CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of several literatures; Language Acquisition, Errors, Errors Related to Language Learning, Error Analysis, Stages in Error Analysis, Review of Collocations and Previous Studies which will be explained below.

2.1   Language Acquisition

Language is the main vehicle by which we know about other people's thoughts and the two must be intimately related. Every time we speak we are revealing something about language, so the facts of language structure are easy to come by; these data hint at a system of extraordinary complexity. Nonetheless, learning a first language is something every child does successfully, in a matter of a few years and without the need for formal lessons. With language, so close to the core of what it means to be human, it is not surprising that children's acquisition of language has received so much attention. Anyone with strong views about the human mind would like to show that children's first few steps are steps in the right direction.

Language acquisition is the process by which the language capability develops in a human. According to Krashen, acquisition requires meaningful interactions in the target language natural communication - in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but

with the messages, they are conveying and understanding (1988: 1). An understanding of second language acquisition can improve the ability of mainstream teachers to serve the culturally and linguistically diverse students in their classrooms (Fillmore & Snow, 2002; Hamayan, 1990).

2.2   Errors

Various definitions of error have been presented by experts. Basically those definitions contain the same meanings while the difference lies only on the ways they formulate them. That is why the writer only puts forward two definitions of error in this study. These two definitions are adequate to reveal the errors showing up in the written texts.

The two definitions are; error is a systematic deviation, when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong (Norrish, 1987:7) and errors are systematic deviations from the norms of the language being learned (Cunningworth, 1987:87). It seems that the phrase 'systematic deviation' in these definitions is a key word, which can be interpreted as the deviation which happens repeatedly.

Further, it is necessary to differentiate between error and mistake. A mistake is also a deviation of the norms of the language but is not systematic. It means that the use of the norms of the language in sentences is sometimes true and sometimes wrong. Norris (1983: 8) says that a mistake is an inconsistent deviation that is sometimes the learner gets it right but sometimes wrong. Richard (1985: 95) state that mistake is made

by a learner when writing or speaking which is caused of lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or other aspects of performance. From these 2 definitions, it can be concluded that a learner makes a mistake because he does not apply rule that he actually knows, in other words, a mistake is a non-systematic deviation from the norms of the language.

The combinations or collocations are confusing to English learners, including Indonesian students. Learner may get confused to decide which verbs always transitive or always intransitive, and which one can occur to both types, and which structure (infinitive with or without to, gerund or that-clause) can follow certain transitive verbs. It takes time for learners to memorize which verbs require which structures or which alternative structures are possible. Indonesian learners will think 'make conclusion' is the only acceptable word combination because in Bahasa Indonesia '*membuat keputusan*' is an acceptable collocation. They will hesitate to adopt 'to draw a conclusion'. Learners transfer the verb '*membuat*' as 'make' which is not always acceptable verb for certain nouns, or avoid using 'make' + noun because Bahasa Indonesia structure other verbs are more likely used. For example, English 'make the bed' requires different use of verb '*membersihkan/merapihkan tempat tidur*'. Lower level learners will likely use 'clean' or more acceptable verb 'tidy up' to express the same meaning, but will hesitate to use 'make the bed'.

1.3   Errors Related to Language Learning

Linguistically incorrect and/or contextually inappropriate forms and expressions characterize the learner's language. Both types of deviations are labeled 'errors' when they result from a lack of competence in the language. In addition to linguistic and pragmatic deviations, an interlanguage may exhibit certain forms that are linguistically and pragmatically correct but still sound unnatural or strange, (Bridges, 1990; Emery, 1987; Swan, 1995). This strangeness is captured by an inclusive definition of error such as the one proposed by Lennon (1991:182): "a linguistic form … which, in the same context, would in all likelihood not be produced by the learner's native speaker counterpart."

While the field of language teaching and learning is rich in studies of foreign language learners linguistic and pragmatic errors, research on strangeness of linguistic forms and expressions is lagging behind. Impetus to studies on strangeness is given by the fact that post-intermediate and advanced learners of EFL may not face structural and pragmatic problems, nevertheless, their language sounds unnatural, or odd. Therefore, studies are needed such as that reported by Mahmoud (2003) where university students' errors in binomials were analyzed. The need for such studies stems from the fact that EFL students' lexical errors have not been given due attention. The study sheds light on EFL learners' errors in the use of collocations. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) touched briefly on this area in an attempt to cover as many areas as possible.

They wrote a short paragraph on Arab students' collocation errors based on data collected by means of multiple-choice questions focusing only on verb-noun combinations. Only 2 options were given in some cases and four in other cases. The purpose of the study is to collect, classify and analyze the collocation errors in the free written English of post-intermediate and advanced Arab learners of EFL, thus adding one more ring to the still short chain of studies in the area of lexis in general and the area of collocations in particular. An analysis of collocation errors can reveal the problems that EFL learners encounter and the causes of these problems in that area and help teachers and EFL specialists find appropriate ways of dealing with them in the EFL course.

2.4   Error Analysis

Error analysis is an activity to reveal errors found in writing and speaking. Richards (1985: 96) states that error analysis is the study of errors made by the second and foreign language learners. Error analysis may be carried out in order to find out how well someone knows a language, find out how a person learns a language, and obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. The definition stresses functions of error analysis.

Another concept of error analysis is given by Brown (1980: 163). He defined error analysis as the process to observe, analyze, and classify the

deviations of the rules of second language and then to reveal the systems operated by learner. It seems this concept is the same as the one proposed by Crystal (1987: 112). Error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of principles and procedures provided by linguistics. Based on three definitions above, it can be concluded that error analysis is an activity to identify, classify and interpret or describe the errors made by someone in speaking or in writing and it is carried out to obtain information on common difficulties faced by someone in speaking or writing English sentences.

2.5   Stages in Error Analysis

As it has been mentioned by some experts that there are several processes in leading error analysis, McKeating (1981: 226) divides the process in analyzing error into five stages below:

2.5.1 Recognition

It involves recognition of what an error is. In certain cases, what is regarded as an error depends on what standard of performance is considered to be accepted. Different subject area will create different standard of what is regarded as an error.

2.5.2 Interpretation

It is considered as central of the whole process in analyzing error, because the teacher's interpretation of errors committed by the students.

When they produce a sentence for example, it may determine whether the

term is recognizing as an error or not.

2.5.3 Reconstruction

This stage is important in order to know whether or not what the

students mean in their sentences is actually appropriate with the context.

2.5.4 Classification

In this stage, errors that have been found can be classified into

several parts or types based on the analysis of error talked about.

2.5.5 Explanation

In this last stage, it can be mentioned the explanation of what kinds

of errors has been found, how is the frequency of the occurrences, or other

things that are related to the finding of errors.

2.6 Review of Collocations

Nattinger (in Carter and McCarthy, 1987:76) suggests that

language is basically a "compositional" process in which many of its

words co-occur together forming single units of meaning. He calls these as

lexical phrases or words combinations; and collocations are among other

terms of lexical phrases. However, collocations themselves range from

"lexico-grammatical unit" to "free combination". The term "collocation" is

actually only one among other terms for similar concept of the word

combination. Nattinger and Decorrico (1992:21) define collocations as

"strings of words that seem to have certain 'mutual expectancy' or greater-

than-chance like hood that they will co-occur in any text". In addition to that, the following is an explanation by Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986):

> In English, as in other languages, there are many fixed, identifiable, non-idiomatic phrases and constructions. Such groups of words are called recurrent combinations, or collocations. Collocations fall into 2 major groups: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations.

In this study the writer used the reference of Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986) in which they state that there are 2 major groups of collocations; those are grammatical collocations and lexical collocations.

2.6.1 Grammatical Collocations

Grammatical collocation is a phrase consisting of a dominant word (noun, adjective, verb) and preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or a clause. For example, Naom Chomsky in his Aspects of the Theory of Syntax points out that *decide on a boat*, meaning *choose* (to buy) a boat contains the collocation *decide on* (in his terminology: close construction), whereas decide on a boat, meaning 'make a decision while on a boat' is a free combination (in his terminology: loose association).

The writer will describe eight major types of grammatical collocations based on Benson, Benson, and Ilson.

2.6.1.1 Noun + Preposition

Not all noun + preposition combinations can be considered as collocations due to the highly predictable meaning of some prepositions, such as of and by. So, noun + of/by combinations are not regarded as the collocations. The collocations include the combination *blockade against*

but not *blockade of*. The phrase the *blockade of enemy ports* is a regular transformation of the *blockade enemy ports*.

In addition, collocations do not include such derived prepositions as *concerning, regarding, in regard to, with regard to*. Note that the prepositions just listed are usually synonymous with *about*. Thus, an argument about is synonymous with an argument concerning, an argument regarding.

2.6.1.2 Noun + to + infinitive

There are five syntactic patterns in which this construction is most frequently encountered; these patterns are: It was a *pleasure (a problem, a struggle)* to do it; they had the *foresight (instructions, an obligation, permission, right)* to do it; they felt a *compulsion (an impulse, a need)* to do it; they made an *attempt (an effort, a promise, a vow)* to do it; he was a *fool (a genius, an idiot)* to do it.

Some nouns can also be used with a verb form in *-ing*: *it is a pleasure to work there = it is a pleasure working there = working there is a pleasure (= to work there is a pleasure)*. Such occur in the first syntactic patter listed above. The use of the *–ing* is shown in the entries.

The collocations do not include nouns if they are followed by infinitives normally associated with the whole sentence rather than with the noun. Such infinitives express purpose; the phrase *in order* may be inserted between the noun and the infinitive with no change of meaning*: they sold their house (in order) to impress his new neighbors, she closed*

the window (in order) to keep the flies out, etc. The BBI also does not include colloquial phrases often found in advertisements: *the dictionary to end all dictionaries, a computer to satisfy all needs,* etc. Lastly, they usually do not include nouns preceded by a descriptive adjective: *an interesting book to read, a difficult person to understand, a clever thing to say,* etc.

2.6.1.3 Noun + that-clause

The BBI includes nouns that can be followed by a *that clause*: *we reached an agreement that we should represent us in court*; *he took an oath that he would do his duty*. The dictionary does not include nouns followed by relative clauses introduced by *that*, i. e., when *that* can be replaced by which: *we reached an agreement that would go into effect in a month*. Nor does it include nouns that can be followed by a clause only when they are objects of a preposition*: it was by chance that we met*; *it was with (considerable) pride that he presented his findings*.

In this case, nouns expressing emotion (*astonishment, surprise*) may take a 'putative' *should*: *she expressed surprise that he should be thinking of changing jobs*.

2.6.1.4 Preposition + noun

Any combinations of preposition and noun can fall into this category, however the choice of preposition with certain noun in not at random. For examples: *by accident, in advance, to somebody's advantage,*

on somebody's advice, under somebody's aegis, in agony, on (the) alert, at anchor, etc.

2.6.1.5 Adjective + preposition

The next grammatical collocation is adjective + preposition combinations that occur in the predicate or as set-off attributives (verb less clauses): *they were angry at everyone*. They include adjective + *of* constructions when the subject of the construction in animate (usually human): *they are afraid (ashamed, confident, critical, demanding, envious, etc.) of him*.

In general, they do not include past participles (formed from transitive verbs) followed by the preposition by: this construction is regular and predictable such as: *abandoned by, absolved by*, etc.

2.6.1.6 Adjectives + to + infinitive

The sixth collocations consist of predicate adjectives and following *to* + infinitive. Adjective occur in 2 basic constructions with infinitives.

The first is adjectives with dummy or empty subject "it" such as "it was necessary for him to work". Prepositional phrases with *for* can be inserted into this construction with many adjectives: *it was necessary for him to work*. If the verb is transitive, of course, added: *it was necessary to supervise them closely*. Some adjectives can be used with prepositional phrase beginning with *of*: *it was stupid to go – it was stupid of them to go*. Most adjectives that appear in adjective + *of* constructions (with the 'dummy' *it* subject) followed by *to* + infinitive can also be used in

sentences without infinitive. An example is: *it was stupid of them to go – it was stupid of them* (or *that was stupid of them*).

The second is adjective with real and usually animate subject such as"*she (the girl) is ready to go; it (the machine) was designed to operate at high altitudes*". Several adjectives can occur in this construction with either animate or an inanimate subject; an example is *bound*: *she was bound to find out – it (the accident) was bound to happen*. Other adjectives of this type are *destined, known, liable, likely,* etc.

Some adjectives in this sixth collocation are normally not used without a following infinitive (or prepositional phrase), especially with an animate subject. They usually do not say *he is destined*, *he is easy*, *he is likely*, etc, but rather *he is destined to go far, he is easy to get along with, he is not likely to be late*, etc. adjectives of this type are marked "cannot stand alone" in the entries.

2.6.1.7 Adjectives + that-clause

The seventh grammatical collocation is adjectives followed by a that-clause: *she was afraid that she would fail the examination*; *it was nice that he was able to come home for the holidays*. Several adjectives are followed by the present subjunctive in formal English: *it was imperative that I be there at three o'clock; it is necessary that he be replaced immediately*.

2.6.1.8 Verbs patterns

The last grammatical collocations consist of nineteen English verb patterns, designated by the capital letter A to S. A description of each verb pattern follows.

2.6.1.8.1 Pattern A

Pattern A verbs allow the *dative movement transformation*, that is, allow the shift of an indirect object (usually animate) to a position before the direct object, with deletion of *to* when both objects are nouns and when the direct object is a noun: *he sent the book to his brother – he sent his brother the book – he sent him the book*.

2.6.1.8.2 Pattern B

Pattern B verbs are transitive; when they have an indirect object, they do *not* allow the *dative movement transformation*, the shift of the indirect object (usually animate) to a position before the direct object with the deletion of *to*. Examples are: *they described the book to her*, *they mentioned the book to her*, *they returned the book to her*, but not *they described her the book*, etc. Other such verbs are: *babble, bark, bellow, growl,* etc.

2.6.1.8.3 Pattern C

In pattern C, transitive verbs used with the preposition *for* allow the *dative movement transformation,* i.e., allow the deletion of for and the shift of the indirect object (usually animate) to a position before the direct

object: *she bought a shirt for her husband – she bought her husband a shirt*, *she bought a shirt for her husband – she bought him a shirt.*

2.6.1.8.4 Pattern D

In this pattern, the verb forms a collocation with a specific preposition (+ object). Collocations consisting of a verb + *as* (+ object) are included in this pattern: *to act as*, *to interpret as, to serve as, to treat as,* etc. It does include *compound verbs* followed by prepositions: *break in on*, *catch up to*, etc. Combinations of type verb + *by* or *with* are excluded when the letter denote 'means' or 'instrument': *they came by train*, *we cut bread with a knife*, etc.

2.6.1.8.5 Pattern E

In this pattern, verbs are followed by *to* + infinitive. Examples of this construction are: *they began to speak, she continued to write, he decided to come, we offered to help,* etc. Verbs are not include if they are normally used in phrase of purpose, that is, if an order can be inserted with no change of meaning: *they were drilling (in order) to improve their pronunciation, he was running (in order) to catch a train, she stopped (in order) to chat,* etc.

2.6.1.8.6 Pattern F

This pattern includes the small number of verbs that are followed by an infinitive without *to*: *we must work*. These verbs, with the exception of *dare*, *help*, and *need*, are called *modals*. The verbal phrase had better and would rather also fit this pattern: *he had better (would rather) go.*

2.6.1.8.7 Pattern G

In this pattern, verbs are followed by a second verb in *–ing*. Typical examples of this construction are: *they enjoy watching television, he kept talking, we miss going to work every day, the house needs painting, she quit smoking, he regrets living so far from his family,* etc.

2.6.1.8.8 Pattern H

In this pattern, transitive verbs are followed by an object and *to +* infinitive. Typical examples of this construction are: *she asked me to come; they challenged us to fight; we forced them to leave; he invited me to participate; she permitted the children to watch television*. Many of the verbs in this pattern can take the infinitive to be after the direct object: *we advised them to be careful, she asked us to be punctual, the director authorized us to be in the laboratory,* etc. For verbs that are normally used only with to be after the direct object. Most H-pattern verbs can be passivized: *I was asked to come, we were authorized to use the laboratory,* etc. Some, however, cannot be: *beseech, bring, cable, cause, commit, get, have, intend, like, prefer, telegraph, telephone, thank, trouble, want, wire, wish, and write*.

2.6.1.8.9 Pattern I

In this pattern, transitive verbs are followed by a direct object and an infinitive without *to*. Examples of this construction are: *she heard them leave, we let the children go to the park, they saw her drive up to the house, he watched them unload the car,* etc. The use of I-pattern verbs in

the passive occurs occasionally: *we felt the earth move – the earth was felt to move; they made us get up – we were made to get up*. Note the appearance of *to* + infinitive in the passive construction.

2.6.1.8.10 Pattern J

In this pattern, verbs are followed by an object and a verb form in –*ing*. Typical examples of this construction are: *I caught them stealing apples, we found the children sleeping on the floor, he kept me waiting 2 hours,* etc. J-pattern verbs can usually be passivized: *they were caught stealing apples, the children were found sleeping on the floor, I was kept waiting for 2 hours,* etc.

2.6.1.8.11 Pattern K

In this pattern, verbs can be followed by a possessive (pronoun and noun) and a gerund, i.e., verbal noun. Typical examples of this construction are: *please excuse my waking you so early, this fact justify Bob's coming late*. The possessive construction is awkward when 2 objects are joined by a conjunction. In BBI dictionary was attempted to include only the most frequently occurring verbs that can be followed by a possessive.

2.6.1.8.12 Pattern L

In this pattern, verbs can be followed by a noun clause beginning with the conjunction *that*. Examples are: *they admitted that they were wrong; she believed that her sister would come; he denied that he had taken the money; we hoped that the weather would be nice*. A few L-

pattern verbs regularly have "dummy" *it* as their subject: *it appears that they will not come*. Other verbs of this type are: *follow, seem, transpire, turn out,* etc.

2.6.1.8.13 Pattern M

In this pattern, transitive verbs can be followed by a direct object, the infinitive *to be*, and either an adjective, or a past participle, or a noun/pronoun. In most instances, the same verb can be followed by any of these three forms. Examples of this construction are: *we consider her to be very capable – we consider her to be well trained – we consider her to be a competent engineer; the court declared the law to be unconstitutional – the court declared the law to be a violation of the Constitution; we found the roads to be a serious problem for the state treasury*. Note that this pattern includes verbs that normally take *to be* after the direct object. For verbs that combine freely with infinitives other than to be.

2.6.1.8.14 Pattern N

In this pattern, transitive verbs can be followed by a direct object and an adjective or a past participle or a noun/pronoun. Here are several examples of this construction with an adjective: *she dyed her hair red, we found them interesting, he made his meaning clear, the police set the prisoner free*. Verbs used with adjectives in this construction are marked "used with an adjective" in the entries. Examples with past participles are: *the soldiers found the village destroyed, she had her tonsils removed, we heard the aria sung in Italian*. Verbs used with past participle are marked

'used with a past participle' in the entries. Examples with a noun/pronoun are*: we appointed (designated, elected, made, named) Bob secretary, her friends call her Becky, they ordained him priest*. Verbs used with noun/pronouns are marked 'used with a noun' in the entries. Finally, it should be noted that some N-pattern verbs are used only with certain adjectives or with certain adjective. For example, *with the verb paint, we can say to paint the walls blue/green/white*, etc. With the verb *shoot*, we can only say *to shoot somebody dead*.

2.6.1.8.15 Pattern O

In this pattern, transitive verbs can take 2 objects, neither of which can normally be used in a prepositional phrase with *to* or *for.* Examples of sentences with such double objects are: *the teacher asked the pupil a question, we bet her ten pounds, the police fined him fifty dollars, she tipped the waiter five dollars,* etc. Some pattern O verbs can be used with either of their objects alone: *the teacher asked the pupil – the teacher asked a question.* Such verbs are marked 'can be used with one object' in the entries. O-pattern verbs can usually be passivized; in most instances, at least one object can become the subject of the passive construction. Examples are: *no questions were asked, ten pounds were bet, he was fined fifty dollars, they will be forgiven, the waiter was tipped five dollars.*

2.6.1.8.16 Pattern P

In this pattern, intransitive, reflexive, and transitive verbs must be followed by an adverbial. The adverbial may be an adverb, a prepositional

phrase, a noun phrase, or a clause. For example, we cannot normally say in English *he carried himself*. An adverbial is required to form a complete sentence: *he carried himself well*; or: *he carried himself with dignity*. In similar manner, without adverbials the following sentences are not complete: *Tuesday comes, we fared, the meeting will last, my brother is living, the trunk weight*, etc. Acceptable sentences can be formed only if an appropriate adverbial is added: *Tuesday comes after Monday, we fared well, the meeting wills last 2 hours, my brother is living in Utah, the trunk weights thirty pounds*. BBI Dictionary gives only the most commonly used verbs and senses that have obligatory adverbials. They does not include all verbs that are followed by a *way*-phrase and an obligatory adverbials: *we elbowed (fought, jostled, made, pushed, worked,* etc.*) our way through the crowd*, *they bribed their way to success, the Tatar cavalry burned its way through Eastern Europe*, etc.

2.6.1.8.17 Pattern Q

In this pattern, verbs can be followed by an interrogative word: *how, what, when, where, which, who, why*; to these we add whether (which often alternates in clause with *if*). These interrogative forms are often called *wh*-words. Although most pattern Q verbs do not take a noun/pronoun object before the *wh*-construction, several must have an object: *we told them what to do, they informed us where applications were being accepted,* etc. such verbs are marked 'must have an object' in the entries. A few verbs can be used with or without an object: *she asked why*

we had come – she asked us why we had come. Such verbs are marked 'may have an object' in the entries.

2.6.1.8.18 Pattern R

In this pattern, transitive verbs (often expressing emotion) are preceded by the dummy *it* and are followed by *to* + infinitive or by *that* + clause or by *either*. The construction (or constructions) in which each verb usually seems to occur in shown in the entries. Examples are: *it behooves/behaves you to study more; it puzzled me that they never answered the telephone; it surprised me to learn of her decision and it surprised me that our offer was rejected*.

2.6.1.8.19 Pattern S

In this pattern, a small number of intransitive verbs are followed by a predicate noun or by a predicate adjective: *she becomes an engineer; he was a teacher; he became smug; she was enthusiastic*. The verb make, used intransitively, belongs here: *he will make a good teacher*. A somewhat larger group of intransitive verbs can be followed only by a predicate adjective; these verbs are coded with the small letter s. Examples are: *she looks fine; the flowers smell nice; the food tastes good*.

2.6.2 Lexical Collocations

In contras to grammatical collocations, lexical collocations do not contain grammatical elements. Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986) list various combinations of lexical collocations: verb + noun (*start a family; keep a secret*); adjective + noun (*good work, strong tea*); adverb +

adjective (*heavily influenced, amazingly gorgeous*); verb + adverb (*walk slowly, laugh nervously*).

In lexical collocation, too, there are fixed and loose combinations. Especially in verb + noun combinations, the combinations are fixed in which the choice of words that collocate each other is definite, such as: *commit a murder*, or *break the law* and these combinations: *do a murder*, or *damage the law are unlikely*. This fixed structure are idiomatic, however their meanings are still predictable from the elements of the combinations. In comparison, in loose collocations the collocates are freely combined, such as: *analyze/study/witness a murder and practice/study law*. The meanings of these loose collocations can still be derived from their individual words.

The co-occurrence of 2 or more words in a lexical collocation has 2 important features. Firstly, there may be a constant collocational relationship between the 2 words that collocate although several words go in between them. For example, collocation "collect stamps" can be separated as: *They collect stamps; they collect foreign stamps; they collect many things, but chiefly stamps,* (Greenbaum, 1970 in Carter and McCarthy, 1988:34). Secondly, lexical collocation does not seem to depend on grammatical types. So, collocation "strong argument" can be expressed, for example: *He argued strongly*, or *the strength of his argument*: or *His argument was strengthened* (as exemplified by Halliday. 1966 in Carter and McCarthy, 1988:35).

The following are type's lexical collocations as categorized in the BBI dictionary of English.

2.6.2.1 Verb (usually transitive) + noun/pronoun (or prepositional phrase)

The first lexical collocations consist of a verb (usually transitive) and a noun/a pronoun (or prepositional phrase). Most this lexical collocations consist of a verb denoting creation and/or activation and a noun/a pronoun. It is call such fixed lexical combinations CA collocations. Here are examples of collocations with verbs denoting creation: *come to an agreement, make an impression, compose music, set a record, reach a verdict, inflict a wound*. Here are examples of collocations that express the concept of activation: *set an alarm, fly a kite, launch a missile, punch a time clock, spin a top, wind a watch*.

In some instances, the same noun collocates with one verb (or verbs) to denote creation and with another verb (or verbs) to denote activation: *establish a principle* (= creation) – *apply a principle* (= activation); *draw up a will* (= creation) – *execute a will* (= activation). In many instance the meanings creation and activation are united in one verb: *call an alert, display bravery, hatch a conspiracy, impose an embargo, produce friction, inflict an injustice, offer opposition, pose a question, lay a smoke screen, put out a tracer, commit treason, issue a warning*.

Many nouns collocate with verbs that refer to the actions of more than one participant. Such nouns will have different CA collocation according to which participant's role is being described. Thus, a copyright

office grants or registers a copyright, but a n author or publisher holds or secures one.

CA collocations for polysemous nouns are extremely important. For example, the entry for the noun line has the following collocations: *draw a line* (on paper); *form a line* (= line up); *drop somebody a line* (= write somebody a letter). The entry for operation has: *perform an operation* (in a hospital); *carry out* (conduct) *an operation* (on the battlefield).

The Combinatory Dictionary does not include free combinations. Thus, they exclude many combinations with verbs such as *build, cause, cook, grow, make, manufacture, prepare,* etc. even though, strictly speaking, they convey the meanings of 'creation' or 'activation'. Such verbs form an almost limitless number of combinations: *build bridges* (house, roads), *cause damage* (deafness, a death), *cook meat* (potatoes, vegetables), etc.; such combinations seem to be predictable on the basis of the meaning of their component elements.

On the other hand, they has include in the first lexical collocation even if they do not mean 'creation' or 'activation'. Examples are: *do the laundry, decline a noun, take one's seat, carry a story, confirm a suspicion, resist temptation, conjugate a verb,* etc.

2.6.2.2 Verb (meaning eradication and/or nullification) + a noun

The second lexical collocation consists of a verb essentially eradication and/or nullification and a noun. Such fixed lexical combinations are called EN collocations. Typical examples are: *reject an*

appeal, lift a blockade, break a code, reverse a decision, dispel fear, squander a fortune, demolish (raze, tear down) a house, repeal a law, revoke a license, annual a marriage, suspend martial law, scrub (cancel) a mission, withdraw an offer, countermand an order, renege on a promise, crush (put down) resistance, break up a set (of china), rescind a tax, ease tension, quench one's thirst, denounce (abrogate) a treaty, exterminate vermin, override a veto, etc.

The Combinatory Dictionary does not include predictable free EN combinations. For example, the verb destroy can be used with a very large number of nouns denoting physical objects; these have not been entered. Examples are: *to destroy – a barn, bridge, building, city, document, factory, harbor, house, laboratory, port, road, school, village,* etc.

2.6.2.3 Adjective + noun

The next lexical collocations consist of an adjective and a noun. One well known pair or example is *strong tea* (not mighty tea) and *weak tea* (not feeble tea). In many instances, more than one adjective (or more than one form of the same adjective) can collocate with the same noun: *warm, warmest* (not hot); *kind, kindest*; *best* (not good) *regards*. Other example of this collocations are: *reckless abandon, a chronic alcoholic, a pitched battle, a formidable challenge, a crushing defeat, a rough estimate, an implacable foe, a sweeping generalization*, etc.

As already indicated, the Dictionary attempts to give only the most commonly used lexical collocations. Many of this lexical collocation can

be considered to be clichés. The Dictionary does not normally give collocations that are used solely in technical language. However, the Dictionary does give some technical collocations that will be of interest to students and teachers of English for Special Purpose.

In English, nouns are often used as adjectives. Nouns used attributively may enter into this lexical collocation: house arrest, jet engine, land reform, aptitude test. These collocations are given at the entry for the second noun. However, it in a 'fused' compound the second noun does not have the same basic meaning as it has when used alone, the compound is not included as a third lexical collocation. Examples of such Multi-Word Lexical Units (MLU) are: *bowling alley, sitting duck, long shot, stuffed shirt,* etc. An MLU is listed as a separate headword if it enters into collocation. For example, the colloquial MLU double take (delayed reaction) is given as headword since it is part of the collocation to do a double take.

In some instance, noun + noun collocations can be found more easily by the user of the Dictionary when they are listed at the entry for the first noun rather than at the entry for the second noun. For example, *cabinet reshuffle is given at cabinet, drug pusher at drug,* etc. Such collocations are listed in the entries under miscellaneous.

2.6.2.4 Noun + verb

The fourth lexical collocations consist of a noun and verb; the verb names an action characteristic of the person or thing designated by the

noun: *adjectives modify, alarms go off (ring, sound), bees buzz (sting, swarm), blizzard rage, blood circulates (clots, congeals, flows, runs), bombs explode (go off),* etc. The Dictionary does not include predictable combinations such as *bakers bake, boxers box, cooks cook, dancers dance, fencers fence,* etc.

2.6.2.5 Noun + noun

The lexical collocations indicate the unit that is associated with a noun. The structure of this lexical collocation is often noun of noun. Such collocations may indicate: the larger unit to which a single member belongs: *a colony (swarm) of bees, a herd of buffalo, a pack of dogs, a bouquet of flowers, a pride of lions, a school of whales,* etc.; and the specific, concrete, small unit of something large, more general: *a bit (piece, word) of advice, an article of clothing, an act of violence,* etc.

2.6.2.6 Adverb + adjective

The sixth lexical collocations consist of a verb and an adjective. Examples are: *deeply absorbed, strictly accurate, closely (intimately) acquainted, hopelessly addicted, sound asleep, keenly (very mush) aware,* etc.

2.6.2.7 Verb + adverb

The seventh lexical collocations consist of a verb and an adverb. Examples are: *affect deeply, amuse thoroughly, anchor firmly, apologize humbly, appreciate sincerely, argue heatedly,* etc.

2. 7   Previous Studies

There are a lot of teachers and researcher pay much attention to giving feedback on the area of errors. A research of Lalande (1982) tested the efficacy of systematic marking, guided learning, and problem solving techniques on grammatical correctness of compositions written by 60 fourth-quarter college students in Germany. He concluded that the combination of awareness of one's errors and rewriting with problem solving techniques helped students make fewer grammatical errors. Azka (2004) in her research entitled "Study of Grammatical Errors in personal letter made by students in SMAN 3 Surabaya" tries to explore the importance of studying grammatical errors. The conclusion of her research shows the area of grammatical problem mostly made by students in the Senior High School grade.

Ramadanti (2006) in her thesis entitled "Error analysis in using conjunction made by the 2nd semester students of English Education Department in UNESA" tried to explore errors happened on the use of conjunction made by university students. Besides, Feryza (2001) tried to discuss about the errors on tenses and the frequency of occurrences in narrative composition made by English Education Department students of IKIP Malang. The result shows that there are some differences tenses used in narrative compositions and another form of compositions. Besides that, most of the student make mistake in using the simple tenses.

Filling the gaps on those previous studies, the writer focused this study on the errors in using collocations. The writer focused to find the collocation error made by the second semester students of the English Education Department of University of Muhammadiyah Gresik.