CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to enrich the study of the thesis, as well as to ascertain whether other scholars have undertaken similar research. Subsequently, as Hussein (1995:65) states"...it is highly unlikely that another scholar in this world would have the same title, focus, context, questions, assumptions, and generalize-ability as your research". Relating to the above, Nunan (1992:216) explains, "The function of the literature review is to provide background information on the research question, and to identify what other linguists have said and/or discovered about the question."

This chapter examines related topics to this study; various related studies, supportive in understanding learners' acquisition difficulties, being divided into two sections: Error Analysis (EA) and Contrastive Analysis (CA). The first part, EA, consists of the following headings:

1. The Learner's Language.

2. Sources and Causes of Errors.

3. Error Classification.

4. Selected Error Studies.

The second part, Contrastive Analysis, appears as follows:

1. A Brief History of Contrastive Analysis (CA).

2. Definitions.

3. Hypothesis

4. CA Values and Limitations.

2.1 The Learner's Language:

A description of the learner's language has always been of primary concern to second language acquisition research. Linguists claim, with a better understanding of the learner's language, or of the second language acquisition process, one can apply the findings to different aspects of language teaching, syllabus design, teaching materials, learner based approach, task design, testing, evaluation, etc. As a result, a number of terms have appeared referring to different aspects in the learner's language. Some of these terms are *transitional competence* (Corder 1971). This term refers to "the system of the rules that a learner has developed at a particular stage (learner 'competence') and emphasises its temporary nature as the learner progresses" Little (1984:33), *idiosyncratic dialect* is another term used by Corder (1971) "The term emphasises that at any given time, the learner operates a self-contained language variety ('dialect')" Littele (1984:33). Nemser 1971 uses the term *approximative system* to describe the learner's language. The term "draws attention to structural aspects of the learner's language, which 'approximates', more or less, closely to the full second language system" Little (1984:33). However, the most commonly used term is: *interlanguage* (IL.) (Selinker 1972) " It draws attention to the fact that the learner's language system is neither that of the mother tongue, nor that of the second language, but contains elements from both" Little (1984:33). It is obvious the terms stated highlight various aspects of the learner's language, and these terms, and others, emerge from the study of the learner's language, including errors, i.e., attempts to learn the target language.

2.1.1 Behaviorists and Errors

In the 1950's and early 1960's, when the behaviorists' views of the learning process prevailed, learner errors were considered something undesirable and to be avoided. According to the Behaviorist theory, people learn by responding to external stimuli and by receiving proper reinforcement. A proper habit is formed by reinforcement; hence, learning takes place, "these emphasised learning through habit-formation, which was brought about by imitation, reinforcement and repetition of behavior" Little (1984:17). Based on this theory "error" was considered to be a wrong response to the stimulus. So,'the error should be corrected immediately after being made. Unless corrected properly, the error would become a habit and an erroneous behavioral pattern would adhere in the learner's mind.

Educators concentrate on teaching, preventing errors from being made. They give correct examples of sentences and syntactic patterns to learners, and learning depends upon memorizing and repeating forms, words, phrases, or sentences. Ensuing, teacher correction of student errors immediately. Errors were regarded as something to avoid, and composing an error was considered to be fatal to the correct learning of a language.

However, the shift, to accept and expect errors, happened after Chomsky (1959) reviewed and criticized the behaviorists in his article "A Review of B.F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior". Little summarized the opinion of the linguists in the behaviorist theory (1984:21) "The behaviorist theory of habit-formation cannot account for second language learning. There must be other processes at work."

2.1.2 Learners' Errors and Contrastive Analysis:

Contrastive Analysis (CA) studies were conducted, from the early 1940's to the 1960s, before Error Analysis (EA) appeared in the 1970s and the1980s. Ellis (1994:47) says, "In the 197's, EA supplanted Contrastive Analysis (CA), which sought to predict the errors that learners make by identifying the linguistics differences between their L1 and the target language". In contrastive analysis, two languages are systematically compared. Charles Fries (1945) and Robert Lado (1957) claim that errors can be avoided and prevented by preparing teaching materials based on the findings of contrastive analysis between the learners' mother tongue and the target language.

Lado states: "those elements that are similar to his -[learner]- native language will be simple for him and those elements that are different will be difficult" (Lado, 1957:2). The contrastive analysis linguists believe that once the differences in the two languages have been identified, it would be easier then to plan the syllabus and teaching materials according to the learner's difficulties, in order to help to avoid errors. Contrastive Analysis advocators claim that in language teaching, teachers should organize teaching according to the result of comparative studies and then errors can be avoided. In sum, Ellis (1994:47) elaborates "the underlying assumption of CA was that errors occurred primarily, as a result of interference when the learner transferred native language 'habits' into the L2". Therefore, the contrastive analysts regard errors as something that should be avoided, being influenced by the behaviorist theories. However, even this claim is not supported by evidence as Little (1984:21) says, "The strong claim is that contrastive analysis can reliably predict difficulty and errors. As we have seen, this claim is not supported by the evidence."

However, to see the importance of the errors in learning happens later. Pit Corder (1967) first introduced the concept of 'Error Analysis' and advocated the significance of errors in language learning process. Also, Corder (1967) resembles the shift in linguistics from a behaviorist view of language to a more realistic view. He made the shift also from emphasis in teaching towards the study of learning.

2.1.3 The Significance of Learners Errors

"The last twenty years have seen a dramatic change in attitudes on the part of researchers and teachers towards errors that learners make in the foreign language classroom" Walz (1982:1). Errors analysts, namely Corder (1967) Norrish (1983), Richards (1990) and Selinker (1992) view errors as evidence of learning a new language system, so the process of committing errors is part of learning a language. Learner's errors are not inevitable. Norrish (1983:6) states: "Errors itself may actually be a *necessary* part of learning a language". Learning a new language requires a trial and error approach, Walz says (1982:1) "...errors are seen as a necessary and perhaps beneficial strategy of learning [according to] (Allwright 1975, Gorbet 1974, Hendrickson 1978, Joiner 1975, Mitchell 1978)" and errors are evidence that the learner is testing hypotheses of underlying rules, categories, and systems. Corder (1967:10) clearly states, "A learner's errors, then, provides evidence to the system of the language he is using (i.e., has learned) at a particular point in the course (and it must be repeated that he is using some system, although it is not yet the right system)".

The system of the learner Corder refers to is what he refers to as '*built-in-syllabus*' which shows the learner's progress in certain language aspects. Corder (1967:12) states, "We shall never improve our ability to create such favorable

conditions until we learn more about the way a learner learns and what his built-in syllabus is." Corder's significant article "The Significance of Learners Errors" made this revelation in applied linguistics. Corder in his idea of the 'built-in –syllabus' made a significant claim about second language acquisition. Like the first language, the second language learners have their own syllabus.

In addition, Corder (1967) saw the similarities between first and second language acquisition. He emphasized the great potential for applying new hypotheses about how languages are learned. Corder (1967:27) wants to monitor second language acquisition through the process of first language acquisition, he states:

" if then these hypotheses about language learning are being questioned and new hypotheses being set up to account for the process of child language acquisition, it would seem reasonable to see how far they might also apply to the learning of a second language"

Corder (1967) also links between these hypothesis and the errors, Corder (1967:27) states that "Within this new context, the study of errors takes on a new importance and will I believe contribute to a verification, or rejection of the new hypothesis"

However, the significance of errors in second language acquisition is very clear, and errors have played an important role in the study of language acquisition in general and in examining second foreign language acquisition in particular. Proponents of EA are interested in errors because they believe errors contain valuable information on the strategies that learners use to acquire a language (Dulay and Burt Richards, 1994)

There is no doubt that errors are significant to the teacher, to the researcher and to the learner as well. For instance, errors can give the teacher an idea as to whether to undertake a systematic analysis in teaching or not. Also, indications how far towards the goal the lecturer has progressed, and consequently, what remains for

the learner to learn. As for the researcher, errors provide evidence of how language is learned, acquired, and what strategies, or procedures the learner is employing in the pursuit of the language. Indeed, errors are indispensable to the learner because the making of errors is considered a device, which the learner uses in order to learn. In his invaluable words, Corder (1967:10) states:

"They are (learner's errors) significant in three different ways:
First to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner progressed and consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies, or procedures, the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly (and in a sense this is their most important aspect) they are indispensable to the learner himself."

A conclusion drawn from the above by Wilkins (1972:206) is that "Errors in learning are significant ...there is some value in analysing the reasons for errors, since this will lead, at least, to great understanding of the difficulties that learners face and will perhaps assist in the development of pedagogic strategies."

2.1.4 Errors and Learner's Strategies:

As previously mentioned, learner' errors need not be seen as signs of failures, they are the clearest evidence for the learner's developing systems and can offer insights into how learners process the details of the targeted language. Little (1984:22) elaborates, "...second language learners, too, could be viewed as actively constructing rules from the data they encounter and gradually adapting these rules in the direction of the target language system". So, errors are associated with the strategies that learners employ to acquire a language. Brown (1987:79) defines strategies as "A particular method of approaching a problem or task, a mode of operation for achieving a particular end, a planned design for controlling and manipulating certain information." Although learners of a second language have their

own strategies to acquire the language, the most common strategies among learners are overgeneralization, simplification and transfer, but these strategies, unfortunately, sometimes mislead the learner. The learner commits errors and produces deviant structures in attempt to learn the target language. However, these errors committed by the learner, are not without benefits. These errors give insight into the learning process, as mentioned by Corder (1967) among other linguists.

Corder states (1979: 25) "The making of errors then is a strategy employed both by children acquiring their mother tongue and by those learning a second language." However, as Little (1984:35) states, "We do not understand the learning process sufficiently well to be able to state which strategy is most likely to be applied at a particular stage or in a particular domain of language." Again, most importantly of these strategies seem to be generalisation, transfer, and simplifications.

2.1.5 Errors and Learner's Stages (inter-language):

Brown (1987:175) states, "there are many different ways to describe the progression of linguistic development that learners manifest as their attempts at production successively approximates the target language system", but, as seen learners construct their knowledge of second language through what Corder (1971) calls the internal-*syllabus*, in which second language learners follow natural sequence in internalizing the system of the target language.

Therefore, errors are believed to be an indicator of the learners' stages in target language expansion. From the errors learners commit, one can determine competence developing through stages, based upon observations of what the learner does in terms of errors. Brown (1987) developed an earlier model that was proposed by Corder (1973).

The stages of learner's progress in Corder's model are:

1. The Pre-systematic stage.

2. The Systematic stage.

3. The Post-Systematic stage. Each stage reflects the learners' progress in the target language. Brown (1987) sees the stages as:

1. The first stage, or *random errors* stage, which Corder called "pre-systematic" in which the learner is only vaguely aware that there is some systematic order in language sentences.

2. The second, or *emergent*, stage of inter-language finds the learner growing in consistency in linguistic production. The learner possess a system to internalize language rules; in this stage the learner seems to have grasped a rule, or principle and then regresses to a previous stage.

3. The third stage is a *systematic* stage, which the learner is now able to manifest more consistency in the production of the second language. The most salient difference between the second and third stage is the ability of the learner to correct errors when pointed out, even very subtly.

4. The final stage, Brown (1987) call *stabilization*, and Corder (1973) called "post systematic". Here the learner has relatively few errors and has mastered the system to the point that fluency and intended meaning are not problematic. Moreover, this stage is characterized by the learner's ability to do self-correction.

However, the following table shows the stages of the learner's progress, in terms of learner's competence, contrasting the learner's language production, and capability to correct errors, as well as noting the frequency of the committed errors. The table based on Corder's (1973) explanations.

Table: 2.1

The Learner's Stages in Language Acquisition

The stage	Learner's Competence	Production	Capability to correct errors	Frequency of errors
Pre-systematic	Unaware of L2 rules existence	Produces correct forms occasionally	Can't correct errors, cannot explain why the forms written were produced	Quite randomly
Systematic	Knows some rules	Utilizes the incorrect rules	Can correct errors committed and is accountable for the use of certain rules	Regular
Post-systematic	Knows TL rules	Fails to apply TL rules consistently	Can correct errors and give, more or less, an account of the rules employed	Few and un-inconsistent

Source (Abdalla 1996)

2.2 Sources and Causes of Errors

Learners of a language make errors, even while trying to learn a second language. Linguists' views on learner errors, as seen, have changed over time. Most linguists and researchers believe that the systematic analysis of errors can provide useful insights into the process of language learning. Errors are considered the most important source of information about the learner's ability and development in the target language. Many linguists shared the same view. Among them French (1949:30) pointed out that "Errors are accidents directly attributable to a honest endeavor to get it right." and Corder (1967:11) elaborates "We can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. It is a way the learner has of testing his hypotheses about the nature of the lahguage he is learning."

Generally, errors have played an important role in the study of language acquisition in general and in examining second and foreign language in particular. Therefore, these errors can be observed, analyzed, classified in order to discover the learner's system or strategy, which enables the learner to acquire the target language. To construct errors is a normal procedure. This is why researchers are looking for the sources and causes of errors, in order to better facilitate the learning and teaching process.

Error Analysis then is an operation based on the study of learner's errors, and causes of those errors. Brown (1987:171) states, "EA became distinguished from contrastive analysis by its examination of errors attributable to all possible sources not just those which result from negative transfer of the native language."

The sources and causes of errors come under the last stage in Error Analysis procedures dealing with the why and the how these errors occur.

There are many factors that contribute to learner's errors. Linguists and researchers in second language acquisition, as well as teachers, have identified many factors as the causes of errors. Norrish (1983) in his book *Language Learners and their Errors* tried to answer the question, What causes errors? Subsequently, he mentioned more than ten causes of errors and concluded by saying (1983:41) "An attempt has been made to describe at least some of the many possible causes of language learner errors." The following section highlights some of the causes of the errors, mentioned by many linguists.

2.2.1 First Language Interference

Inter-lingual transfer, or the influence of the mother tongue in second language learning, is quite noticeable in second language acquisition. It is likely, for the learner, to transfer first language characteristics to the target language system.

According to CA linguists, there are two types of mother tongue influences, one is positive, called "positive transfer", and the other is negative, labeled "interference". As Lado (1957) mentioned, the positive transfer is suppose to facilitate learning because of the similarities between the structure of the mother tongue and the target language.

Therefore, contrastive analysis proponents claim, "The influence of the mother tongue in second language learning has either a positive or negative influence." Lado (1957:2) claims

" A student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to [the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult."

So, Lado sets his theory according to the first language influence.

However, based on behaviorist theory, interference of the mother tongue in learning, or the negative transfer causes errors, due to the structure of the two languages being different.

Norrish (1983:22) explains how the errors occurred and how they are caused by mother tongue interference, "The learner's utterances were thought to be gradually *'shaped'* towards those of the language he was learning." Norrish (1983) further explains Skinner's (1957) definitive statement of the behaviorist theory of language learning, Norrish (1983:22) accordingly states, "... if language is essentially a set of habits, then when we try to learn new habits the old ones will interfere with the new

ones." This is what is called mother tongue interference. That is exactly how the interference happens. The new code system interferes with the old code system.

In fact, mother tongue interference is the major source of learners' errors particularly in the beginning stages of learning a second language. Because the learner has extensive experience with the first language, Brown says (1987:177) "In these early stages, before the system of the second language is familiar, the native language is the only linguistic system in his previous experience upon which the learner can draw." So, the learner knows one system, and from this system constructs his communication. Although, a popular belief mentioned earlier, second language acquisition (SLA) is strongly influenced by the learner's first language (L1), but as Ellis (1985:39) says "There is considerable disagreement among researchers about the extent and nature of role of the L1" because the role of L1 was closely linked to behaviourism, which saw language learning as a process of habit-formation. Therefore, as Wilkins (1972:201) states "It is an over-simplification to say that differences cause errors, while similarities do not". However, as a result of research to validate the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) as Ellis (1985:40) says "The importance of L1 interference was questioned and fell into disfavour". However, the impact of negative transfer in second language learning is found at all levels of language: syntax, morphology, phonology, lexis and semantics. Foreign language learners produce sentences, which indicate influences of the first language. For instance, when analyzing this sentence أخذت الطالبة الصورة 'akhadhat 'aT-Taaibatu

'aS-Suwrata (The female student took the photo). The following errors from the Malay learner who produces the above sentence are expected, changes of the tense of the verb may occur, "ya'khudhu"

(بأخذ), instead of "akhadhtu" أخذت and the shifting the tense, from the past to the present. Simultaneously, changes of gender from feminine to masculine. For the subject 'aT-Taalibah" (الطالبة) omission of the definition article 'al (ال) as well as the suffix, ta (ة), which indicates the gender. Also, pronouncing the sound of "T" (ط) as "t" (ت) in 'aT-Taalibah" (الطالب), and the sound of "S" (ص) in "aS-Surah" (الصورة) as "s" (س), the student may write 'as-surah (الصورة) as 'as-surat (السورة) which means a letter in BM. So, the sentence becomes:(ya'khudh Taalibu suwraat) بأخذ طالب سورات

These examples may account for the interference of the mother tongue of the Malay learners of Arabic. This interference may occur at all levels of language, namely, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics, as mentioned earlier.

Another example noticed by the researcher and other teachers of how first language interference can affect the pronunciation of certain words, in the Arabic language, is the way some Malay learners pronounce "na'am" i.e., "yes" (نعم), they pronounce it as "na'aam" (ناعم), using a long vowel, whereas the correct pronunciation is a short vowel.

Abddalla (1996:130) cited two examples of interference of the first language writing system of Bahasa Melayu (BM) in writing Arabic. Accordingly, these examples are taken from the Malay learners of the Arabic language. The interference is traced to the Jawi transcript, which is used to write the Arabic alphabet. The Examples are:

1. فراء qara` instead of قرأ qara`a "read"

2. الشعرا `ash-shu'ara`) instead of الشعراء `ash-shu'araa`) "the poets.

However, the examples also could be attributed to language difficulties because the writing of (همزة) (hamza) is difficult even for native Arabic speakers.

Krashen (1981:64) states, "Empirical studies of errors made by second language students led to the discovery, however, that many errors are not traceable to the structure of the first language, but are common to second language performers of different linguistic backgrounds." Under the role of the first language in second language acquisition Krashen (1981) discusses three points of the first language influence on second language learning:

1. First language influence appears to be strongest in complex word order and in word-for-word translations of phrases. Then, he mentions the evidence of this generalization by quoting Duskova (1961), "interference from the mother tongue ...was plainly obvious in errors of word order and sentence construction".

2. First language influence is weaker in bound morphology. He says, "Duskova (1961) notes that errors in bound morphology (e.g. the omission of plurals of nouns, lack of subject-verb agreement, adjective-noun agreement) are not due to the first language influence."

3. First language influence seems to be strongest in "acquisition poor" environment. This phenomenon, as stated by Krashen (1981), is quite notable in Malay learners of Arabic. The researcher strongly supports Krashen's research finding.

In summary, one can say, although first language influence is not the only source of errors in second language learning, Krashen (1981:67) says, "First language influence may therefore be an indication of the law of acquisition."

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In general, research findings on errors of the Malay learners of Arabic language, cited by Jassem (1999), and Abdalla (1996), indicate "The mother tongue interference as the major source of errors." However, the researcher supports what Ellis (1985:40) states, "If SLA is viewed as a developmental process...then the L1 can be viewed as contributing to this development, which in the course of time, as the learner proficiency grows, will become less powerful."

2.2.2 Intra Lingual Transfer

Several errors made by learners were not the result of negative transfer from mother tongue, but were due to other variables independent of L2 influence, according to Haded (1998:56) "Linguistics studies reveal that some of the L2 learners' errors do not have their source in L1." However, if inter-lingual transfer refers to L1 language interference and its influence in second language learning, intra-lingual transfer on the other hand, are errors which result from overgeneralization of target language structure, as Richard (1971) quoted Haded (1998). However; Chau (1975:119) states, "The problem of "difficulty" in second language (SL) learning has long attracted the interest of specialists from various disciplines ...it is a common experience that languages are difficult to learn."

Therefore, the difficulties of the target language are the major causes of errors in second language learning. Linguists have noticed that mother tongue interference, i.e., the transfer from the learner's language, shapes the early stages of language learning. Once the learner starts to acquire parts of the new system, more and more intra-lingual transfer difficulties of the T L are experienced. According to Chau (1975:136) the target language internal complexities in second language learning could be seen:

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"Unable to apply rules to all exceptions."

"Rules not uniform."

"So much (of verbs forms) to remember."

Taylor (1975:74) states, "many errors which second language learners make can be attributed to inherent difficulties, and/or irregularities in ..." the target language.

According to Brown (1987), intra lingual transfer is the negative counterpart of over generalization.

An inherent difficulty of the target language is one of the main problems; encountered by the second language learners (Abdalla 1996, Jassem 1999).

However, there is no language without difficulties as Chau (1975) mentioned above, and learning a second language is not easy. Among these languages, is the Arabic language which is considered full of inherent difficulties. Also, the Arabic native speaker may find it difficult to learn, at one time or another, especially the grammar of the language, (Abdalla 1996).

The learners of the Arabic language find difficulties in the writing system because each Arabic letter has three shapes in writing, in the beginning of the word, as i (عمر) 'umar in the middle, as in (سعد) sa'd and at the end of the word as in (سمع) sami'a. Notice that the letter (ع) ('ayn) takes three shapes in writing.

In the area of phonology, most non-native learners of Arabic find the sounds of (ص) Saad, (ض) Daad, (ط) Taa', (ظ) Zaa', (ع) 'ayn and (غ) ghayn, difficult to pronounce. In addition, non-native learners find difficulty in distinguishing between (ق) qaaf and (ك) kaaf: (Abdalla, 1996).

Other parts of the language, such as pronunciation, gender, person, number, tense, verb conjugation, lexis, etc... are also full of difficulties for foreign learners. The researcher notice that some structures are difficult for second language learners of Arabic, and learners face difficulties, if they want to produce these structures, perfectly:

الطالبة كتبت الرسالة aT-Taalibah katabati 'ar-risaalata (A female student wrote the letter).

الطالبتان كتبنا الرسالة aT-Taaliataani katabataa 'ar-risaalata (two female students wrote

the letter) الطالبات كتبن الرسالة aT-Taalibatu katabna 'ar-risaalata (the female students wrote the letter) These students couldn't form the verb correctly with the correct person, and number: katabat, katabataà, katabna. كتبت، كتبنا،كتبن

However, in dealing with linguistic difficulties one has to bear in mind the learner's needs because the matter has link with both learning and teaching dimensions as states by Nickel (1971:219) "Undoubtedly the problem of difficulty plays a very important role in connection with language teaching and language learning. It is important for the producer of language material because in the ordering of linguistic facts the latter must know something about the problem of difficulty from the learner's point of view."

2.2.3 Negative Transfer

Transfer is a normal process in learning, or as Brown (1987:81) puts it "Transfer is a general term describing the carry over of previous performance or knowledge to subsequent learning". Therefore, transfer in learning a second language is also common because learners used to carry their previous knowledge, with its

negative features, and mistakes, as well as positive side. What is meant here is not positive transfer, which Norrish (1983:128) defines as "use of what the learner knows about his first language to try and assist expression in the target language."

A negative transfer is the effects of 'habits' formed in the learner's first language acting upon the second language and this happens as Brown (1987:81) says, "When the previous performance disrupts the performance on a second task.

Some linguists, including Brown (1987:81) refer to the negative transfer, as interference. The researcher is of the opinion that a negative transfer could be interference from the first language, or mistakes and errors due to inadequate teaching.

On the other hand, Haja Mohideen (1991:95-96) makes a difference between transfer and over generalization as "in the latter a learner is using his/her previous or current knowledge of the second language, but in the case of transfer he is using his knowledge of his L1".

Jassem (1999:77) and Nickal (1989) are of the opinion that transfer is common in second language beginners due to their poor knowledge of the target language. However, when, Nickel (1969:298) points out "Under conditions of stress, as in an examination, the transfer will increase even in case of the advanced students.

To conclude, negative transfer is the common phenomena in learners of second language transferring their previous language system, as well as their errors, and difficulties in the target language.

2.2.4 Overgeneralization

To generalize, is "to infer or derive a law, rule, or conclusion, usually from the observation of particular instances" as Brown (1987:82) states. Jakobovist-quoted in Richards (1974)- defines generalization, or transfer as

> "The use of previously available strategies in new situations...In second language learning...some of these strategies will prove helpful in organising the facts about the second language, but others, perhaps due to superficial similarities, will be misleading and inapplicable"

Generalization is an important strategy in human learning and in second language learning in particular. Overgeneralization, usually involves the use of previously learned patterns as a model of a new pattern. For instance, if the leaner has learned the underlying pattern of forming the masculine sound plural as "singular noun + wa nuwn ون = masculine sound plural" and in mu'alim, mu'alimuwn معلمون - ون + معنم,

the learner may produce an ill-form such as walad, waladuwn ولدون - ون + ولد, over generalizing the previous structure and produces the ill- form pattern. So, it is an inappropriate application of previously learned element of the target language in a new situation. It is exactly as Richards says (1974:174) "Overgeneralization covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure of the bases of experiences of other structures in the target language."

In relation to the above, overgeneralization is a process that occurs when the second language learner acts within the target language, generalizing a particular rule, or item in the second language irrespective of the native language as mentioned by Brown (1987).

Previously voiced, if interference is the negative counterpart of transfer, overgeneralization is also the negative counterpart of generalization. While the

transfer and generalization facilitate the language learning. The negative counterpart, interference and overgeneralization, cause errors, or hinders the learning process.

Norrish (1983:129) defines over generalization as "A failure by the learner to apply restrictions where appropriate to the application of a rule". A Malay learner sometimes tries to apply the rule of the sound plural masculine in the place of broken plural saying معلم،معلمون (teacher, teachers), correctly, whereas stating ولد،ولدون (boy, boys), incorrectly, while it should be said أولاد (`awlaad). The learner fails to apply the restrictions of the rule, thus over generalizing the rule.

The inappropriate application of previously learned material of the target language in new situations of the target language is quite common among second language learners, as well as those learning first language. Brown (1987:82) observes that "We have already observed that children, at a particular stage of learning English as a native language, over generalize regular past-tense endings (walked, opened) as applicable to all past-tense forms (goed, flied) until they recognize a subset of verbs which belongs in an "irregular Category". Second language learners also over generalize. Brown (1987:82) says, "After gaining some exposure and familiarity with the second language, second language learners similarly will over generalize within the target language."

Malay learners of Arabic language generalize the rules irrespective of its restrictions; in syntax, for example, they add `al (ال) to miSr (مصر) they say `amiSr (المصر) which is a proper name. It does not need an article, also as mentioned before, they add (ون) to the broken plural they say: `T-Taalibuwn (الطالبون) instead of `T-

Tulaab (الطلاب)

In the Lexical area, the Malay learner does not know the semantic limit of the words, or in other words, extend the meaning of the words, maybe saying: `kaltu 'd-dawaa` أكلت الدواء 'I ate the medicine' instead of tanaawltu 'ad-dawaa` تناولت الدواء 'I took the medicine.' This example is also suitable as an instance of mother tongue interference, because in BM they say: (saya makan ubat), (I ate the medicine).

The implementation of overgeneralization in language learning, for some linguists, is restricted to three rules as Abdalla (1996:131) cited:

1. The learner must master basic rules of the target language.

2. The learner does not know how to apply these rules appropriately.

3. The learner must be an active participant in the language acquisition process and is exercising already acquired knowledge of the target language in a creative way, neither operating under repetition, nor in imitation strategy, or transferring native structures in his target attempts" as Tylor (1975:4) states.

However, from the researcher's teaching experience, learners over generalize, without the above-mentioned conditions, except for the second one.

2.2.5 Carelessness

Norrish (1983) has been using this term (carelessness), which refers to the learner who lakes attention in learning. So, one can say that this is not a linguistic source of errors, or as Norrish (1983:21) states "carelessness is often closely related to lack of motivation." According to Norrish(1983) it is not always the student's fault when losing interest; perhaps the materials, or the style of presentation are not suitable.

However, carelessness is a major cause of errors in Malay learners, and constructing an error is seen as inconsiderable. A Malay learner may have studied the Arabic language for an extended period of time without any improvement, due to carelessness.

Malay learners of Arabic are considered excellent learners in terms of their ability to read, and to recite the holy Qur'aan. However, they lack understanding of the words produced, due to many reasons attributed to carelessness. However, their motivation is also questionable. If there is a correlation between motivation, and carelessness, as stated by Norrish (1983), one way of reducing the number of 'careless' errors in written work is to get students to check each other's work.

2.2.6 Context of Learning

The context of learning mainly refers to the classroom, or as Brown (1987:179) puts it, "context" refers for example, to the classroom with its teacher and its materials in the case of school learning, or the social situation in the case of untutored second language learning."

The teacher's methods and materials may lead the learner to commit errors, and to make faulty hypotheses about the language. This is what Richards (1971) who quoted Brown (1987:179) called "false concepts" and what Stenson (1974) termed "induced errors."

Brown (1987:179) explains, "Students often make errors because of a misleading explanation from the teacher, faulty presentation of a structure, or word in a text book, or even because of a pattern that was rotely memorized in a drill, but not properly contextualized." The following points clarify the context of learning.

2.2.6 (a) The Model

The language teacher plays an important role in facilitating learning through skill and personality. These are the main issues in creating the conditions of learning. The teacher should be proficient in the language being taught. Many language teachers do not adhere to the language they teach, relying upon use their native language, as well as translations. Thus, contributing to student errors. Other teachers do not prepare their lessons adequately. Therefore, what will students get? Some teachers, as Gorge (1972:2) says, " ...use forms which would be classed as "unwanted" by other teachers".

Another kind of instructional model contributing to the source of errors in learners, the non-Arabic language subject teachers, not proficient in the target language. But they somehow teach subjects related to the target language becoming a source of students' errors because what the model instructor teaches is what the students learn.

2.2.6 (b) Incomplete Application of Rules

One of the contextual learning errors is the incomplete application of rules, which according to Richards (1974:177), refers to "The occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances." Hence, Richards (1974) suggests two possible causes of errors in the incomplete application of rules.

1. The use of the question in the classroom.

2. The Communication of deviant forms.

For the first type of errors, Richards (1974) believes that a grammatical question form may never become part of competence in the second language. Accordingly,

redundancy maybe an explanatory factor for this phenomenon. However, the learner fails to complete the rules, being encouraged by the teacher to repeat the question, or part of the question in the answer. Richards (1974:177) says, "The use of questions is a common teaching device. Typically, they are used, not to ascertain information, but as a means of eliciting sentences." However, the teacher instead of involving students in discussions reverses to correct their mistakes. Richards (1974:178) cities some examples:

Teacher's Question	Student's Response
Do you read much?	Yes, I read much.
What does she tell him?	She tell him to hurry.
Will they soon be ready?	Yes, they soon be ready.

As for the second type of errors Norrish (1983:33) "The other possible cause is the fact that the learner may discover that he can communicate perfectly adequate using deviant forms." However, the above-mentioned examples could be useful for both incomplete application of rules, as well as the model.

2.2.6 (c) The Method of Teaching

Similar to the teacher, the method of teaching plays an important role, in language learning. Additionally, the teaching method can contribute to errors, especially if the teacher depends solely upon one method and neglects others. Teachers should compare methods, and should not ascribe to one method because of not knowing other methods that are better for students.

Teachers should also teach all aspects of the language. If the teacher stresses the writing skill, for instance, the learner will improve in writing, while other skills such as listening, speaking, and reading may remain weak.

2.2.6 (d) The Materials

Preparing materials is an important matter for teaching a language. The materials form aids for commendable teaching. However, teaching materials, which lack organization, not appropriate for use, or are not properly organized may lead to errors.

Norrish (1983:33) reports, "Two further types of errors which may be induced by teaching materials are:

1. The 'false concept'.

2. Ignorance of rule restrictions.

An example of the false concept in teaching the Arabic language is teaching the plural system, especially the broken plural jam' 'at-taksiyr (جمع التكسير) and the sound plural

jam' 'almudhakr 'as-saalim (جمع المذكر السالم), because, as mentioned earlier, students

are confused with adding the suffix ون (waaw, nuwn), or ين (yaa',nuwn), to the broken

plural, instead of adding this suffixes to the sound plural. On the other hand, Norrish (1983) gave the use of the present continuous tense in the wrong situation in English language, as an example for the false concept. However, as Norrish (1983:34) puts it "it is probably even more difficult to avoid errors arising from the ignorance of rule restrictions than it is to avoid false conceptualision because such errors often involve the construction of the false analogies." So, induced errors may be caused by teaching materials.

2.2.7 Communication Strategies

Second language learners in their attempts to encode meaning use many communication strategies.

Communication strategies, in general, are those specific ways of how to use expression in certain situations, or according to Brown (1987:91) "attacks" that are made on a given problem.

In second language learning, differentiates between learning strategies and communication strategies, as Brown (1987:91) says, "The former relates to "input" to processing, storage and retrieval."

The latter has more to do with "output", or expressing meaning in the language, acting upon what is already known, or presumed to be known." However, communication strategies occur, when a learner attempts to express the target language, in a situation where the appropriate words, or terms of the target language have not been formed.

Research on second language learning has identified a number of communication strategies. Studies on second language learning, classified the topic of communication strategies to: good, bad and neutral Brown (1987:181) reports that " in an article on "Easifying" second language learning, Cohen and Aphek (1981) were able to observe both "good" and "bad" communication "strategies"... and some "neutral" strategies were detected..."

Communication strategies, defined by many linguist Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1983:25) are defined as communication strategies used as systematic attempts by the learner to express, or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed."

Faerch and Kasper quoted Brown's (1987:180) definition of communication strategy as "potentially conscious plans for solving what an individual presents itself as problem in reaching a particular communicative goal."

Gass and Selinker (1994:330) define communication strategies as "An approach used by learners when the need to express a concept, or an idea in the second language, but do not have the linguistic resources to do so." When second language learners encounter difficulty in communication expressions, they use some strategies. The common strategies used by learners, are discussed in the following sections.

2.2.7 (a) Avoidance

Avoidance is a common communication strategy, used by second language learners, reflecting what a language learner tends to avoid by not using certain language elements in productive skills. When learners experience difficulty with words, whose meanings they are not sure of, avoidance is utilized as a strategy of communication. Corder (1981:105), when he says "A refusal to enter into, or continue a discourse within some field or topic because of a feeling of total linguistic inadequacy," explains this clearly.

Avoidance can be grouped into several subcategories. According to Brown (1987:183) the most common type of avoidance strategy is syntactic, or lexical avoidance within a semantic category." Corder (1981:105) also mentions topic avoidance and "message abandonment". He states a less extreme form of topic avoidance ' message abandonment' which the learner is trying, but gives up.

Schachter (1974) in her article "An Error in Error Analysis" gave an example of syntactic avoidance in the English relative clause produced by Persians, Arabs,

Chinese, Japanese and American speakers. The table below highlights the results of her study.

Table 2.2

Relative Clause Productions in Five Language Groups

Group	Correct	Error	Total	Error %
Persian	131	43	174	25
Arab	123	31	154	20
Chinese	67	9	76	12
Japanese	58	5	63	8
American	173	0	173	0

Schachter (1974:210) points out "it is plausible and I think correct to suppose that they (Chinese and Japanese) produce fewer relative clauses in English because they are trying to avoid them and that they only produce them in English when they are relatively sure that they are correct." The Chinese used the relative clause only seventy six times, and recorded only nine errors. Schchter traces this to avoidance.

Brown (1987) gave another example of a lexical avoidance within a semantic category. Observe the following conversation between a second language learner and a native speaker. The learner is asking about directions (way),

L: I lost my road

NS: You lost your road?

L: Uh, I lost. I lost I got lost.

The learner could not come up with the correct word "way" in this situation resulting in the avoidance the lexical item 'road' completely.

2.2.7 (b) Appeal to Authority

This is a common strategy among foreign language learners. It is direct looking for assistance from the teacher, assistance from the native speaker, or assistance from a dictionary.

Appeal to authority occurs when a learner has difficulty in choosing a particular word, a particular phrase, or is "stuck" directly asks the authoritan (the teacher or a native speaker). For example, can I say... "Or" what is the word for dean in Arabic?" Abdalla (1996:141) gives an example on how a Malaysian student appeals to authority:

Teacher: الى أين تذهب `ila ayna tadhhabu? (Where are you going?)

Student: (Dean) الى مكتب ...مكتب ...مكتب ...ماذا تقول في اللغة العربية لـ

`adhhabu `ila maktab. ..maktab...maktab... maadha taquwlu fy allugha `al-`arabiyyah li "dean"? I am going to office. ...Office.... office what do you say in Arabic for "dean"?

Brown (1987:185) mentioned another example of a foreign student of English as a second language, when he introduced himself to the class "Allow me to introduce myself and tell you some of the ..." then, he pulled out his pocket dictionary and looked up some words and continued, "...some of the headlights of my past."

2.2.7 (c) Prefabricated Patterns

The learner uses this strategy, at the beginning of language learning experience when not knowing the structure of the target language usage.

Prefabricated patterns means to use certain patterns of the target language from memory, so the chance of the errors is there. However, Brown (1987:184)

defines prefabricated patterns as "to memorize certain stock phrases, or sentences without internalized knowledge of the components of the phrase."

Prefabricated patterns are sources of errors, and the errors come from the process of sorting the patterns in the memory. Brown (1985) gave a joyful example, from his experience of learning the Kikongo language in Africa. He said, instead of saying " I don't know Kikongo" he said, " I don't like Kikongo." Although, the fact that the error usually comes with prefabricated patterns, it has some significance as Hakuta (1976:333) elaborates, " [it]...enables learners to express functions which they are yet unable to construct from their linguistic system, simply storing them in a sense like large lexical items."

As mentioned, in this strategy, errors are often made in the process of storing items, and errors occur according to Brown (1987:185) " ...due largely to the rote nature of the items, but their rottenness is a factor of a lack of knowledge of the structural rules for forming the particular utterance."

Abdalla (1996:143) reports on prefabricated patterns by Malay learners of Arabic at the beginning of the learning experience. He says, "For example, a pattern like ما اسمك؟ (maa 'ismuka?) What, is your name? used for addressing a male is sometimes used by a learner in addressing a female." This is so, because the Malay learner, says "siapa nama?" in their language for both genders, therefore, the learners couldn't differentiate between ('ismuka) your name for male, and ('ismuki) your name for female. One can continue citing more examples used as prefabricated patterns by Malay learners of Arabic. They say kayfa Haaluka كيف حالك؟ , (How are you?), kam 'umruka كم عمرك؟ (How old are you) and they answer 'anaa bikhayr انا خير

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(I'm fine), shukraN شكرا (thank you), ma'a 'as-salaamah مع السلامة (see you). The

Malay learners of Arabic at all levels, beginners, intermediate, and advance know

these sorts of patterns. They know these patterns from the early stages of their

learning experience of the Arabic language. Some of these patterns are sometimes

humorous.

2.2.7 (d) Language Switch

Finally, when a learner fails to produce a meaningful utterance, after employing

appeal, avoidance, transfer and other strategies, he, or she may switch to another

language. Meaning, the learners turn to words in their first language and uses these

words in the target language context, irrespective of whether the hearer knows the

native language, or not.

In their written compositions, the Malay learners switch to Bahasa Malaysia when

writing in Arabic, producing sentences, such as: (Pejabat Pos ذهبت إل) 'dhahabtu 'ilea

pejabat pos' "I went to Post Office", instead of "ذهبت إل مكتب البريد", 'dhahabtu 'ilea

maktab 'albariyd.' The learner here fail to produce the correct and complete sentence.

2.2.7 (e) Approximation

The learner in this strategy uses a single vocabulary item, or structure, which

the learner knows is incorrect, but according to Brown (1987:183) "... shares enough

semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e.g. pipe for

water-pipe).

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Approximation for Malay learners of Arabic language is a very common strategy, saying, jaml جمل Camel (male) for shaatuN شاة or بعير (ba'iyyr) .

Abdallah (1996:143) also gave another example of the use of approximation by learners of Arabic language "A learner says in Arabic, تقع بيروت على شاطئ النهر الأبيض المتوسط (taqa'u bayrut 'alae shaaTiy' an-nahri al'abyaDi 'almutawasiTi) "Beirut lies on the coast of the Mediterranean river ", of course intending to say: تقع بيروت على شاطئ البحر الأبيض المتوسط "Beirut lies on the cost of the Mediterranean sea." The given example shows the approximation between (river), and (sea), the learner knows the word (Mediterranean), and uses it correctly.

2.2.7 (f) Word Coinage

In this strategy, the learner creates a new word, or phrase, in order to convey the intended meaning. Brown (1987:183) gave an example of "air ball for balloon." The learner here makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept.

In the Arabic language, Abdullah (1996:141) gave an example of a Korean who was not aware of the word ثدي (thady) "breast" Instead stated صندوق اللبن (Sanduwqu 'allabani) "the box of milk. The learner created a new phrase "the box of the milk" for the word (thadyuN) ثدي.

2.2.7 (g) Circumlocution:

When a learner fails to recall the exact lexical item, the learner resorts to describing the characteristics, the elements of the object, or the action instead of using the appropriate target language item, or structure. Brown (1983) gave an example to illustrate how a foreign language describes a person smoking a cigar he says, "She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name. That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of." However, we can cite the previous example of the Arabic learner (صندوق اللبن) here because the learner describes the characteristics of the object " the box of the milk", while not knowing the name of the object.

Second language learners utilize the mentioned strategies when facing communicate situations where, they cannot find the appropriate words, appropriate terms of the target language to use resorting in avoidance using prefabricate patterns, switching to their mother tongue, or other strategies.

2.3 Error Classification

This section presents some outlines about the classification of errors. However, before dealing with different views by linguists, the question of what is an error has to be answered.

2.3.1 What is an Error?

The term error is defined differently by numerous linguists, among them Corder (1974), Richards (1971), and George (1972).

George (1972:2) in his book *Common Errors in Language Learning* defines an error as "An unwanted form; especially, a form which a particular course designer, or teacher does not want."

Dulay and Burt (1972:95) in their article *You Can't Learn without Goofing* introduced the term 'goof, which according to them signifies deviations from syntactic structures which native adult speakers consider grammatically correct" i.e., committing errors by non-native speakers.

Lengo (1985:2) makes a distinction between native speakers and foreign language learners regarding errors. He believes errors are derived from competence. Lengo differentiates between competence and performance in errors with regards to language learner standards.

In comparing between foreign language learners competence and native speakers performance Lengo (1985) concedes, that many of the deviant forms produced by uneducated and less educated native speakers are regarded as non-standard, while foreign language learners' errors are mostly accounted for in terms of their learning stages. They cannot be termed non standard because learners do not belong to a particular geographical, or social group in the target language."

Corder (1973) defines an error, as a breach of the language code, of which the foreign language learner has not yet mastered. He says (1973:259) " I have referred to errors as "breaches of code" and further says, "native speakers are able to correct their own errors, but learners cannot by any means always do so. ... You cannot break a rule that you do not know." Corder, also distinguishes between native speaker errors and second language learner errors. However, linguists do not deal with errors the same way. Linguists pay special attention to second language learner's errors.

The term "error", in this study refers, to a systematic deviation from a selected norm, referring to the standard Arabic language with special reference to the Arabic language taught at the Matriculation center IIUM, that is a series of "al'arabiyah lilnaash`yyn" العربية للناشئين.

2.3.2 Errors, Mistakes and Lapses:

Corder (1967) makes a distinction between three types of 'faults' in terms of 'performance' and 'competence'. These faults are, errors, mistakes, and lapses. Corder (1967:10) says "The errors of performance will characteristically be unsystematic and the errors of competence, systematic."

The discrimination between, errors, mistakes, and lapses, rely to a very large degree on the conception of competence and performance. However, the grammatically incorrect form is termed error. The socially inappropriate form is a mistake, and the slip of the tongue is called a lapse, according to many linguists, Bell (1972). There are more explanations for each category.

2.3.2 (a) Errors:

As Bell (1981:172) states, "An error is a sure sign that the learner has not mastered the code of the target language." Bell (1972) attributes the grammatical errors to the lack of the knowledge of second language learning. He elaborates, " ...if an error indicates faulty knowledge of the grammar of the L2, we must define the error as something which arises as a result of L2 learning and is not, therefore, to be found in the L1 user of the language." Bell, here, signifies the systematic errors, within the second language context.

Learner errors disclose the underlying knowledge of the learner; Corder (1967:10) changes the term error to refer to "systematic errors of the learner, from which we are able to reconstruct his knowledge of the language to date, i.e., his transitional competence." So, the grammatically incorrect forms of the target language show the learner ability, or as Corder say " his transitional competence". The incorrect forms are classified as errors.

2.3.2 (b) Mistakes:

Mistakes are characteristically unsystematic, and of no significance to the language learning process. They are expected from both the second language learner, as well as the native speaker. Bell (1981:172) makes a contrast between mistakes made by the native speaker and those made by second language learner. He says "…. both L1 and L2 users of a language make mistakes". In committing such mistakes, "the native is far more likely to realize that his behavior has been judged to be socially unacceptable and is also far more likely to take steps to remedy the mistake than is the L2 user." The second language learner may produce an utterance, "which, perfectly grammatical though it may be, breaks some social rules of which he is not aware."

Thus, first and second language learners make regular mistakes, within the performance of their language. It would be quite unreasonable to expect the learner of the second language, or even the native speaker not to commit mistakes when performing the language, so these types of mistakes will not indicate the learners underlying competence. That is why Corder (1967:10) says; "It will be useful therefore hereafter to refer to errors of performance as *mistakes*, reserving the term errors to refer to systematic errors of the learner…" Therefore, the errors of performance are unsystematic and the errors of competence, systematic. Corder's (1967:10) gives details, in his own words "we must therefore make a distinction between those errors which are the product of such chance circumstances and those which reveal his underlying knowledge of the language to date, or, as called it, his transitional competence". Therefore, mistakes are due to errors of performance, or chance circumstances.

2.3.2 (c) Lapses:

Second language learners/speakers, as well as native speakers, make many errors of performance, which are not attributed to incomplete, or incorrect language system. Bell (1981:172) elaborates,

"Since face-to face communication is a 'real – time activity, all speakers whether native or not make slips or lapses". So, lapses, or slips of the tongue, or of the pen due to psychological factors, such as tiredness, excitement, etc. Lapses are not systematic like mistakes; therefore we can ignore them for teaching practical purposes."

However, linguists make a clear distinction between errors, or systematic errors, which reflect a defect in a learner linguistics competence, mistakes, or random errors in performance which attributed to memory lapses, or physical states. Therefore, lapses are part of unsystematic errors, that is to say mistakes because they are defined as adventitious. Along with this distinction, it is the researcher's opinion to classify the following types of errors under the heading of lapses:

1. **Anticipation errors:** when a learner misplaces a sound, or a word in a sentence, and brings it forward Richard (1985), gave an example: "I will put your cat in the cupboard, instead of I will put your hat in the cupboard."

2. **Preservation errors:** is also a slip of a tongue, and this occurs when a sound, or a word, reappears after the learner already uttered it. Matthews (1997:273) says: "... in which a sound, etc. in one word is repeated in one that follows." An example of preservation errors is given by Richard (1985: 344) " The President of Prance, instead of the President of France."

3. **Reversal Errors:** occurs as Richard (1985:344) says, "When the position of sounds, syllables, or words is reserved". An example of reversal errors is to say in Arabic: (جزر) "jazr" instead of (زجر) "zajr" which means to forbid.

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Another example given by Richard (1985:344) "Let us have chish and fips, instead of let us have fish and chips".

This classification of "mistakes", "errors' and "lapses" have no significance to the teacher and learner because the learner can't distinguish between these types, and as Boon (1985:16) says "To a teacher, this classification into "mistakes" and "errors" is not very useful as it does not indicate the possible causes of the errors and their seriousness," therefore, the classification is not useful to the teacher.

2.3.3 Intra-Lingual and Developmental Errors:

In his significance article " A non-contrastive Approach to Error Analysis", Richard (1971) points out that interference from the mother tongue is not the major factor in causing errors. He gave sentences representing these types of errors. Some of these examples are: " Did he comed?, What you are doing?, I can to speak French, etc." Richard claims that interference of the mother tongue has no effect on theses errors. However, Richard coins a new term for these types of errors calling them intra lingual, and developmental errors (1971:173). These types of errors "reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition."

Furthermore, Richard makes a distinction between intra-lingual errors, and developmental errors Richards says (1971:174) "intra-lingual errors are those which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply." Also, "developmental errors illustrate the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about the (English) language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or text book." However, a clear distinction is made between interference

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errors and intra lingual errors. As for intra lingual errors and developmental errors Richard (1985:104) says, " These overgeneralizations are a natural, or developmental stages in language learning."

As mentioned Richards (1971) classified errors into:

1. *Intra-lingual errors* are caused by interference within the target language.

2. *Developmental errors* are caused by interference from the mother tongue.

   However, these classifications of errors are not without their problems, as Boon (1985: 16) states, "Teachers are seldom proficient enough in more than one language to be able to distinguish between inter-lingual and intra-lingual errors."

2.3.4. Global Errors and Local Errors

A global error is an error, which makes a sentence, an utterance impossible, or difficult to be understood, hindering communication. As Burt (1975:54) puts it, "Those affect overall sentence organization." According to Burt, the most systematic global errors are caused by:

1. Misplaced word order

2. Missing, incorrect or misplaced sentence connectors

3. Missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rules

4. Over generalizing pervasive syntactic rules to exceptions (in transformational terms, not observing select ional restrictions on certain lexical items).

In their article *Global and Local Mistakes* Burt and Kiparsky (1974) distinguish between global error and local error. A global error is one that violates rules involving the overall structure of a sentence. Thus, global errors, according to Burt and Kiparsky (1974:73) "Hinder communication preventing the hearer from

comprehending some aspect of the message." For example, if the learner is confused about the final word in the sentence, the response will be wrong, and the sentence would need to be corrected.

Meanwhile, a local error is one, which causes trouble in a particular constituent. Meaning it does not cause problems of comprehension, or hinders the meaning. Burt (1975:57) defines local errors as: "Errors that affect signal elements (constituents) in a sentence do not usually hinder communication significantly."

Usually, local errors do not prevent the message from being heard, because there is only a minor violation of one segment of a sentence, allowing the hearer/reader to make an accurate guess about the intended meaning. That is why some researchers have suggested that: a " sentence with both global and local mistakes improves much more when a global mistake is corrected than a local one."

This classification seems useful to teachers because they have encountered situations where locating errors in their places is difficult, or as Lengo (1995: 4) puts it, "Teachers often end up covering a whole sentence, or paragraph with remarks." This phenomenon implies that an error is not always something that can be easily spotted."

2.4 Selected Error Studies

A great deal of research has focused on Error Analysis. Corder (1973, 1975, 1981) Richards (1971), Selinder (1972), Jain (1974), Dulay and Burt (1974), Politer and Ramirez (1973), all are distinguished researchers in the field of language learning. The following is a selection of some of the significant studies in the field of the Arabic Language, of errors made by Malaysian students learning Arabic.

Jassem (1999) has conducted a study on the Arabic verb phrase by Malay Islamic secondary school learners of Arabic. Jassem's study consists of seven chapters. In these chapters Jassem sets up the problem, reviews the related literature and describes the main Arabic verb features. Then, Jassem analyses the errors of the samples. The data of the study was compiled from two written compositions:

The first topic,

1. Write a letter to your friend, explaining to him how you spend your day from Fajr Prayer (morning) up to "Isha" Prayer (evening).

The second topic,

2. Write a story that you have heard from, either your grandfather, your grandmother, or your mother.

The findings of Jassem's study show that a total of 3,088 errors occurred in the data. The majority (2173 or 70.36%) were tense form errors and about one third (915, or 29.64%)were errors in subject-verb agreement.

Adam (1998) in his study of Arabic syntactic errors investigates errors of the definite article, preposition usage, and subject verb (gender), number (plural). The data came from five composition topics selected from compositions written within a one-hour time period. Adam's subjects were one hundred and sixteen. (83) from IIUM Matriculation Center ad (33) from the Islamic Academy, University of Malaya.

The study supports the EA approach in the context of second language learning, and signifies the role of EA in enhancing teaching and learning of the Arabic language.

The study aims at mapping out the difficulties of Malay learners in Arabic. The study indicates that students, with better grammatical skills, tend to commit fewer errors than their counter parts with less competence in grammar. The study shows

that, the rank order of types of errors is as follows: the definite article (26.5%), Prepositions (23.5%), declension (19%), tense (18.1%) and gender (12.9%).

Soufi (1992) investigates the written Arabic of Malay speaking students, at the Matriculation Center of IIUM. The sample of his study comprised 40 students.

The study's aim was to determine and to explore learning difficulties that hinder the learning and teaching of the Arabic at IIUM, and generally in Malaysia.

The researcher analyzed the errors in the area of grammar, orthography, lexis morphology and declension. The research reserves the last chapter, to the findings and recommendations, including a summary of the study.

The study reveals that Malay learners commit serious errors in written Arabic. However, definiteness and indefiniteness, gender, declension and prepositions usage are the grammatical errors found in the study.

The differences between Arabic and BM, teaching methods, insufficient exposures to the language, carelessness and tiredness are the main causes of errors committed by the learners.

Ismail Ibrahim (1990) presented a comparative study between Arabic Language and Bahasa Malayu (BM) paper at the International Conference on Teaching the Arabic Language, conducted at the International Islamic University Malaysia IIUM, 1990. The study contrasts the syntax structures of the two languages, as follows:

1. Word order.

2. Agreement: then he divided agreements into six subheadings,

        a) Person (Pronouns)

        b) Number

        c) Gender

        d) Prepositions

e) Definiteness and Indefiniteness

f) Declension '

The study findings reveal that:

1. The verb in Arabic Language is classified into the Past, the Imperfect, and the Imperative, - BM does not follow this classification, verbs have only one form.

2. The sentence order in BM is subject-verb-object (SVO), whereas in the Arabic language verb-subject- object (VSO)

3. SVA is not required in BM, unlike in the Arabic language.

4. Word order is flexible in the Arabic Language because of declension ('i'raab), which is very crucial in determining the meaning of the sentence. The sentence in BM depends on word order.

5. As a result, Malay learners find difficulties in:

    1. Attaching Pronouns to the Verbs.

    2. Producing different sentences patterns.

These are the differences mentioned by Ismail Ibrahim (1990), however, the researcher of the present study assures that the types of the sentences in the Arabic language are both SVO and VSO, for instance in Arabic: kataba 'aT-Taalibu 'ad-darsa كتب الطالب الدّرس (Wrote the student the lesson) and 'aT-Taalibu kataba 'ad-darsa الطالب كتب الدّرس (The student wrote the lesson), the first sentence is VSO and the second one is SVO, both sentences are grammatically correct and appropriate in use.

Sukaimi (1980) conducted a comparative study between the Malay and Arabic languages. Skaimi claims that Arabic and Malay differ in number, gender, personal pronouns and demonstrative pronouns.

As a result of these differences the Malay learners of Arabic face problems related to gender system, singularity, duality, and plurality, i.e., number, case ending, verb form, which include tense system, and Arabic sentence order meaning SVA.

Sukaimi further elaborates, due to differences in gender, plurality and duality, Malays are expected to find difficulties in applying the right verb form, which agrees with the subject.

The study articulates the fact that the Malay language does not have the same case ending system as in Arabic. Accordingly, Malay learners find it difficult to apply the case ending rules in Arabic. In Malay, a word maintains one form, regardless of its position in the sentence.

Also, the study shows the verb is another difficult area for Malay learners of Arabic. In Arabic, the verb is capable of change according to time and subject. But, in the Malay language, the verb can be changed, but different than in the Arabic language.

From this review of selected research, the following interesting facts emerge in teaching the Arabic language to Malay learners:

1. Most of the research studies that employ the EA approach aim to ascertain general ideas of the problematic language areas facing the Malay learners of Arabic.

2. Being noticeable, that in these, studies and in EA in general, the number of the subject varies. For example, Abdalla (1996) used one hundreds Malaysian students, Soufi (1992) forty students, Scott and Tucker (1974) used the written and oral samples of twenty-two Arabic speaking students from the American University of Beirut for their study.

3. The taxonomy and classification of errors being developed by researches were diverse, due to different study objectives and levels of the learners.

4. The Corpus used for analysis in these studies also varied. For example, Jassem (1999) conducted his study with two written composition only. Adam (1998) used only one composition for his study. The present study uses nine written compositions, in three tense forms.

5. Most of the research studies focused on grammatical errors, attributing errors to their sources.

Most of the research studies reveal that the most difficult areas of grammar are the use of tenses, the definite article, declension, gender, number and pronouns, Person, (See Abdalla (1996), Adam (1998), Jassem (1999).

2.5 Contrastive Analysis

This section reports on contrastive analysis consisting of the following headings: a brief history of CA, definition, CA hypotheses, and CA values and limitations.

2.5.1 A Brief History

Contrastive Analysis (CA) basically refers to an analysis of contrasts between systems in two different languages. Before defining in detail, here is a brief history of CA.

CA, as an applied linguistic approach, was born out of classroom experience. Early in 1941, Whorf called attention to the importance of the contrastive study of languages. Also, Lado and Fries, prominent linguists at the University of Michigan, pioneered modern CA. In their joint effort *English Pattern Practices (1943)*, both

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contrasted the structures of the English and the Spanish languages.

According to Di Pietro (1971:9) the first work which presented elements of this kind of study was conducted by C.H. Grandgent in 1892, Di Pietro states, "As early as 1892, a renowned philological specialist in Romance languages, Charles H.Grandgent, published his *German and English Sounds*." James, however, considers Robert Lado's Linguistic Across Culture (1957) as the starting point of modern CA. Lado's work was deeply influenced by Charles Fries, who had been working with him on a regular basis. Fries, in his *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (1945:9), advanced the principle, which Lado three years later would systematize as CA:

"The most efficient materials are those that are based upon scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner."

James (1980:8) claims that "... modern CA starts with Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures (1957)*.

However, James believes that Lado's work was also influenced by Wienriech (1953) and Haugen (1956) whose, works are seen as a link between CA and the study of bilingualism. Wienriech and Haugen dealt with the problem of how the second language (English) influenced the immigrant's native language, whereas CA deals with the problem of the first language interfering in the learning of a foreign language.

James (1980:9) says "It was, however, two earlier books on the Linguistics Integration of Immigrants to the USA which indubitably gave Lado his impetus: Weinreich (1953) and Haugen (1956). These are studies of immigrant bilingualism."

Subsequently, if Corder's article *The Significance of Learner Errors* was highlighted in EA studies, it is clear that contrastive linguistics would be aroused with the publication of Fries's book *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language,* in 1945. Fries reported, "Only with sound materials based upon an adequate descriptive analysis of both the language to be studied and the native language of the student can an adult make the maximum progress towards the satisfactory mastery of the foreign language (1945:5).

Robert Lado's significant manual *Linguistics Across Cultures* marked the beginning of modern CA, as we now know it. The plan of CA was clear in Lado's book:

> "The plan of the book rests on the assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning and those that will not cause difficulty by comparing systematically the language and the culture to be learned, with the native language and culture of the student." (1957, chap.vii)

2.5.2 Definition

CA is a type of language analysis, which has served as a tool for the language textbook writer, the toning-language teacher and even language students.

In CA, two, or more languages, are "contrasted" in order to bring about the similarities and the differences in the structures. If the structures are similar, they are supposed to facilitate learning, and if different, they may become a source of interference in the learning of the new language.

In the beginning, both languages were contrasted only in terms of phonology and syntax, whereby any effort to be made on these two levels could be anticipated and remedied beforehand. Soon, the contrastive approach was expanded to cover all aspects of a language. Also, it could soon deal with virtually any two languages a learner may have as a target and a native language.

Many linguists and researchers have defined CA; Fatimah (1989:12) says, "CA is a linguistic analytical technique developed to provide a detailed analysis of Languages." In his *Linguistics Across Cultures*, in the preface of the book he indicates that CA should be a systematic comparison of the Language and Culture to be learned with the learner's native language and culture. According to him, the aim of such a comparison is to predict learning problems, he says: (1957, chap: vii) "To predict and describe the patters that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty."

James' (1980:3) *Contrastive Analysis* states, "CA is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e., Contrastive, not Comparative) two-valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with a pair of language), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared.

In Valdman's *Trends in Language Teaching* (1966) Banathy, Trager, and Waddle (1966 :37) define CA and states the tasks involved in the situation.

> "The change that has to take place in the language behavior of a foreign language student can be equated with the differences between the structure of the student's native language and culture and that of the target language and culture. The task of the linguist, the cultural anthropologist, and the sociologist is to identify these differences. The task of the writer of a Foreign Language Teaching Program is to develop materials, which will be based on a statement of these differences, the task of the foreign language teacher is to be aware of these differences and to be prepared to teach them (these differences). The task of the student is to learn them."

All these definitions present one idea that it is possible to contrast the system of the first language with the system of the second language, in order to predict those difficulties, which the speaker will have in learning the new language. Also, to construct teaching materials to help the learners learn the targeted language.

2.5.3 CA Hypothesis

CA is founded upon the assumption that L2 learners tend to transfer their L1 features into the L2, and that the similarity of features facilitates L2 learning, whilst differences retard it. CA can often accurately predict the type of errors due to such interferences. Zainab (1984) and Fatimah (1989) claim that the following forms the basis of the CA hypothesis (Lado, 1957).

Similarity, the native language and the target language would facilitate learning, but differences will cause problems. The learner's learning task is, in fact, the sum of the differences between the two languages.

The differences between the native language and the target language would create problems for the learner, thus slowing learning.

A comparison of the native language and the target language would give way predictions of probable errors made by the learner, and no doubt, will reveal both the differences and similarities between native language and target language.

Systematic comparison depends on the availability of scientific description of the two languages concerned. These descriptions must be based on the same theoretical framework.

A contrastive analysis of the whole system of the language cannot be made; only sub-systems. Interference takes place whenever the learner transfers native language features into the target language. Interferences can occur at all levels of the language.

On the basis of the differences between two linguistics systems, CA can predict the difficulties the students will have.

Difficulties can be arranged in hierarchies based on the extent to which the two systems diverge.

It is the task of the linguist to discover the differences and the task of the textbook writer to develop appropriate teaching materials.

The problem of interference between languages, particularly the influence of the native language, was noted as far back as 1899, years before Wienreich came out with *Language in Contact* (1953). Language researchers, such as Jespersen and Fries (1945) had been aware of the so-called "pull of the mother tongue" leading Fries to establish contrastive analysis as a methodology of the target language teaching.

Weinreich's work (1953) formally introduced the notion of interference between languages that come in contact in a multilingual situation. It is a comprehension of discussion and illustration of phonological, lexicon-morphological, grammatical-syntactic, semantic and socio-cultural interference. He defines interference as "Instances of deviation from the norm of either language in the speech of bilingual, as a result of language contact."

In his article *Contrastive Analysis: Problems to a Set of Component Procedures.* The four steps are:

1. Taking the two languages, L1 and L2, writing formal descriptions and/or selecting descriptions for both.

2. Selecting forms from the descriptions for contrast.

3. Making a contrast of the forms chosen.

4. Making a prediction of difficulty through the contrast.

   In describing errors, Yok (1996:88) says,

   "... the researcher has to find out whether the languages have already been described. If descriptions of the languages exist, and are found to be adequate, and useful for his purpose, the researcher can make use of them in his study. If the descriptions are unsatisfactory, or in complete, he must conduct further research in the area."

The researcher, here, does not agree with Yok (1996) and Halliday (1964) about their proposal of the extra step in the procedure of the establishment of comparability. However, the process involving the four steps is indicated in Figure:(2.1)   .
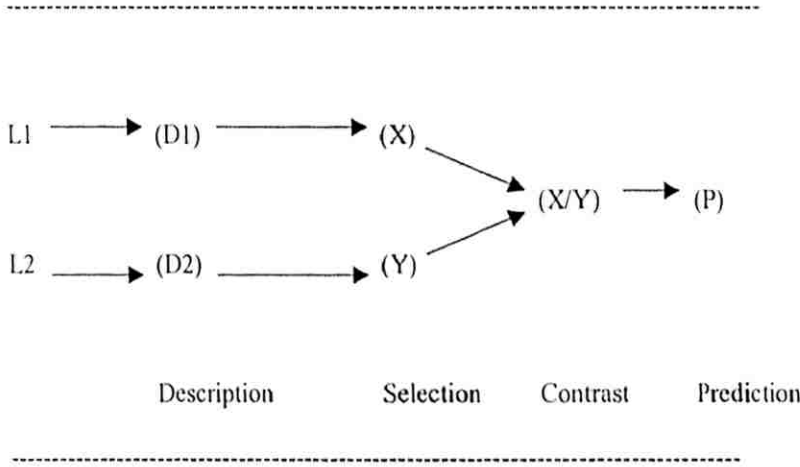
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L1 ────────▶ (D1) ────────────▶ (X) ╲
                                       ╲
                                        ▶ (X/Y) ──▶ (P)
                                        ╱
L2 ────────▶ (D2) ────────────▶ (Y) ╱


        Description        Selection    Contrast    Prediction

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Figure 2.1

The Four Procedures of Contrastive Analysis (taken from Whitman (1970)

Therefore, the contrastive analysis study has to show the following:

1. (L1 and L2) determines the languages intended to contrast;

2. (D1 and D2) select, or write formal descriptions of two languages;

3. (X and Y) identify forms from the descriptions to contrast;

4. (X/Y) contrasting the forms selected;

5. (P) predicting difficulty on the basis of contrast.

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2.5.4 CA Values and Limitations

Many linguists saw CA as a necessary pre-requisite to the successful writing of second language materials, and indeed to language teaching itself. Indeed, Lado's publication brought about a multitude of contrastive analyses that lead to the establishment of major comparative linguistic projects, especially for European languages. An example, is the Center of Applied Linguists, in Washington D.C.'s Contrastive Linguistic Series, which was instrumental in promoting contrastive studies in the USA. This series, which dealt with the contrastive studies between English and French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish was conducted between 1962 and 1965.

One of the main criticisms of CA is that the construction of language textbooks using CA findings as a basis has rarely been realized, since the linguist's aim is to describe scientifically, rather than pedagogically, the analysis is not normally directly transferable to teaching materials and situations. It was without great surprise that interest in CA waned in the early 1970's. The greatest controversy surrounding CA was that of its claim of 'being able to predict errors." While linguists, such as Barrutia (1967), proclaimed that CA, "have proven beyond a shadow of a doubt that interference (is)... predictable."

Others, notably Gradman (1970), disputed the notion of CA being a predictive tool in language learning by questioning the reliability of its predictions. Instances of false predictions gave credence to the critic's arguments. Other factors needed to be considered in the language learning as: age, game, intelligence, linguistic aptitude motivation and other sociological and physiological bearings.

Gradman (1970:138) maintains, "I still believe that the contrastive analysis hypothesis will be found to be insufficient." He further explains (1970:139): "...

contrastive analysis could be considered a somewhat unimportant component of the Theory of Second Language Learning."

However, linguists and language teachers reject CA as an essential foundation of language teaching because their studies have revealed that CA is most predictive at the level of phonology, and least predictive at the syntactic level. And what is predicted as a difficulty does not always, in practice, turn out to be so. Thus, the value of CA has been questioned by psycholinguists who have observed that CA cannot accurately predict many of the errors committed by students of a second language. They have grave doubts about its 'predictive power' and are dissatisfied because it has been impossible to establish a hierarchy of difficulty for predicted errors. This dissatisfaction seems to suggest that another approach be used, perhaps that of EA.

Linguists question the predicting power of CA, which implies that all errors are attributed to first language interference. According to Richards (1971) interference from the mother tongue is clearly a major source of difficulty in second language learning and contrastive analysis has proved valuable in locating areas of inter-language interference. Many errors however are derived from the strategies employed by the learner in language acquisition, and from the mutual interference of items within the target language, Contrastive Analysis cannot account these for these errors.

A major critic of CA, S. Pit Corder, fully endorsed the study of the learner errors. In Corder's study, the whole picture of the features of the language, which are causing problems, would be roughly similar to the information obtained through CA. Error analysis provides a check on the predictions of the bilingual comparisons made.

One of the reasons Corder was wary of CA's pedagogical applications was that the learner may not only fail to recognize mistakes and not be aware of the mistake may being made. In fact, the learner may make another error in the process of correcting

the first error. Corder also adds that the mistakes made by the second language learner are quite different from the mistakes made by the native speaker. Native speakers may be able to correct their own mistakes, but a learner cannot always do like wise. Corder believes that the assumption underlying the description of errors is that they are evidence of a separate system; not the system of TL, nor NL. So, one could not say that by the mid 1970's and early 1980's faith in the purely contrastive method to, both teaching materials preparation and foreign language instruction, had begun to diminish. One of the criticisms is that SL interference is not the only source of the errors in foreign language teaching, as there are other sources as false TL analogies, which CA fails to predict. This negative attitude towards CA seemed to be further motivated by the fact that the approach was felt to be of little value to language teachers, who claimed that their practical experience had already shown where learners' difficulties lay. They felt that the contribution of the linguists had not given them any significant new information.

However, it is the researcher's opinion that in spite of the general critique of CA, it cannot be abandoned, as it may be used as a tool for EA.