%; a + b, 11.76%; a + c, 11.76%; a + d, 05.88%; a + b + c, 05.88%; a + c + d, 05.88%; a + b + c + d, 17.65%; a + b + c + d + no material available, 05.88%).

This indicates that the majority of teachers are aware of the problems their students face when using prepositions and aware of the reasons behind these problems as well.

The order of the options according to the number of teachers who have opted for each is presented in Table 5.35:

Options	N	%
a	13	76.47
b	10	58.82
c	09	52.94
d	08	47.06

Table 5.35: Frequency of Teachers' Opinion about the Reasons behind Students' Difficulty to use Prepositions

It is noticeable that most participant teachers acknowledge that each preposition has various meanings and that this variety of meanings lies behind the difficulty their students have when learning prepositions. Moreover, these teachers are conscious of the effects students' mother language has on their use of English prepositions as they report that one of the reasons behind students' facing difficulty when learning prepositions is the difference between using prepositions in English and in Arabic.

7. The type(s) of prepositions that cause(s) students' problems most is(are):

- a. Time.**
- b. Place.**
- c. Movement.**
- d. Other: Please, justify:**

.....

Options	N	%
a	00	00.00
b	03	17.65
c	03	17.65
ab	04	23.53
abc	05	29.41
abc + Other prepositions	02	11.76
Total	17	100

Table 5.36: Teachers' Opinions about the Most Problematic Prepositions to Students

In Table 5.36, it is noticeable that when teachers have opted for the time type of prepositions (option *a*) to be problematic for students, it is always accompanied with

prepositions of place (option *b*), with prepositions of place and movement at same time (options *b* and *c*), or prepositions of place and movement in addition to other prepositions. The most chosen type of prepositions as the most problematic one for students to use is prepositions of place (option *b*) since fourteen teachers included it in their choices (82.35%: *b*, 17.65%; a + *b*, 05.88%; a + *b* + *c*, 29.41%; a + *b* + *c* + other preposition, 11.76%).

The order of the most problematic prepositions according to the number of the teachers who opted for them is presented Table 5.37:

Options	N	%
b. Place	14	82.35
a. Time	11	64.71
c. Movement	10	58.82

Table 5.37: Frequency of Teachers’ Answers concerning the most Problematic Type of Prepositions for Students

The least chosen option among the given ones in Question 07, according to the teachers’ answers, is prepositions of movement.

Teachers of Grammar of both first and second year are conscious of the difficulty of learning prepositions of place and movement for their students. Hence, the idea related to the problematic use of spatial prepositions is largely confirmed.

8. If “place and/or movement”, which is referred to as *spatial prepositions*, please illustrate with examples.

Answers	N	%
in, at	01	05.88
in, on, at	02	11.76
in, on, at, over	03	17.65
in, on, at, over, along, through	02	11.76
in, on, at, over, towards, into	01	05.88
in, on, over, above, across, along, into, beyond, inside	01	05.88
on, over, above	02	11.76

on, over, above, across, through	01	05.88
across, through	01	05.88
across, along, towards, to, from, into	01	05.88
on, at, under, below, across, towards	01	05.88
All the spatial prepositions	01	05.88
Total	17	100

Table 5.38: Spatial Prepositions Suggested by Teachers as the most Problematic

In reference to the teachers' suggestions concerning examples of the most problematic prepositions of place and/or movement for students to use, the spatial preposition *on* is the most often suggested spatial preposition as being difficult to use since twelve teachers have suggested it (70.59%: in + on + at, 11.76%; in + on + at + over, 17.65%; in + on + at + over + along + through, 11.76%; in + on + at + over + towards + into, 05.88%; in + on + over + above + across + along + into + beyond + inside, 05.88%; on + over + above, 11.76%; on + over + above + across + through, 05.88%; on + at + under + below + across + towards, 05.88%). One teacher suggested that students face difficulties in using all spatial prepositions without any reference to any of them specifically.

The spatial prepositions suggested by the teachers are presented in Table 5.39 and ordered according to how often they are suggested:

Answers	N	%
on	12	70.59
in	09	52.94
at	09	52.94
over	09	52.94
across	05	29.41
above	04	23.53
towards	03	17.65
into	03	17.65
along	03	17.65
through	03	17.65
under	01	05.88
to	01	05.88
from	01	05.88

below	01	05.88
beyond	01	05.88
inside	01	05.88
All spatial prepositions	01	05.88

Table 5.39: Frequency of each Preposition Suggested by Teachers concerning the most Problematic Prepositions

Knowing the most difficult spatial prepositions for students could lead teachers to adjust their teaching methods to provide students with more explanations and more practice to help them use these spatial prepositions appropriately.

The reason behind having one teacher suggesting all spatial prepositions as an answer to this question could be that s/he thinks that his/her students face problems with all spatial prepositions in an equal way.

Section Three: Practising Spatial Prepositions

9. You teach spatial prepositions through:

- a. Presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition.
- b. Providing a context for each use of each spatial preposition.
- c. Drawing the students' attention to the relation between the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition.
- d. Explaining that spatial prepositions are to be learnt as part of culture.
- e. Using students' errors to explain the use of spatial prepositions.
- f. Drawing students' attention, whenever they misuse spatial prepositions, to the correct use without explanation.
- g. Focusing on practice more than on explanation.
- h. Asking students to use their dictionaries to check the meanings of spatial prepositions.
- i. Other: Please, justify:

.....

Options	N	%
b	02	11.76
c	01	05.88
e	01	05.88
ad	01	05.88
be	03	17.65
bf	01	05.88
gh	01	05.88
bdf	01	05.88
beh	01	05.88
abdh	01	05.88
bfg	01	05.88
bdgh	02	11.76
bdeg	01	05.88
Total	17	100

Table 5.40: Teachers Methods in Teaching Spatial Prepositions

In reference to Table 5.40, the largely included method to teach spatial prepositions by thirteen teachers is providing a context for each preposition (76.47%: b, 11.76%; b + e, 17.65%; b + f, 05.88%; b + d + f, 05.88%; b + e + h, 05.88%; b + f + g, 05.88%; a + b + d + h, 05.88%; b + d + g + h, 11.76%; b + d + e + g, 05.88%).

The method of teaching spatial prepositions teachers include the least is making the link between the different meanings and uses of every spatial preposition, for which only one teacher has opted (05.88%).

The teachers' choices are orders in Table 5.41:

Options	N	%
b. Providing a context for each use of each spatial preposition.	13	76.47
d. Explaining that spatial prepositions are to be learnt as part of culture.	06	35.29
e. Using students' errors to explain the use of spatial prepositions.	06	35.29
g. Focusing more on practice than on explanation.	05	29.41
h. Asking students to use their dictionaries to check the meanings of spatial prepositions.	05	29.41
f. Drawing students' attention, whenever they misuse spatial prepositions, to the correct use without explanation.	03	17.65
a. Presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition.	02	11.76

c. Drawing the students' attention to the relation between the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition.	01	05.88
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Table 5.41: Frequency of Teachers' Methods in Teaching Spatial Prepositions

Choosing option *b* (Providing a context for each use of each spatial preposition) shows that teachers could help students learn the different uses of each spatial preposition. However, it might more probably be time consuming and confusing when not implemented with option *a* (Presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition) and option *c* (Drawing the students' attention to the relation between the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition); both methods have been the least chosen by teachers. Two thirds of the participant teachers do not consider error correction a teaching method of spatial prepositions. Despite its importance, practising the use of spatial prepositions is not given enough attention by teachers; less than one third of the teachers have chosen option *g* (Focusing more on practice than on explanation).

10. How often do you use the items below in teaching spatial prepositions?

Options	Rarely	Often	Always
a. Presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition.			
b. Providing a context for each use of each spatial preposition.			
c. Drawing the students' attention to the relation between the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition.			
d. Explaining that spatial prepositions are to be learnt as part of culture.			
e. Using students' errors to explain the use of spatial prepositions.			
f. Drawing students' attention, whenever they misuse spatial prepositions, to the correct use without explanation.			
g. Focusing more on practice than on explanation.			
h. Asking students to use their dictionaries to check the meanings of spatial prepositions.			

Options	Always	Often	Rarely	Total
a	00	02	00	02
b	04	05	04	13
c	01	00	00	01
d	03	03	00	06
e	03	02	01	06
f	02	01	00	03
g	01	02	02	05
h	02	02	01	05

Table 5.42: Frequency of Using these Methods in Teaching Spatial Prepositions

According to Table 5.42, most teachers have opted for presenting a context for each use of each spatial preposition (option *b*) as the method they use in teaching this type of prepositions. There are differences in the frequency of using this method as five teachers report that they often use it, while four have said they use it rarely, and four others have said they always use it. The second most used method in teaching prepositions is explaining that prepositions are to be learnt as part of culture (option *d*) equally with using students' errors to explain the use of spatial prepositions (option *e*).

Nevertheless, it is worth noticing that only two teachers report that they often present the different meanings of each spatial preposition, and that only one teacher has reported that s/he always draws the students' attention to the relation between the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition.

11. When practising the use of spatial prepositions, you use:

- a. Students' Paragraph production.**
- b. Students' Sentence production.**
- c. Fill-in-the-gaps activities.**
- d. Multiple Choice activities.**
- e. Other: Please, justify:**

.....

Options	N	%
a	02	11.76
b	01	05.88
c	02	11.76
d	00	00.00
ac	04	23.53
bc	01	05.88
cd	04	23.53
bcd	01	05.88
abcd	02	11.76
Total	17	100

Table 5.43: Teachers' Types of Practice in Using Spatial Prepositions

The type of practice that a majority of fourteen teachers uses when teaching spatial prepositions is Fill-in-the-gaps type (option *c*) (82.35%: *c*, 11.76%; a + *c*, 23.53%; b + *c*, 05.88%; *c* + d, 23.53%; b + *c* + d, 05.88%; a + b + *c* + d, 11.76%).

The order of the options based on the number of the teachers who have chosen them is presented in Table 5.44:

Options	N	%
c. Fill-in-the-gaps activities.	14	82.35
a. Students' paragraph production.	08	47.06
d. Multiple Choice activities.	07	41.18
b. Students' sentence production.	05	29.41

Table 5.44: Frequency of Teachers' Methods to Implement Practice of Spatial Prepositions

The Fill-in-the-gaps type of activities is the most used by teachers of Grammar because it represents a guided practice where students' answers are predicted and are controlled; it is easy for students to complete and easy for teachers to correct. Most of the teachers who have chosen option *a* (Students' paragraph production) are second year Grammar teachers (07 out of 08); they have chosen this option because paragraph writing is the method used in second year Grammar practice regardless of the elements being taught.

12. After practising spatial prepositions, your students:

- a. Still have questions about the different meanings of spatial prepositions after you explain them.
- b. They ask for more activities.
- c. They ask for specific rules of the use of spatial prepositions.
- d. Other: Please, justify:

Options	N	%
b	01	05.88
c	11	64.71
ab	02	11.76
ac	02	11.76
bc	01	05.88
Total	17	100

Table 5.45: Teachers' Opinions about Students' Attitudes after Practising Spatial Prepositions

The majority of teachers (14 teachers) have reported that students ask for specific rules after finishing the practice of prepositions (option *c*) (82.35%: c, 64.71%; a + c, 11.76%; b + c, 05.88%).

The order of teachers' opinion concerning the reaction of students after practising spatial prepositions is presented in Table 5.46:

Options	N	%
c	14	82.35
a	04	23.53
b	04	23.53

Table 5.46: Frequency of Teachers' Opinions about Students' Attitudes after Practising Spatial Prepositions

Having students asking for specific rules for the use of spatial prepositions is a sign that teachers are aware of the fact that students' problems and difficulties concerning the use

of spatial prepositions are not solved though teachers provide them with explanation and practice of this type of prepositions. In addition, they have an idea of the students need to always have rules in the Grammar session; students find difficult to understand elements that are not supported by rules.

Section Four: Error Correction

13. You respond to students' errors.

Yes.

No.

The seventeen participant teachers state that they correct their students' errors. This means that they are aware of students' errors and of the importance of correcting them.

14. You respond to students' errors.

a. Always.

b. Very often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Rarely.

Options	N	%
a	07	41.18
b	09	52.94
c	01	05.88
d	00	00.00
Total	17	100

Table 5.47: Frequency of Teachers' Responses to Students' Errors

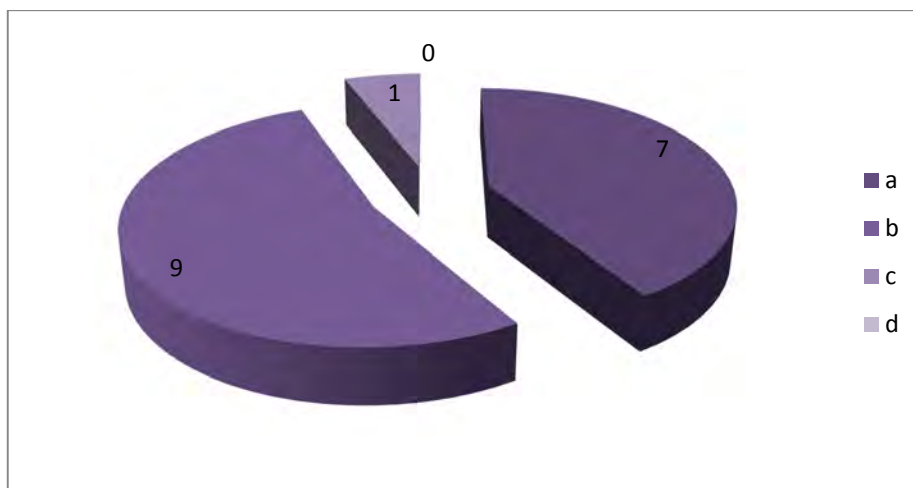


Figure 5.7: Frequency of Teachers' Responses to Students' Errors

More than half of the participant teachers (09 teachers, 52.94%) report that they respond to students' errors very often, and nearly half of the participant teachers say that they always respond to students' errors. Only one teacher has declared that s/he sometimes responds to students' errors (05.88%).

Most teachers correct their students' errors either very often or always. They do so because they consider error correction part of their teaching. No participant teacher neglects the role of error correction.

15. Please, explain why.

When asked to justify the frequency of correcting their students' errors, seven teachers have stated that they always correct them. While four of them (23.53%) have explained that students need to be alerted each time they make an error to avoid making it in the future, one teacher (05.88%) reports that s/he tries to cover as many errors as possible since students' errors provide a good start for teaching. One teacher (05.88%) states that error correction helps in memorisation, and another (05.88%) justifies always correcting students' errors by the fact that s/he is a Grammar teacher because, according to him/her, Grammar teachers are logically always required to correct errors whenever students make them.

Concerning the nine teachers who correct their students' errors very often, there is one teacher (05.88%) who has not given any justification for why s/he responds to students' errors and why s/he does it very often. This may result from the fact that this teacher is not aware of the reason (or reasons) behind responding to the students' errors very often. Four teachers (23.53%) think that correcting students' errors whenever they occur is harmful for students' fluency though students need to have their errors corrected to avoid fossilisation. Two teachers (11.76%) explain their frequency of correcting errors by stating that students learn better from their errors and learn how to self-correct. Two other teachers (11.76%) say that correcting students' errors very often helps students in building their Grammar awareness and consciousness.

One teacher (05.88%) reports that it is sometimes harmful for the students' fluency and self-confidence to have all students' errors corrected. S/he explains that this is a reason why s/he opts for sometimes correcting students' errors.

It is worth noticing that despite the differences in the frequency of correcting students' errors and the reasons behind doing so, all teachers share the idea of the effectiveness of error correction.

16. The element(s) that you correct more is (are):

- a. Meaning.**
- b. Structure.**
- c. Misuse of grammatical elements.**
- d. Other: Please, justify:**

.....

Options	N	%
a	03	17.65
b	01	05.88
c	05	29.41

ab	01	05.88
bc	02	11.76
abc	05	29.41
Total	17	100

Table 5.48: The Elements that Teachers Deal with when Responding to Students’

Errors

Table 5.48 shows that a majority of twelve teachers correct the misuse of grammatical elements as one of the most important elements they correct in the Grammar session, which represents 70.59% of participant teachers (c, 29.41%; b + c, 11.76%; a + b + c, 29.41%). This shows that these teachers emphasise form over meaning as they possibly think that the primary concern of Grammar is structure.

Nine teachers (52.94%) have included meaning as the elements they focus on when correcting students’ errors and nine others have included structure. Structure and meaning are reported as the focus of teachers’ correction, separately from other elements or in combination with them.

Five teachers (29.51%) have stated that they correct the three elements with the same level of priority when correcting the students’ errors in the Grammar session.

The teachers’ choices are ordered in Table 5.49 based on the number of teachers who have included these options:

Options	N	%
c. Misuse of grammatical elements.	12	70.59
a. Structure.	09	52.94
b. Meaning.	09	52.94

Table 5.49: Frequency of the Kinds of Errors Teachers Correct

The answers provided by the participant teachers indicate that although half of the teachers give attention to correcting the errors related to meaning in the Grammar session, the majority of teachers give more importance to correcting errors related to form (misuse of grammatical elements and/or misusing the structure).

17. You correct:

- a. All the errors found.
- b. A specific kind of errors depending on the lesson you are teaching.

Options	N	%
a	11	64.71
b	06	35.29
Total	17	100

Table 5.50: Types of Teachers' Error Correction

Table 5.50 shows that almost two thirds of the participant teachers prefer to correct all the errors of the students without referring to a specific lesson or type of errors to focus on in their correction. Only six participant teachers correct a specific kind of error in relation to the lesson they are teaching. This type of correction focuses on a specific type of errors in order to preserve students' concentration. However, the use of this type of correction is based on the complexity of the lesson and students' need to have their errors highlighted and corrected.

18. When correcting students' errors, how do you proceed?

- a. Correcting all the errors yourself for every student.
- b. Making classroom discussion to correct the most common errors.
- c. Making peer correction.
- d. Asking the students to correct themselves.
- f. Other: Please, justify:

.....

Options	N	%
a	03	17.65
b	05	29.41
c	01	05.88
d	01	05.88
bd	02	11.76
bc	03	17.65

cd	01	05.88
bcd	01	05.88
Total	17	100

Table 5.51: Teachers' Methods in Correcting Students' Mistakes

Teachers' answers reveal that almost two thirds of the teachers use classroom discussion when correcting their students' errors (\underline{b} , 29.41%; $\underline{b} + c$, 17.65%; $\underline{b} + d$, 11.76%; $\underline{b} + c + d$, 05.88%). Only three teachers (17.65%) correct the errors of every student themselves. This reveals that teachers are involved in the process of correction to a considerable extent.

The options and their order according to the teachers' choices are presented in Table 5.52:

Options	N	%
b. Making classroom discussion to correct the most common errors.	11	64.71
c. Making peer correction.	06	35.29
d. Asking the students to correct themselves.	05	29.41
a. Correcting all the errors yourself for every student.	03	17.65

Table 5.52: Frequency of Teachers Use of Specific Methods in Correcting Students' Mistakes

It is clear that a great majority of participant teachers (03 participant teachers choosing option *a*, and 11 choosing option *b*) insists on having a part in the error correction process. This teacher-centred error correction can be seen in implementing classroom discussion to correct most common errors, and the teacher correcting all the errors himself/herself for every student.

19. If “correcting all the errors yourself for every student” and/or “making classroom discussion to correct the most common errors”, you:

- a. Spot the error, identify its type, and give the correction.**
- b. Spot the error, identify its type, and let the students think of the correction.**

c. Spot the error, let students think of its type and its correction, and then check with them. □

The answers to this question will show the degree of involvement of the teachers in the process of correction that participant teachers make use of with students.

A majority made up of fourteen teachers (82.35%) has chosen option *a* and/or option *b* as answers to the previous question. The answers to Question 19 are compiled in Table 5.53.

Options	N	%
a	02	14.28
b	03	21.43
c	06	42.86
bc	03	21.43
Total	14	100

Table 5.53: The Methods Used by Teachers for every Student’s Correction and/or Class Discussion

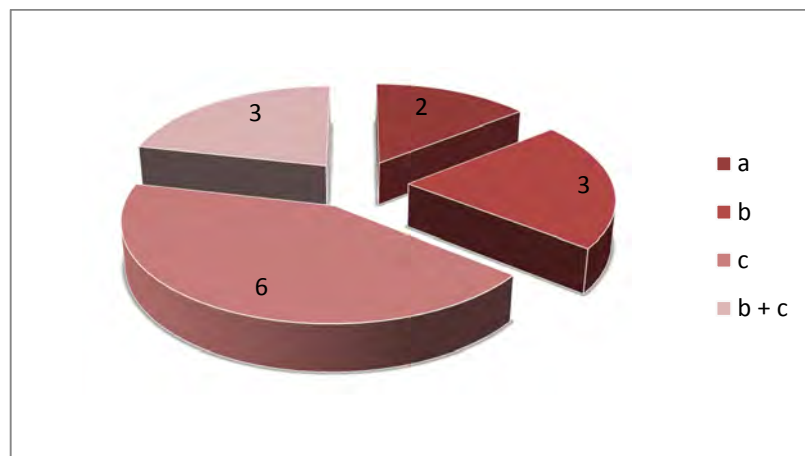


Figure 5.8: The Methods Used by Teachers for Individualised Correction and/or Class Discussion

The answers presented in Table 5.53 show that nine teachers, who represent almost two thirds of the teachers concerned with answering this question, prefer to spot the error, let students think of its type and its correction, and then check with them (64.29%: c, 42.86%; b + c, 21.43%).

The order of option according to the number of teachers who include them in their choices is given in Table 5.54:

Options	N	%
c. Spot the error, let the student think of its type and its correction, and then check with them.	09	64.29
b. Spot the error, identify its type, and let the student think of the correction.	06	42.86
a. Spot the error, identify its type and give the correction.	02	14.29

Table 5.54: Frequency of the Methods Used by Teachers for Individualised Correction and/or Class Discussion

The mostly chosen option is the one where the teachers help and guide students and make them as autonomous as possible compared to the two other options. The majority of teachers who answered this question avoid making students totally dependent on them, and this is reflected in the small number of teachers who have chosen option *a* (Spot the error, identify its type and give the correction).

20. If “making peer correction” and/or “asking students to self-correct”, you:

- a. Let the student/the student’s peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the correction and the explanation with others.**
- b. Let the student/the student’s peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the explanation with others.**
- c. Let the student/the student’s peer spot the error, identify its type, its correction and its explanation.**

This question seeks data concerning the teachers who use peer correction and/or ask students to self-correct, and the extent to which they make students dependent on them and on themselves in the process of error correction.

The number of teachers who have opted for making peer correction and/or ask students to self-correct is nine. Their answers to this question are shown in Table 5.55:

Options	N	%
a	01	11.11
b	03	33.33
c	02	22.22
ab	03	33.33
Total	09	100

Table 5.55: The Methods Used by Teachers for Peer Correction and/or Self-correct

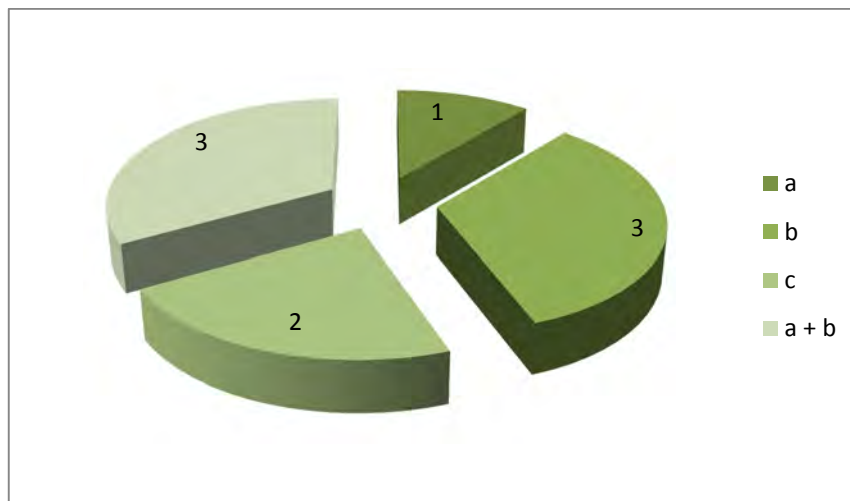


Figure 5.9: The Methods Used by Teachers for Peer Correction and/or Self-correct

A majority of six teachers among those who prefer to make students have peer correction or self-correction prefer to let the student/the student's peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the explanation with others (option *b*) (66.67%: *b*: 33.33%, a + *b*: 33.33%).

The order of the options as they were chosen by teachers is summarised in Table 5.55:

Options	N	%
b. Let the student/the student's peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the explanation with others.	06	66.67
a. Let the student/the student's peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the correction and the explanation with others.	04	44.44
c. Let the student/the student's peer spot the error, identify its type, its correction and its explanation.	02	22.22

Table 5.56: Frequency of the Methods Used by Teachers for Peer Correction and/or Self-correct

According to the answers to this question, participant teachers who have opted for peer correction and/or asking students to correct themselves have adopted learner-centred error correction. These teachers are aware of the role autonomy plays in learning, and they encourage their students to become independent.

Section Five: Further Suggestions

21. Please, add any further comment or suggestion.

No participant teacher provided any comment or suggestion.

5.3.3. Interpretations of the Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire

The answers and the reasons given by the teachers indicate that all the teachers except one acknowledge the difficulty of teaching prepositions, which supports the idea stated at the beginning concerning the difficulty of teaching and learning prepositions in general. The reasons given by teachers are greatly similar to the reasons presented in the literature survey provided to explain the difficulty of teaching/learning prepositions naming the diversity of the meanings and uses of prepositions, the differences between using prepositions in Arabic and in English and the overlapping uses of the different prepositions.

Awareness of the difficulty of teaching/learning preposition does not seem to be affected by the experience of the participant teachers (Question 01 and Question 03) since all the teachers but one, whether with one year experience or nine years, expressed and explained this difficulty.

When comparing the teachers' answers in both Question 05 and Question 09, it can be noticed that the method(s) used by the majority of the participant teachers matches up when teaching prepositions and when teaching spatial prepositions. When teaching prepositions, teachers prefer to use giving a list of the most common prepositions with examples (option *a*) and practising the different uses and meanings through activities (option *d*); when teaching

spatial prepositions, they prefer to provide a context for each use of each spatial preposition (option *b*).

Teachers' answers to Question 06 and Question 04 entail that the reasons behind making teaching prepositions a difficult task are almost the same reasons that make using prepositions a difficult activity for students. Teachers are aware of the main reason behind both the difficulty of teaching prepositions (Question 04) and behind the problems students face when learning spatial prepositions (Question 07), which are the numerous meanings of each preposition and of each spatial preposition in addition to the overlapping meanings of different prepositions and spatial prepositions. Nevertheless, only two teachers (11.76%) use the method of explaining the different meanings and uses of each preposition with their examples to facilitate their teaching (Question 05). Moreover, the least chosen method is drawing students' attention to the relationship between the different meanings of each spatial preposition, which could help in simplifying and structuring the use of spatial prepositions.

The teachers' choice of the most problematic type(s) of prepositions (Question 07) supports the assumption set at the beginning concerning the difficulty of spatial prepositions for the students.

Though teachers are aware of the importance of the effect of the context on using the appropriate spatial preposition and on practice in teaching/learning them as reflected in their answers of Question 09, the majority of them prefer the Fill-in-the-Gaps activities to practise spatial preposition (Question 11), which represents a contradiction. This contradiction can be explained by the easiness of implementing and correcting this type of activities.

All the participant teachers have opted at least for one of the options concerning students' negative attitudes at the end of the explanation and practice of spatial prepositions (Question 12). All participant teachers report that their students do not find solutions for their difficulties in using spatial prepositions even after practising them, which indicates the

ineffectiveness of the methods teachers are using to present, explain and practise spatial prepositions.

The majority of teachers correct all the errors for the students (Question 17) using whether teacher's correction and/or classroom discussion (Question 18). This may lead students to rely on the teachers more than they should and not to make the necessary efforts for self-correction or self-learning.

5.4. Overall Analysis

Both students and teachers agree on the difficulty of teaching/learning prepositions, and mainly spatial prepositions. Teachers and students think of the same reason behind this difficulty, which is the close relationship of the numerous meanings and uses of each preposition. However, students consider the lack of practice as another important reason for this difficulty while teachers think that the amount of practice is not behind the difficulty of teaching and learning prepositions.

Though teachers and students regard prepositions of place as one among the most difficult prepositions, teachers are not aware of the difficulty students face when using prepositions of movement. This is reflected in the students' choice of this type of prepositions as the most difficult type, while teachers say it is the least difficult type for students. The participant teachers and students have a common opinion about the most problematic spatial prepositions for students (*on, in, at, over*); however, teachers are not conscious of other spatial prepositions, such as *above, under* and *across* that are suggested by students as challenging ones.

The method of presenting spatial prepositions that teachers use does not correspond to what students prefer and what they need. Students think that this method should be based on presenting and structuring the different meanings and uses of each preposition and the relationship between them. Nonetheless, in spite of the agreement that students and teachers

have about the most preferable type of practice and the most used one, which is Fill-in-the-Gaps activities, this practice is not consistent with what teachers and students state as the practice that learners need.

Students and teachers have the same opinion concerning students' negative reaction after presenting and practising spatial prepositions. However, teachers are not totally aware of the specific attitude students have since teachers think the final attitude of their students is looking for a specific rule to use spatial prepositions. On the other hand, the majority of students feel that they need more activities to practise the use of spatial prepositions.

Most participant students find using pictures when learning spatial prepositions enjoyable and helpful for understanding this type of prepositions. Nevertheless, participant teachers have not included them as the material that can be used in the teaching/learning process of this type of prepositions though they can be implemented as support in the presentation and/or the practice stage.

With regard to error correction, the vast majority of participant students like all their errors to be always corrected and do not consider it harmful for them or for their self-confidence. This stands in contrast with what some participant teachers think as they have reported error correction might negatively affect students' self-confidence.

Teachers and students do not have the same view about the importance given to meaning while correcting errors. Students state that meaning is the least corrected aspect; teachers insist that it is corrected as frequently as structure. To avoid such a contradiction, teachers would better inform students that correction in the Grammar session focuses on all the aspects of language and alert them explicitly whenever the errors and their correction affect the meaning.

Teachers' methods of correction are consistent with what students prefer, especially concerning directness of the correction. However, they are not consistent with what students

need, namely to involve the students in identifying, explaining and correcting their errors so that they learn self-correction.

Conclusion

The Students' Questionnaire reveals that students find learning prepositions difficult because they cannot distinguish between the use of the different prepositions and between the different meanings of the same preposition. Moreover, the results show that students find that the most problematic prepositions are those of movement and place, spatial prepositions. For this reason, students explained that they preferred teachers to teach spatial prepositions through presenting the meanings of each preposition. As for error correction, the results of the Students' Questionnaire show that students like all their errors to be corrected in order to avoid making the same errors again.

Similarly, the results of the Teachers' Questionnaire reveal that teachers of Grammar are aware of the difficulty that students encounter when learning prepositions. The results also show that teachers believe that error correction is useful in helping students use spatial prepositions appropriately, regardless of the type of error correction, though they see it as a possible hindrance for students' self-confidence. However, very few teachers provide students with an explanation of the different meanings of prepositions and the relationship between them in spite of the fact that the majority of teachers acknowledge the ineffectiveness of other methods such as dictionary use, and making learning prepositions part of learning the foreign language.

Chapter Six

Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

Introduction

6.1. Teaching/Learning Spatial Prepositions

6.2. Using Semantics of Spatial Prepositions

6.3. Using Context of Spatial Prepositions

6.4. Using Error Correction of Spatial Prepositions

Conclusion

Introduction

Based on the results and findings gathered from the two means of research, the experimental work and the Students and Teachers' Questionnaires, there is a number of pedagogical implications and recommendations that can be extracted. They are related to prepositions in general and spatial prepositions in particular in different ways. Some of the points to be highlighted are related to providing solutions to the difficulty of teaching/learning spatial prepositions; other points concern using the semantics of spatial prepositions, while some others are related to using context of spatial prepositions, and using error correction.

6.1. Teaching/Learning Spatial Prepositions

The results obtained in the experimental work as well as the answers in the Students' Questionnaire and the Teachers' Questionnaire assert the difficulty of teaching and learning prepositions in general, and spatial prepositions in particular. To overcome this difficulty, it is recommended to promote teaching and learning spatial prepositions. Teachers should make this process structured and organised using the polysemous organisation of the different meanings and uses of spatial prepositions, which is the method suggested by Taylor and Evans (2003). In this method, all the meanings of a spatial preposition are presented in the form of extended sub meanings derived from the prototypical meaning. Using this method, learning the use of spatial prepositions would be more organised. Moreover, teachers need to highlight the difference between students' mother tongue and English when using spatial prepositions in order to make the process of teaching/learning spatial prepositions more effective. This could be achieved through presenting some of the example where their uses are not the same, such as... Starting from these examples, students may gradually get convinced that transfer would not help in using spatial prepositions because languages do not use them similarly. Besides, teachers should explain how the same scene

can be described differently in different languages. Teachers should help students see that these differences are due to differences in culture and differences in the way different speaking communities approach the physical world.

Another recommendation relates to the form and spelling of spatial prepositions. Teachers of grammar should clearly write the spatial prepositions on the board starting from the first year so that their form and spelling are obvious to students. In addition, students' attention should be drawn to the fact that spatial prepositions have no other form but the written ones. Some examples can be given to explain this point, such as using *infront of/in face of* instead of *in front of*, *above of/above from* instead of *above*, *near of/near from* instead of *near to*, *at/in/from/by the right/left of* instead of *to/on the right/left of*. Providing students with the exact form and spelling of spatial prepositions right from the first year will enable the teachers to clearly introduce spatial prepositions, and to make sure that all the students know how to write them.

It is also recommended that the differences between close forms to the spatial prepositions should be highlighted. This means that Grammar teachers should draw students' attention to the dissimilarities between words that are spatial prepositions and words that belong to other parts of speech, such as the difference between *across* (spatial preposition) and *cross* (verb), *along* (spatial preposition) and *long* (adjective), *next to* (spatial preposition) and *next* (adjective), *beside* (spatial preposition) and *besides* (conjunction, preposition). Once students know the differences between forms that are spatial prepositions and those that are not, it will be easier for the teacher to introduce spatial prepositions, and students will avoid mixing them up with close forms.

Time constrain is very significant in the teaching/learning of spatial prepositions. Presenting spatial prepositions in a structured and organised way is time consuming, and trying to apply this method in one academic year will be too ambitious, if not impossible to

achieve. Therefore, it is recommended that this method should be started in the first year of teaching English at university in order to overcome any hindrance caused by the constrain of time. When teachers of Grammar introduce spatial prepositions in a structured and organised way in the first year, they will help students concentrate more on the characteristics of each spatial preposition and the organisation of these characteristics, in addition to avoiding fossilisation.

6.2. Using Semantics of Spatial Prepositions

Students and teachers agreed on the following spatial prepositions to be the most problematic for students: *on, in, at, over, across* and *above*. Most students' errors are caused by confusing the use of the different meanings of the different spatial prepositions, especially the close meanings.

As a means to overcome the problems that students face when using spatial prepositions, it is recommended that teachers should present the different meanings and uses of each spatial preposition (Appendix V). These meanings should not simply be introduced and presented to students, but teachers need to explain how the different meanings and uses of each spatial preposition are related and organised in a polysymous way. When presented in such a way, student will not fail to see distinctively the different uses and the meanings of each spatial preposition, and will neither have difficulties using them nor confuse their uses.

Moreover, we recommend that the notions of the TR (subject of the spatial preposition) and LM (object of the spatial preposition) should be introduced and their characteristics explained. It is only after the notions of the TR and the LM are clearly defined and their characteristics are explained that students will be able to identify and understand the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition effectively.

When using the spatial prepositions *in* and *at*, the major problems are related to confusing their uses, and using one spatial preposition instead of the other. Teachers are advised to focus, when explaining both spatial prepositions, on the differences between them. The spatial preposition *in* is generally used when the LM is an enclosed entity or perceived as so; on the other hand, the spatial preposition *at* is frequently used when the LM is a point or perceived as so. Consequently, when corners are referred to as enclosed spaces, like the corners of houses or rooms, the spatial preposition *in* should be used. However, if the corners are perceived as points, like the corners of roads or streets, then the spatial preposition *at* should be used.

It is also advisable to bring to light the differences between the spatial prepositions that share the verticality characteristic (*on*, *above*, and *over*) so that students will not mix their uses up. When using the spatial preposition *on*, the majority of students' errors are caused by using the spatial prepositions *in* or *above* instead. Teachers should clearly explain that using the spatial preposition *in* instead of the spatial preposition *on* is caused by the interference of the students' mother tongue, and that the use of these two spatial prepositions in English is different. Students have to understand that while using the spatial preposition *in*, the TR is enclosed by the LM; however, the use of the spatial preposition *on* implies that the TR is higher than the LM and has contact with it. Similarly, teachers should focus on the dissimilarity between using the spatial prepositions *on* and *above*, which can be explained in terms of presence and absence of contact between the TR and the LM. Though the two spatial prepositions *on* and *above* have in common the idea that the TR is higher than the LM, they are different in the sense that, while the spatial preposition *on* refers to the presence of total contact between the TR and the LM, the spatial preposition *above* means that there is no possible contact between them. Additionally, when using the spatial preposition *over*, the main errors are caused by the use of the spatial prepositions *on*, *in*, and *above* instead. It

is recommended that teachers should explain the difference between the use of the spatial preposition *over* and the spatial prepositions *on*. Despite the fact that both spatial prepositions describe a situation where the TR is higher than the LM, the spatial preposition *over* is used when there is a possible contact while the spatial preposition *on* refers to a total contact. Students' erroneous uses of *in* and *above* instead of *over* are caused by the ignorance of the differences between the spatial prepositions *on* and *over* in some contexts since the spatial preposition *on* itself is erroneously replaced by the spatial prepositions *in* and *above*. Cases where these spatial prepositions can be used interchangeably should also be explained, especially in the case of the spatial prepositions *over* and *above* (Appendix V).

Students are confused between using the close spatial prepositions *under* and *below*, which is the main reason of the mistaken uses of both. Thus, teachers are recommended to focus on the differences between them, and explain when both can be used interchangeably. Despite the fact that the spatial prepositions *under* and *below* describe a scene where the TR is lower than the LM, the difference between them lies in the fact that while the spatial preposition *under* refers to a possible contact between the TR and the LM, the spatial preposition *below* means that there is no possible contact between them. Nevertheless, the spatial prepositions *under* and *below* can be used interchangeably when focus is only on the feature of being lower than, and the presence or absence of the notion of contact is not important.

Teachers are required to present and explain the meanings of the spatial prepositions *along* and *across* because they do not exist in the students' mother tongue. This could be done through providing students with the use and characteristics of each of these spatial prepositions, and giving enough examples and practice to clarify their uses.

Furthermore, it is advisable that teachers explain the differences between the close spatial prepositions *across*, *in front of* and *opposite to/from*, and focus on their similarities.

The spatial preposition *across* refers to the situation where the TR is moving from one side of the LM to another; this causes the TR to form a (+) with the LM. For example, ‘You can find a pharmacy open at this time of the night *across* the street’. The spatial preposition *in front of*, on the other hand, refers to the scene in which the TR is supposedly located at some place near the front or face of the LM, which is thought of as having a front and a back; for instance, ‘The shoe store you are looking for is just *in front of* the bakery’. Finally, the spatial preposition *opposite to/from* is used in a situation where the TR is directly facing the LM which is on the other side, as in ‘Let’s meet this afternoon *opposite to* the park’. These differences between the spatial prepositions *across*, *in front of*, and *opposite to/from* should be highlighted and the characteristics of each of them should be clear to the students because the similarities that exist between them may confuse the students and cause misusing them.

Using the spatial preposition *from* instead of *through* is a wrong substitution that students use because these two spatial prepositions are equivalent in some contexts in the students’ mother tongue. Teachers are, therefore, recommended to distinguish the uses and meanings of these two spatial prepositions in the two languages and that they are not interchangeable using examples and practices.

The differences between *near/close to*, *next to* and *beside* should be highlighted and explained using examples. It is recommended that teachers should explain that the spatial prepositions *near/close to* refer to an ‘all-side proximity’. This means that the spatial prepositions *near/close to* are used to describe a situation where the TR is not far from the LM and is located to any of its sides, horizontal and vertical, as in ‘The new Sea Museum is *near/close to* the old docks’. Teachers should also explain the meaning of ‘directly at the side’ expressed by the use of the spatial preposition *next to*, which means that the TR is directly situated at the side of the LM; for example, ‘Who was the woman sitting *next to* you on the bench at the park?’. Similarly, it is also required that the teachers explain that the

spatial preposition *beside* has the meaning of ‘static closeness with no contact’; it means that the TR is static and close to the LM in addition to the absence of contact between them; for instance, ‘There was a strange man standing *beside* your car this morning’. In addition to that, teachers are advised to clarify the difference between *beside* and *besides* because they are often wrongly used interchangeably. While *Beside* is a spatial preposition, *besides* is either a preposition or a conjunctive adverb that means ‘in addition to’, as in ‘*Besides* football, Paul plays tennis every weekend’. Teacher should explain this point using examples and focus on the different structures of the sentences these elements are used in.

The majority of students’ problems when using the spatial prepositions *to/on the right/left of* are caused by using the spatial prepositions *in, from, at, or by* to substitute for the use of *to/on*, or without using any preposition but simply ‘*the right/left of*’. To avoid causing students get confused with the use of these spatial prepositions, teachers can remind the students that their use depends on the side and the angle of description, and that the shoulders of the human body are always the reference.

Teachers need to be aware of the problem the students face when using the spatial preposition *to*. Students tend to combine the spatial preposition *to* with the verb *to enter* in phrases like ‘*enter to my room*’. Teachers should explain that this is an erroneous use of the spatial preposition *to* that is due to students being affected by the Arabic version of *to enter*, which is '*dZy/hə*' (to enter to).

To help the students use the spatial preposition *between*, teachers are required to explain the use of the LM whose wrong use causes students misuse of the spatial preposition *between*. Students should understand how the LM of the spatial preposition *between* does not refer to separate entities using examples. With the spatial preposition *between*, the LM is considered one entity though it refers to two or more items seen as a group or a mass.

6.3. Using Context of Spatial Prepositions

Teachers and students assume that acquiring the use of spatial prepositions is difficult. The argument they provide for such assumption is that, unlike other elements of grammar, the use of prepositions in general is not governed by rules. The different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition are strongly affected by the context in which that spatial preposition is used. For this reason, teaching spatial preposition in context is very beneficial in clarifying their meanings.

Besides, when teaching spatial prepositions, it is recommended to use a rich and detailed context because it is helpful in both the presentation and the practice stages. In the presentation phase, providing the context needed for teaching spatial prepositions can be achieved through using the appropriate media. The appropriate media, such as pictures and drawings, should help teachers explain the uses and meanings of spatial prepositions since they can be used as a visual support to memorisation and clarification of the detailed differences. In the practice phase, teachers should include the context through paragraph writing type of activities because it gives the students the opportunity to create an image of an imaginary scene or to portray a scene from the physical world. They should also make less use of the fill-in-the-gaps type of activities because it does not consist of sufficient context for the practice of spatial prepositions. Though it is the most preferable type of practice of spatial prepositions for students and the most widely used by teachers, fill-in-the-gaps type of practice has proven to be ineffective in acquiring the various meanings and uses of each spatial preposition.

Spatial prepositions are used to identify the position and/or movement of an entity or entities in relation to a reference point in the physical world. Therefore, the descriptive paragraph, which is the description of the physical world, is the most appropriate practice of spatial prepositions. Consequently, teachers are required to implement descriptive paragraph

writing in teaching and practising spatial prepositions because it provides a wider and detailed context for the uses and meanings of spatial prepositions.

Finally, teachers should remind the students of the main characteristics of the spatial descriptive paragraph. In their productions, students do not follow any organised pattern. This made it more difficult for the students to use spatial prepositions and write their productions. Consequently, it is advisable that teachers explain that students will be successful in using spatial prepositions in a spatial descriptive paragraph by following an organised pattern – from left to right or from right to left, from close to far or from far to close.

6.4. Using Error Correction of Spatial Prepositions

Using error correction in the Grammar session is considered important for students. In fact, the majority of students want all their errors to be always corrected in the Grammar class, and almost all of them do not find correcting their errors disturbing to them or hindering their self-confidence. Moreover, all the teachers of Grammar correct their students' errors because they consider it one of the tasks to do in the Grammar class. In addition, students support error correction of spatial prepositions regardless its form.

Although error correction alone as a method of teaching has not proven to be really effective, especially when teaching spatial prepositions, it is advisable to use the students' errors and their correction as a warm-up for the lesson or as examples to provide while explaining the uses and meanings of spatial prepositions.

Teachers of Grammar should give importance to correcting grammatical errors that affect both structure and meaning. As a result, teachers are required to correct students' errors related to spatial prepositions because they are related to both structure and meaning. This could be achieved through drawing students' attention to the discrepancies between the uses and meanings of spatial prepositions, to the relationships resulting from using spatial

prepositions, and to how the erroneous use of any of these aspects could affect negatively the other.

In general, the most preferable type of error correction for students is the direct one; that is, the correction made by the teacher. Teachers should provide clear and explicit error correction of students' errors when practising and using spatial prepositions. They should have precise and comprehensive knowledge of the uses and meanings of spatial prepositions so that they can deal with students' errors whenever they occur, and answer all students' questions about their errors' correction. Furthermore, teachers have to provide simplified and overt feedback about students' errors to help students avoid making the same errors again. It is worth mentioning that teachers should pay attention to what they do and say as part of error correction because students prefer to have their errors corrected by their teachers because they trust them in doing so.

Nevertheless, students report that they like the combination of methods and using more than one method when correcting their errors about the uses and meanings of spatial prepositions. Consequently, teachers should combine two or more methods of error correction in order to deal with errors related to spatial prepositions more effectively. The reason is that there are many uses and meanings of spatial prepositions, and they cannot all be dealt with in the same way.

Teachers are advised to check if the students, those who like their errors to be corrected by the teacher, prefer the correction of their errors related to the use of spatial prepositions to be exclusively done by the teacher or like better to be involved in correcting their own errors concerning spatial prepositions at some point and to some extent. By identifying to whom their correction of errors pertaining to the use of spatial prepositions, teachers will have a clear idea about the kind, the appropriate time, and the amount of intervention they will have to implement in the process of error correction.

Even among students who prefer to self-correct their errors related to spatial prepositions or to be corrected by a peer, it is accepted that teachers play a part in the error correction process. Therefore, teachers should be attentive to explicit or implicit signs from the students requesting their teachers to intervene with error correction. The teachers' task, then, would be providing a final correction or explanation about the uses and meanings of spatial prepositions.

Conclusion

The pedagogical implications and recommendations that spring from the results obtained through the experiment, the Students' Questionnaire and the Teachers' Questionnaire and founded on a solid theoretical background, describe some steps to overcome the difficulty both teachers and learners face when teaching and learning spatial prepositions. The process of acquiring English spatial prepositions is hindered by many reasons such as negative transfer, ignorance of the meanings of each spatial preposition, the relationships between them and with the meanings of other spatial prepositions, as well as the inadequacy of some teaching methods and techniques. Additionally, all seems to confirm that presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions is of supreme importance in acquiring this type of prepositions. Nevertheless, providing learners with an explanation of the various meanings and how these meanings are related to each other and to others of different spatial prepositions would not be effective enough unless these meanings are given in appropriate contexts and are combined with different types of error correction. These pedagogical implications and recommendations are expected to be helpful in improving the acquisition of spatial prepositions and, ultimately, better learners' use of English as foreign language for the sake of communication.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

Acquiring and using spatial prepositions is a difficult task for learners. This difficulty lies in the fact that, unlike other grammatical elements, spatial prepositions have no rules to govern their use. Moreover, their great number and the variety of their meanings render the acquisition of this type of prepositions even more difficult. These two reasons do not only make it difficult for students to use spatial prepositions, but they also make the task difficult for teachers to teach them.

This research aims at investigating the effects of error correction on improving learners' productions when using spatial prepositions and, on the other hand, the effects of error correction and presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions on the acquisition of this type of prepositions. In this research, three questions were posed: What would the effects of presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions be on the acquisition of this type of prepositions? To what extent would using error correction help students use spatial prepositions more appropriately? To what extent would the combination between presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions and error correction help students acquire the use of this type of prepositions? Therefore, we put forward three hypotheses: first, if teachers present the semantics of spatial prepositions when teaching them, students will better their performance when using this type of prepositions; second, if teachers use error correction methods when teaching spatial prepositions, students will use them more appropriately; and third, if teachers combine both methods – presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions and error correction – when teaching spatial prepositions, students will improve their use of this type of prepositions.

In order to answer the research questions and to check the validity of the hypotheses, two means of investigation have been used, an experiment and two questionnaires, one for Second Year students of English and one for the Teachers of Grammar. The experiment that

was carried out on a sample of 119 Second Year students of English at the University “Des Frères Mentouri”, Constantine, has shown that using error correction is not effective in helping students use spatial prepositions more appropriately when writing a spatial descriptive paragraph, and that presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions has a limited effect on the acquisition of spatial prepositions because it provides purely theoretical explanations of the meanings of each spatial preposition. The most significant outcome of the experiment is that the combination of error correction and presenting the semantics of spatial prepositions is effective in the acquisition of this type of prepositions. The results obtained from both the Students’ Questionnaire and the Teachers’ Questionnaire show that teaching/learning spatial prepositions is difficult, that the best way to better use this type of prepositions is to deal with the meanings of each spatial preposition, in addition to focusing on the relationship between these meanings and the relations they may have with the meanings of other spatial prepositions.

In the light of the results and findings of the experiment and the questionnaires, a set of pedagogical implications and recommendations could be set. They refer to teaching/learning spatial prepositions, the use of the semantics of spatial prepositions by presenting and explaining their meanings and using appropriate means, the use of the context of spatial prepositions, and the use of error correction of spatial prepositions to help learners make fewer errors when using spatial prepositions. They also deal with the methods to improve the implementation and acquisition of spatial prepositions by presenting and explaining their meanings in adequate contexts and using appropriate means.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: The Pre-test

APPENDIX II: The Post-test

APPENDIX III: The Students' Questionnaire

APPENDIX IV: The Teachers' Questionnaire

APPENDIX V: Model Lesson

APPENDIX I

The Pre-test

Paragraph 1

Imagine the room in the picture is yours. Describe this room in an organised way identifying the position of all the elements in it.

Bed	Central unit of the computer
Pillow	Telephone
Poster	Decoration lights
Window	Computer screen
Curtain	Shelves
Nightstand	Computer loud speakers
Night light	Small light bulbs
Plants	Encyclopaedias
Carpet	Books
Desk	Boxes
Waste basket	Painting
Chair	

Paragraph 2

Imagine this is a picture of your town. Describe to a visitor how he can go from the point of departure indicated in the picture (Hotel) to the train station, providing enough details about the location of the buildings he has to pass by.

APPENDIX II

The Post-test

Paragraph 1

Imagine the room in the picture is yours. Describe this room in an organised way identifying the position of all the elements in it.

Bed	Central unit of the computer
Pillow	Computer screen
Window	Shelves
Curtain	Encyclopaedias
Nightstand	Books
Night light	Wardrobe
Flowers	Drawer(s)
Carpet	Vase/Decoration jar
Desk	Plastic dolls
Chair	Coat rack/coat holder
Plush	Cartoon character
Pen holder	

Paragraph 2

Imagine this is a picture of your town. Describe to a visitor how he can go from the point of departure indicated in the picture (Jamison Hotel) to the public library, providing enough details about the location of the buildings he has to pass by.

APPENDIX III

The Students' Questionnaire

Dear student,

The present questionnaire is a part of a research aiming at studying the effects of emphasising the semantics and use of English spatial prepositions while correcting students' errors in their written production on the acquisition of this type of prepositions.

Please, tick (✓) the box corresponding to your answers or order statements.

May I thank you in advance for your contribution.

Ms. ATHMANI A.

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Section One: Learning Prepositions

1. Learning prepositions is difficult.

Yes

No

2. Please, explain why.

.....

3. You prefer your teacher to teach you prepositions through:

a. Giving a list of the most common prepositions with examples.

b. Asking you to check their meanings in the dictionary.

c. Presenting the different meanings and uses of each preposition with examples.

d. Practising the different uses of prepositions through activities.

e. Other: Please, justify:

.....

4. You face problems in using prepositions because of:

a. The diversity of the meanings of every preposition.

b. The difference between the use of prepositions in Arabic and English.

c. Using a preposition instead of another one.

d. Lack of Practice.

e. Other: Please, justify:

.....

5. The type(s) of preposition that cause(s) you problems most is (are):

- a. Time.
- b. Place.
- c. Movement.
- d. Other: Please, justify:

.....

6. If “place and/or movement”, which are referred to as spatial prepositions, please illustrate with examples of the most difficult ones.

.....

Section Two: Practising the Use of Spatial Prepositions

7. You prefer your teacher to teach you spatial prepositions through:

- a. Presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition.
- b. Providing a context for each use of each spatial preposition.
- c. Drawing your attention to the relation between the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition.
- d. Explaining that spatial prepositions are to be learnt as a part of culture.
- e. Using your errors to explain the use of spatial prepositions.
- f. Drawing your attentions, whenever you misuse spatial prepositions, to the correct answer without explanation.
- g. Focusing on practice rather than explanation.

h. Asking you to use your dictionaries to check the different meanings of spatial prepositions.

i. Other: Please, justify:

.....

8. When practising the use of spatial prepositions, you prefer to use:

a. Fill-in-the-Gaps activities.

b. Multiple Choice activities.

c. Paragraph writing activities.

d. Sentence writing activities.

e. Checking dictionaries for their meanings and uses.

f. Other: Please, justify:

.....

9. After practising spatial prepositions, you feel that you:

a. Still have question(s) about the different meanings and uses of spatial prepositions.

b. Need to ask for more activities.

c. Need to ask for specific rules of the use of these prepositions.

d. Other: Please, justify:

.....

10. Using pictures as a guide for practising spatial prepositions is interesting.

Yes

No

11. Please, explain why.

.....

Section Three: Error Correction

12. Your errors in grammar are corrected.

Yes

No

13. Your errors are corrected:

a. Always.

b. Very often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Rarely.

14. You like your errors to be corrected.

Yes

No

15. Please, explain why.

.....

.....

.....

16. The element(s) that is (are) corrected more is (are):

- a. Meaning.
- b. Structure.
- c. Misusing grammatical elements.
- d. Other: Please, justify:

.....

17. You prefer to have corrected:

- a. All the errors.
- b. A specific kind of errors depending on the lesson.

18. You prefer having errors corrected by:

- a. The teacher.
- b. Classroom discussion.
- c. Peer correction: classmates correcting each other's mistakes.
- d. Self-correction: correcting your own mistakes.

19. If "the teacher" or "classroom discussion", you prefer the teacher to:

- a. Spot the error, identify its type and give you the correction.
- b. Spot the error, identify its type, and let you think of the correction then check with you.
- c. Spot the error, let you think of its type and its correction then check with you.

20. If “peer correction” or “self-correction”, you prefer that:

- a. You/your peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the correction and the explanation with others.
- b. You/your peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the explanation with others.
- c. You/your peer spot the error, identify its type, its correction and its explanation.

Section Four: Further Suggestions

21. Please, add any further comment or suggestion.

.....

.....

.....

APPENDIX IV

The Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

This questionnaire is a part of a research that aims at investigating the teaching/learning of prepositions and in particular spatial prepositions using semantics and use of spatial prepositions. It also aims at checking whether error correction affects teaching/ learning spatial prepositions.

Please tick (✓) the appropriate box or write full statement whenever required.

Your answers will be of great help for this study.

May I thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Ms. ATHMANI A.

Department of Letters and English

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University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine

Section One: General Information

1. You have been teaching grammar for:
..... years.

2. You have been teaching:

a. First year.

b. Second year.

Section Two: Teaching Prepositions

3. Teaching prepositions is difficult.

Yes.

No.

4. Please, explain why.

.....
.....

5. You teach prepositions through:

a. Giving a list of the most common prepositions with examples.

b. Asking the students to check their meanings in the dictionary.

c. Presenting the different meanings and uses of each preposition with examples.

e. Practising the different uses of prepositions through activities.

f. Other: Please, justify:

.....

6. Students face problems in using prepositions because of:

- a. The diversity of the meanings of every preposition.
- b. The difference between the use of prepositions in both Arabic and English.
- c. Using a preposition instead of another (mixing up the close meanings).
- d. Lack of practice.
- e. Other: Please, justify:

.....

7. The type(s) of preposition that cause(s) students' problems most is(are):

- a. Time.
- b. Place.
- c. Movement.
- d. Other: Please, justify:

.....

8. If “place and/or movement”, which is referred to as *spatial Prepositions*, please illustrate with examples.

.....
.....
.....

Section Three: Practising Spatial Prepositions

9. You teach spatial prepositions through:

- a. Presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition.
- b. Providing a context for each use of each spatial preposition.
- c. Drawing the students' attention to the relation between the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition.
- d. Explaining that prepositions are to be learnt as part of culture.
- e. Using students' errors to explain the use of spatial prepositions.
- f. Drawing students' attention, whenever they misuse spatial prepositions, to the correct use without explanation.
- g. Focusing on practice more than explanation.
- h. Ask students to use their dictionaries to check the meanings of spatial prepositions.
- i. Other: Please, justify:

.....

10. How often do you use the items below in teaching spatial prepositions?

Items	Rarely	Often	Always
a. Presenting the different meanings of each spatial preposition.			
b. Providing a context for each use of each spatial preposition.			
c. Drawing the students' attention to the relation between the different uses and meanings of each spatial preposition.			
d. Explaining that spatial prepositions are to be learnt as part of culture.			
e. Using students' errors to explain the use of spatial prepositions.			
f. Drawing students' attention, whenever they misuse spatial prepositions, to the correct use without explanation.			
g. Focusing on practice rather than explanation.			
h. Asking students to use their dictionaries to check the meanings of spatial prepositions.			

11. When practising the use of spatial prepositions, you use:

- a. Students' Paragraph production.
- b. Students' Sentence production.
- c. Fill-in-the-gaps activities.
- d. Multiple Choice activities.
- e. Other: Please, justify:

.....

12. After practising spatial prepositions, your students:

a. Still have questions about the different meanings of spatial prepositions after you explain.

b. They ask for more activities.

c. They ask for specific rules of the use of spatial prepositions.

d. Other: Please, justify:

.....

Section Four: Error Correction

13. You respond to students' errors.

Yes.

No.

14. You respond to students' errors.

a. Always.

b. Very often.

c. Sometimes.

d. Rarely.

15. Please, explain why.

.....

.....

.....

16. The element(s) that you correct more is (are):

a. Meaning.

b. Structure.

c. Misuse of grammatical elements.

d. Other: Please, justify:

.....

17. You correct:

a. All the errors found.

b. A specific kind of errors depending on the lesson you are teaching.

18. When correcting students' errors, how do you proceed?

a. Correcting all the errors yourself for every student.

b. Making classroom discussion to correct the most common errors.

c. Making peer correction.

d. Asking the student to correct themselves.

f. Other: Please, justify:

.....

19. If “correcting all the errors yourself for every student” and/or “making classroom discussion to correct the most common errors”, you:

a. Spot the error, identify its type, and give the correction.

b. Spot the error, identify its type, and let the students think of the correction.

c. Spot the error, let students think of its type and its correction, and then check with them.

20. If “making peer correction” and/or “asking students to self-correct”, you:

a. Let the student/the student’s peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the correction and the explanation with others.

b. Let the student/the student’s peer spot the error, identify its type and its correction then check the explanation with others.

c. Let the student/the student’s peer spot the error, identify its type, its correction and its explanation.

Section Five: Further Suggestions

21. Please, add any further comment or suggestion.

.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX V

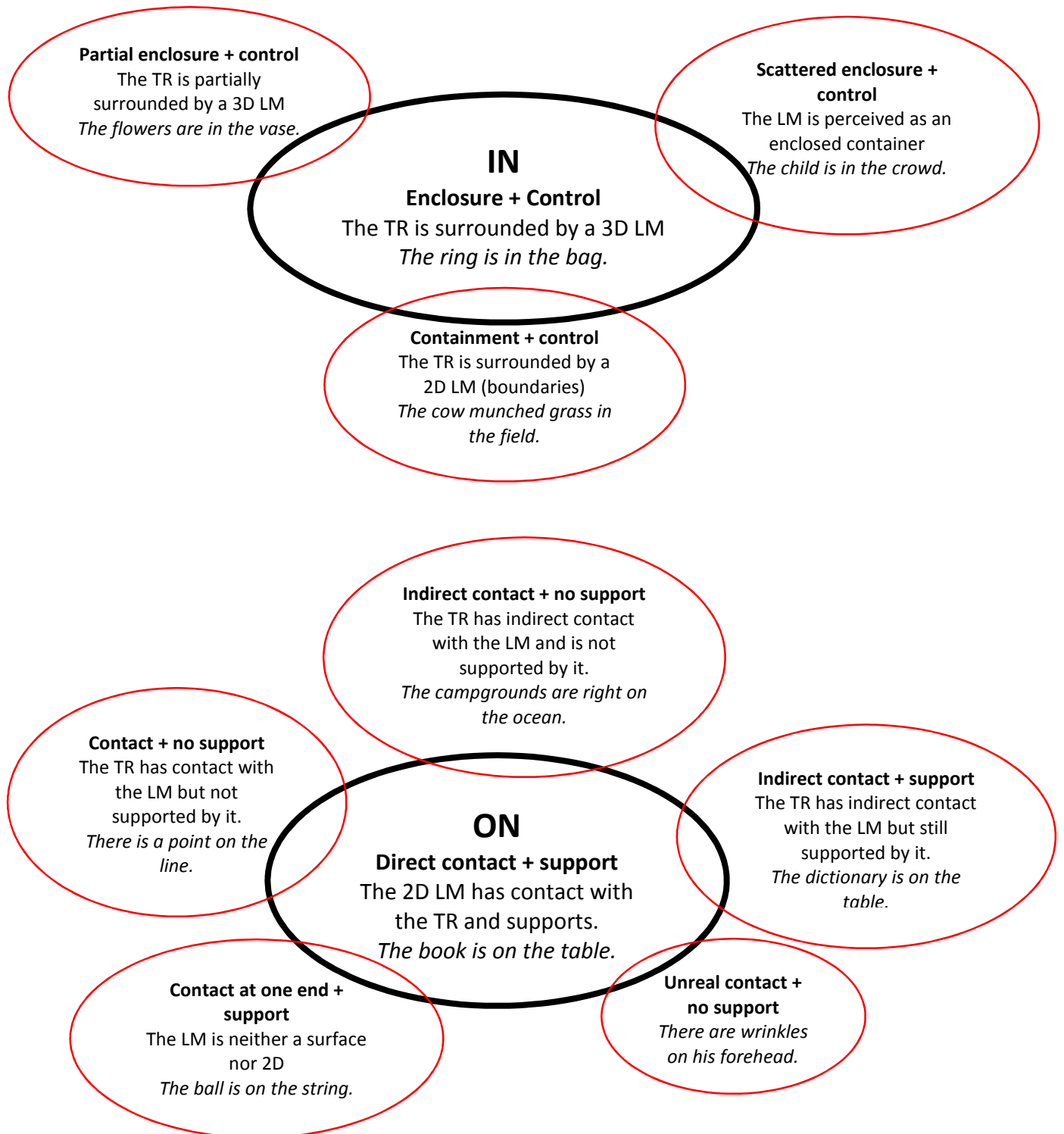
Model Lesson

Warm-up

- Spatial prepositions are prepositions of place and prepositions of movement.
- Prepositions of place show the position of something/someone in relation to something/someone known.
- Prepositions of movement show the direction in which something/someone is moving in relation to something/someone known.
- The girl is in the classroom.
Subject of Object of
the preposition the preposition
(Trajector - TR -)(Landmark - LM -)
- The use of each spatial preposition depends on the relationship it expresses and the nature of the Trajector and the Landmark.

Presentation

The Semantics of Spatial Prepositions



Specific point + specific target

The TR is perceived as targeting the LM.
She threw the ball at him.

AT

Specific point + specific purpose

The TR is very close to the LM for a specific purpose, and the LM is perceived as a specific point.
John is at the restaurant.

Specific point + intensive focus

The TR gives great attention and focus to the LM.
She has been at her book all morning.

Vague point + specific purpose

The TR is located at a specific point of the LM, but the point is unknown to the speaker, not important to be known or understood from context.
The Party is at the house.

Higher than + potential contact/influence + path

The TR is higher than the LM and moves above and across it.
The plane flew over the city.

Higher than + potential contact/influence + from one side to another

The TR is higher than the LM and moves from one side of the LM to the other making an arc shape.
The boy jumped over the fence.

Higher than + contact + cover

The TR functions as a covers for the LM.
Put the blanket over the bed.

OVER

Higher than + potential contact/influence

The TR is higher than the LM and could be under its influence or in contact.
The bird is over the bridge.

Higher than + potential contact/influence + Above-and-beyond

The TR moves higher than the LM and stops beyond it.
The ball flew over the goal and landed in the spectators' area.

Potential contact/ influence + end point focus (on the other side)

The TR is on the other side of the LM.
There is beautiful scenery over the bridge.

**Higher than + geographical distance
according to a river**

The LM is a river and the TR is
situated in a higher position than it.
*The nearest bridge is about half a
mile above the falls.*

ABOVE

**Higher than + no possible
contact/influence**

The TR is higher than the LM, and there is
no possible influence or contact between
them.

**Higher than + observable total
contact**

The TR is higher than the LM and has
observable total contact with it.
*Give me the box above the one you
are touching.*

Note: When the possible contact or influence is not stressed, the spatial prepositions *over* and *above* can be used interchangeably.

The picture is *over/above* the mantel.

Lower than + potential contact + control sense
The TR is in the proximal distance of the LM which is controlling and restricting its movement.
The boy trapped a fly under his hand.

Lower than + potential contact + covering sense
The TR is lower than the LM, in possible contact with it and is hidden by it.
The keys are under these clothes.

UNDER
Lower than + potential contact
The TR is lower than the LM and can be in contact with it.
The case is under the bed.

Lower than + potential contact + from one side to another
The TR makes moves lower than the LM to get to the other side making an arc shape.
The dog ran under the fence.

Lower than + observable total contact
The TR is lower than the LM and have an observable total contact with it.
Give me the box below the one you are touching.

BELOW
Lower than + no possible contact
The TR is lower than the LM and there is no possible contact between them.
His picture is below his father's.

Lower than + no possible contact + geographical distance
The LM is a river or water flow, and the TR is related to it. This relation is not vertical; it is geographical distance.
The town is situated 2 miles below the falls.

Note: When there is no contact between the TR and the LM and the distance between them is not stressed, the spatial prepositions *under* and *below* are used interchangeably.

The picture of the employee of the month is *under/below* that of the manager.

UP

Moving towards the top

The TR is directed towards the top of the LM.

He ran up the hill.

Horizontal movement (increasing street numbers)

The TR moves horizontally in the direction of the increasing street numbers.

Come up the main road and you will find the cinema.

Horizontal movement (decreasing street numbers)

The TR moves horizontally in the direction of the decreasing street numbers.

Go down the main road and you will find the cinema.

DOWN

Moving towards the bottom

The TR is directed towards the bottom of the LM.

The birds flew down the chimney.

INTO

Moving to the interior + goal

The TR is oriented or moving to the interior of the LM as a goal.

The firemen rushed into the house to put off the fire.

OUT OF

Moving to the exterior + source

The TR is oriented or moving from the interior of the LM as a source

They went out of the house.

THROUGH

The TR is moving from one point on the exterior of the LM into its interior and ending at one point on the other side on its exterior, creating a path.

He went through the forest.

ACROSS

The TR is moving from one side to another of the LM making a (+) with it.

He walked across the street.

Note: Though both spatial prepositions have the meaning of ‘*from-one-side-to-another*’, the difference between using the two spatial prepositions is that the two sides of the LM used with *through* are separated by its interior, while the two sides of the LM used with *across* are separated by something perceived by the speaker as a line.

OPPOSITE TO/FROM

The TR is directly facing the LM
which is on the other side
The bakery is opposite to the park.

Note: The meanings of the spatial prepositions *opposite to/from* and *across* are closely related. However, *opposite to/from* is more general than *across*. It is used when the TR is directly facing the LM, but *across* is used the TR is not exactly facing the LM. *Opposite to/from* can be used when the TR and the LM are relatively distant from each other.

ALONG

The TR is situated on or moving
on a horizontal line in the same
direction and parallel to the LM.
*They had a walk along the river
bank.*

BETWEEN

The TR is separating the LM that is
seen as made of two or more
entities.
*Our house is situated between
the school and the supermarket.*

AMONG

The TR is Surrounded by the LM that is made of three or more entities of the same type or a mass noun.

There is a beautiful large garden among the buildings.

IN FRONT OF

The TR is supposed to be located at some place near the front or face of the LM that has a front and a back.

The Children are in front of the theatre.

The LM is lower than the TR but considered a barrier or limit.

Stand behind the line.

BEHIND

The TR is located in back of the LM that has a front and a back, and is potentially hidden by the LM.

The boy is behind the hill.

Note:

- *In the front of* means that the TR is inside the LM and situated in its front part.
- *In the back of* means that the TR is inside the LM and situated in its back part.

BEYOND

Behind + distance

The TR is situated on the back side of the LM and far from it.
The house is beyond the hill.

TO/ON THE RIGHT/LEFT OF

The TR is located on one of two sides of the LM. The side is identified according to human shoulders or sight.
John lives in the house to/on the left of ours.

Not oriented toward + reference not end

The TR is located in reference to the LM but not necessarily oriented toward it, and the LM is not an end but merely a reference.
Take these chairs to the front of the classroom.

TO

Oriented toward + end

The TR is directed toward the LM which is considered an end in itself.
I am travelling to London.

Oriented toward + end + direct/near contact

The LM is not merely an end for the TR but it also has contact with it.
Apply the medicaments directly to the wound.

FOR

Oriented toward + means to another end

The TR is oriented toward the LM which is a means for another end.
I am leaving for London.

FROM

Path + source

The LM is the source of the movement of the TR.

I am travelling from London.

NEAR TO/CLOSE TO

All-side proximity

The TR is not far from the LM and is situated to any side (horizontal and vertical).

The library is close to the bus station.

BY

Two-side proximity + physical/warmth connection

The TR is at the side of the LM (right or left) and has a physical or warmth connection with it

NEXT TO

Directly at the side

The TR is directly at the side of the LM.

They were sitting next to each other.

BESIDE

Static closeness + no contact

The TR is static and close to the LM,
and there is no physical contact
between them.

Stop the cars beside the building.

Résumé

La majorité des enseignants d'anglais comme langue étrangère conviennent qu'un grand nombre d'apprenants utilisent les prépositions spatiales de manière inadéquate, et malgré les différentes techniques qu'ils utilisent dans leurs enseignements, la plupart des apprenants considèrent encore apprendre à utiliser ces prépositions une des questions les plus problématiques. Cette recherche examine si la correction d'erreur, la présentation de la sémantique des prépositions spatiales ou l'utilisation des deux techniques en combinaison aiderait les enseignants et les étudiants du Département des Lettres et Langue Anglaise à l'Université Des Frères Mentouri, Constantine, dans l'enseignement et l'apprentissage de ce type de prépositions. Les hypothèses suivantes ont été avancées: si les enseignants présentent la sémantique des prépositions spatiales lors de leur enseignement, les étudiants amélioreront leurs performances lors de l'utilisation de ce type de prépositions; si les enseignants utilisent des méthodes de correction d'erreur lors de l'enseignement des prépositions spatiales, les étudiants utiliseront ce type de prépositions de manière plus appropriée; et si les enseignants combinent les deux méthodes – la présentation de la sémantique des prépositions spatiales et l'utilisation de la correction d'erreur – lors de l'enseignement des prépositions spatiales, les étudiants amélioreront leur utilisation de ce type de prépositions. Deux méthodes de recherche sont utilisées : le premier moyen de recherche est un travail expérimental qui traite un échantillon de 119 étudiants de deuxième année divisée en un groupe de contrôle et de trois groupes expérimentaux. Un pré-test a été administré aux quatre groupes. Les trois groupes expérimentaux ont reçu trois enseignements différents. Un posttest a été donné aux quatre groupes et, par la suite, une analyse des résultats a été effectuée. Deuxièmement, un questionnaire pour étudiants à 132 étudiants de deuxième année et un questionnaire pour enseignants a été remis à 17 enseignants de Grammaire pour faire état de leur attitude, les croyances et l'expérience avec l'enseignement et l'apprentissage des prépositions spatiales. Les résultats n'ont pas confirmé la première hypothèse, ont partiellement

confirmé la seconde hypothèse, et ont totalement confirmé la troisième hypothèse. Sur la base des résultats obtenus, des implications pédagogiques et recommandations sont présentés. Ces implications pédagogiques et recommandations concernent l'enseignement et l'apprentissage des prépositions spatiales, l'utilisation de la sémantique des prépositions spatiales, l'utilisation du contexte des prépositions spatiales, et l'utilisation de la correction d'erreurs des prépositions spatiales.

Mots-clés : prépositions, sémantique, prépositions spatiales, sémantique des prépositions spatiales, correction des erreurs, acquisitions des prépositions spatiales.

المُلخَص

يتفق معظم أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية على أن عددا كبيرا من الطلبة يستخدمون حروف الجر المكانية بشكل غير صحيح، وعلى الرغم من التقنيات المختلفة التي تستخدم في تعليمهم، لا يزال معظم الطلبة يعتبرون تعلم كيفية استخدام حروف الجر واحدة من الأمور الأكثر إشكالية. يحقق هذا البحث في ما إذا كان استخدام تصحيح الأخطاء، أو تقديم دلالات حروف الجر المكانية أو استخدام كلتا التقنيتين معا من شأنه أن يساعد الأساتذة والطلاب في قسم الآداب واللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة الإخوة منتوري بقسنطينة في تعليم وتعلم هذا النوع من حروف الجر. تم طرح الفرضيات التالية: أولاً، إذا قدم الأساتذة دلالات حروف الجر المكانية عندما تعليمها، سوف يحسن الطلبة أدائهم عند استخدام هذا النوع من حروف الجر، ثانياً، إذا استخدم الأساتذة أساليب تصحيح الخطأ عند تدريس حروف الجر المكانية، سوف يستخدمها الطلبة بطريقة أكثر ملاءمة، وثالثاً، إذا جمع الأساتذة بين استخدام كلتا الطريقتين – تقديم دلالات حروف الجر المكانية استخدام تصحيح الخطأ – عند تعليم حروف الجر المكانية، سوف يحسن الطلبة استخدامهم لهذا النوع من حروف الجر. تمت الاستعانة بطريقتي بحث: أول وسيلة للبحث هو العمل التجريبي الذي تعامل مع عينة من 119 طالب في السنة الثانية مقسمة فوج مقارنة وثلاثة أفواج تجريبية. تم إجراء اختبار في الأفواج الأربع. خضعت الأفواج التجريبية الثلاث لثلاث طرق تدريس مختلفة. بعد ذلك قدم اختبار آخر لطلبة الأفواج الأربعة وبعدها قمنا بتحليل النتائج. ثانياً، تم تسليم استبيان إلى 132 طالب في السنة الثانية واستبيان آخر إلى 17 أستاذ من أساتذة القواعد حول مواقفهم، ومعتقداتهم وخبرتهم مع تعليم وتعلم حروف الجر المكانية. لم تؤكد النتائج الفرضية الأولى، وأكدت جزئياً الفرضية الثانية، في حين أكدت كلياً الفرضية الثالثة. على أساس النتائج التي حصل عليها وبالإشارة إلى مراجعة الأدبيات، يتم عرض آثار تربوية وتوصيات. هذه الآثار التربوية والتوصيات تتعلق بتعليم وتعلم حروف الجر المكانية، استعمال دلالات حروف الجر المكانية، استعمال سياق حروف الجر المكانية، واستعمال تصحيح أخطاء حروف الجر المكانية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: حروف الجر، علم الدلالة، حروف الجر المكانية، دلالات حروف الجر المكانية، تصحيح الأخطاء، تعلم حروف الجر المكانية.