

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 037 721

AL 002 348

AUTHOR Richards, Jack C.
TITLE A Non-Contrastive Approach to Error Analysis.
PUB DATE May 70
NOTE 37p.; Paper presented at the TESOL Convention, San Francisco, March 1970

EDRS PRICE EDRS Price MF-\$0.25 HC-\$1.95
DESCRIPTORS Bilingualism, Contrastive Linguistics, *English (Second Language), Interference (Language Learning), Language Instruction, *Learning Processes, Learning Theories, Linguistic Competence, *Second Language Learning, Structural Analysis
IDENTIFIERS *Error Analysis

ABSTRACT

This is a discussion of another phase of bilingualism--structural difficulties in the target language of the student which impede his second language acquisition. The paper focuses on errors in learning English which do not derive from transfers from another language, and which cannot be predicted from contrastive analysis. These are intralingual and developmental errors; they reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition. To best investigate and distinguish among interlanguage, intralingual, and developmental errors, the author studied speakers of varied languages; the diverse cross-section reduced greatly the possibility of mistaking intralingual errors for language interference. He concludes that an analysis of errors should lead to an examination of teaching materials and the underlying language learning assumptions. There is an appendix of typical intralingual and developmental errors. (FB)

ED037721

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A NON-CONTRASTIVE APPROACH TO
ERROR ANALYSIS

by

Jack C. Richards,
*International Center for
Research on Bilingualism,
Laval University,
Quebec, CANADA.*

AL 002 348

Prepared for the TESOL Convention,
San Francisco March, 1970.

INTRODUCTION

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INTRODUCTION *

The identification and analysis of interference between languages in contact has traditionally been a central aspect of the study of bilingualism. The intrusion of features of one language into another in the speech of bilinguals has been studied at the levels of phonology, morphology and syntax. The systems of the contact languages themselves have sometimes been contrasted, and an important outcome of contrastive studies has been the notion that they allow for prediction of the difficulties involved in acquiring a second language. "Those elements that are similar to the [learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those areas that are different will be difficult". (1) In the last two decades language teaching has derived considerable impetus from the application of contrastive studies. As recently as 1967 Politzer affirmed "Perhaps the least questioned and least questionable application of linguistics is the contribution of contrastive analysis. Especially in the teaching of languages for which no considerable and

* I am grateful to William F. Mackey, Bernard Spolsky, and John Macnamara for comments on earlier versions of this paper.

1. Robert Lado, *Linguistics Across Cultures*, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1957, p. 2.

systematic teaching experience is available, contrastive analysis can highlight and predict the difficulties of the pupils". (2)

Studies of second language acquisition however have tended to imply that contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the level of phonology, and least predictive at the syntactic level. A recent study of Spanish-English bilingualism for example, states: "Many people assume, following logic that is easy to understand, that the errors made by bilinguals are caused by their mixing Spanish and English. One of the most important conclusions this writer draws from the research in this project is that interference from Spanish is not a major factor in the way bilinguals construct sentences and use the language". (3)

This paper focuses on several types of errors observed in the acquisition of English as a second language, which do not derive from transfers from another language. Excluded from discussion are what may be called INTERLANGUAGE errors; that is, errors caused by the interference of the learner's mother tongue. A different class of errors are

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2. Robert L. Politzer, Toward Psycholinguistic Models of Language Instruction, *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 2.3, p. 151.
 3. Gail McBride Smith, "Some comments on the English of Eight Bilinguals", in *A Brief Study of Spanish-English Bilingualism*, Donald M. Lance, Texas A&M University, 1969.

represented by sentences such as *did he comed, what you are doing, he coming from Israel, make him to do it, I can to speak French*. Errors of this nature are frequent regardless of the learner's language background. They may be called INTRALINGUAL and DEVELOPMENTAL errors. Rather than reflecting the learner's inability to separate two languages, intralingual and developmental errors reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition. Their origins are found within the structure of English itself, and through reference to the strategy by which a second language is acquired and taught.

1. DISTINGUISHING INTERLANGUAGE, INTRALINGUAL AND DEVELOPMENTAL ERRORS

Before we can analyze intralingual and developmental errors, we need to be able to distinguish them from interlanguage errors in a sample of second-language speech. Initially, contrastive analysis or a knowledge of the learner's mother tongue, allows for identification of instances where the characteristics of one language are being carried over into another. We then locate errors which are common to learners who have quite different mother tongues. They may also occur with children acquiring English as a mother tongue

and with deaf children learning written English. (4) A sample of such errors is shown in Tables I-VI (see appendix). These are representative of the sort of errors we might expect from anyone learning English as a second language. They are typical of systematic errors in English usage which are found in numerous case studies of the English errors of speakers of particular mother tongues. They are the sort of mistakes which persist from week to week and which recur from one year to the next with any group of learners. They cannot be described as mere failures to memorize a segment of language, or as occasional lapses in performance due to memory limitations, fatigue and the like. (5) In some learners they represent final grammatical competence; in others they may be indications of transitional competence.

2. SOURCES OF THE PRESENT STUDY

Tables I-VI are taken from studies of English errors produced by speakers of Japanese, Chinese, Burmese, French, Czech, Polish, Tagalog, Maori, Maltese, and the

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4. Cp: Vivian Cook, The Analogy between First and Second Language Learning, *IRAL* Vol. 7, p. 207-216; H.H. Stern, Foreign Language Learning and the New View of First-Language Acquisition, *Child Study* 30/4, 25-36; Paula Menyuk, *Sentences Children Use*, Massachusetts: MIT Press, 1969.
 5. S.P. Corder, The Significance of Learner's Errors, *IRAL* Vol. 5, p. 161-169.

major Indian and West African languages. (6) From these sources, I have selected those errors which occurred in a cross-section of the samples. By studying intralingual and developmental errors within the framework of a more adequate theory of second language learning than a purely contrastive approach suggests, and through examining typical cases of the teaching of the forms from which they are derived, it may be possible to see the way towards teaching procedures that take account of the learner's strategy for acquiring a second language.

3. TYPES AND CAUSES OF INTRALINGUAL AND DEVELOPMENTAL ERRORS

An examination of the errors in Table I-VI suggests that intralingual errors are those which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generaliz-

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6. Major sources for Tables I-VI are: F.G. French, *Common Errors in English*, London: Oxford U.P. 1949; L. Důšková, On Sources of Errors in Foreign Language Learning, *IRAL* Vol. 7, p. 11-36; J. Arabski, A Linguistic Analysis of English Composition Errors Made by Polish Students, *Studia Anglica Posnaniensia* Vol. 1, Nos. 1 & 2, p. 71-89; C. Estacio, English Syntax Problems of Filipinos, *Proceedings of 9th Int. Congress of Linguists*. Mouton, The Hague, 1964, p. 217-223 (esp. comments by Meyerstein and Ansre); Jack Richards, Language Problems of Maori children, *Comment* (Wellington, N.Z.), No. 36, 1968, p. 28-32; A.W.S. Bhaskar, An Analysis of Common Errors in P.U.C. English, *Bulletin of the Central Institute of English* (Hyderabad, India), No. 2, 1962, p. 47-57; S. Grelier, *Recherche des principales interférences dans les systèmes verbaux de l'anglais du Wolof et du français*, Senegal, Centre de Linguistique Appliquée de Dakar, No. 31; E.F. Aguas, *English Composition Errors of Tagalog Speakers and Implications for Analytical Theory*, D. Ed. dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1964.

ation, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply. 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. For convenience of presentation, Tables I-VI will be discussed in terms of: 1. Over-generalization; 2. Ignorance of rule restrictions; 3. Incomplete application of rules; 4. False concepts hypothesized.

3.1 OVER-GENERALIZATION

Jakobovits 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 organizing the facts about the second language but others, perhaps due to superficial similarities will be misleading and inapplicable." (7) Over-generalization covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language. For example (see Table I.1,3,4,8.) *he can sings, we are hope, It is occurs, he come from.* Over-generalization generally involves the creation of one deviant structure in place of two regular structures. It may be the result of the

7. Léon A. Jakobovits, *A Psycholinguistic Analysis of Second-Language Learning and Bilingualism*, Institute of Communications Research, Illinois, 1969, p. 32. See also, Jakobovits "Second Language Learning and Transfer Theory", *Language Learning* 19, 55-86.

learner reducing his linguistic burden. With the omission of the third person (-s), over-generalization removes the necessity for concord, thus relieving the learner of considerable effort. Dušková, discussing the omission of third person (-s) notes "Since [in English] all grammatical persons take the same zero verbal ending except the third person singular in the present tense omissions of the (-s) in the third person singular may be accounted for by the heavy pressure of all other endingless forms. The endingless form is generalized for all persons, just as the form *was* is generalized for all persons and both numbers in the past tense.... Errors in the opposite direction like *there does not exist any exact rules* may be explained either as being due to hypercorrection... or as being due to generalization of the 3rd person singular ending for the 3rd person plural". (8)

Over-generalization is associated with redundancy reduction. It may occur, for instance, with items which are contrasted in the grammar of the language, but which do not carry significant and obvious contrast for the learner. The (-ed) marker in narrative or in other past contexts, often appears to carry no meaning, since pastness is usually indicated lexically in stories, and the essential notion of sequence in narrative, can be expressed equally well in the present. *Yesterday I go to the university and I meet my new*

8. Dušková, *ibid.* (see 6, above).

professor. Thus the learner cuts down the tasks involved in sentence production. Ervin-Tripp suggests that "possibly the morphological and syntactic simplifications of second language learners correspond to some simplifications common among children [i.e. mother-tongue speakers] learning the same language". (9)

Certain types of teaching techniques increase the frequency of over-generalized structures. Many pattern drills and transform exercises are made up of utterances that can interfere with each other to produce a hybrid structure:

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Instruction</i>	<i>Student</i>
<i>He walks quickly.</i>	Change to continuous form	<i>He is walks quickly.</i>

This has been described as overlearning of a structure. (10)

At other times, *he walks* may be contrasted with *he is walking*, *he sings* with *he can sing*, and a week later, without any teaching of the forms, the learner produces *he can sings*, *he is walks*.

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9. Susan M. Ervin-Tripp, Comments to "How and When do Persons Become Bilingual" in *Description and Measurement of Bilingualism*, L.G. Kelly, editor. University of Toronto Press, Toronto 1969, p. 33.
 10. David. K. Wolfe, "Some Theoretical Aspects of Language Learning and Language Teaching" *Language Learning* Vol. XVII, 3.4, p. 180.

3.2 IGNORANCE OF RULE RESTRICTIONS

Closely related to the generalization of deviant structures, is failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is, the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. *The man who I saw him* (Table III, 2) violates the limitation on subjects in structures with *who*. *I made him to do it* (Table IV) ignores restrictions on the distribution of *make*. These are again a type of generalization or transfer, since the learner is making use of a previously acquired rule in a new situation. Some rule restriction errors may be accounted for in terms of analogy; other instances may result from the rote learning of rules.

Analogy seems to be a major factor in the misuse of prepositions. (Table IV). The learner, encountering a particular preposition with one type of verb, attempts by analogy to use the same preposition with similar verbs. *He showed me the book* leads to *he explained me the book*; *he said to me* gives *he asked to me*; *we talked about it*, therefore *we discussed about it*; *ask him to do it* produces *make him to do it*; *go with him* gives *follow with him*. Some pattern exercises appear to encourage incorrect rules being applied through analogy. Here is a pattern exercise which practices *enable, allow, make, cause, permit*. (11)

11. A.J. Herbert, *The Structure of Technical English*, London: Longmans, 1965, p. 10.

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|----------------------------|-----------|--------------|----|-------------------------------|
| 1. The microscope | } enables | { scientists | to | { examine very small objects. |
| 2. A thermometer | | | | |
| 3. Helicopters | } enable | { passengers | to | { land in the city centre. |
| 4. Good production methods | | | | |
| 5. Expansion joints | } permit | { the pipes | to | { expand or contract. |
| 6. Safety valves | | | | |
| 7. We | } allow | { the metal | to | { cool slowly. |
| 8. The heat | | | | |
| 9. Weakness in the metal | } caused | { it | to | { fracture under tension. |
| 10. The heat | | | | |
| 11. Weakness in the metal | } made | { it | to | { fracture under tension. |

It is followed by an exercise in which the student is instructed to complete a number of statements using verbs and prepositions from the table.

The rise in temperature ___ the mercury ___ rise up the tube.

The risk of an explosion ___ the workers ___ leave the factory.

The speed of the train ___ it ___ leave the rails on the curve....

From a class of 23 with mixed language backgrounds, no fewer than 13 produced sentences like *the rise in temperature made the mercury to rise up the tube*. Practising *make* in the same context as *allow it to*, *permit it to*, *enable it to*, precipitates confusion. Other instances of analogous constructions may be less easy to avoid. Table III, 2, includes *this is not fit to drink it*, *the man who I saw him*. By analogy with the learner's previous experience of *Subject+Verb+Object* constructions, the learner feels that there is something incomplete about *that's the man who I saw*, and so adds the object after the verb, as he has been taught to do elsewhere.

Failure to observe restrictions in article usage may also derive from analogy, the learner rationalizing a deviant usage from his previous experience of English. This may happen even when the mother tongue is close to the English usage. F.G. French gives the following example of how a common article mistake is produced by rational analogy. (12)

In English we say *The sparrow is a small bird*. *Sparrows are small birds*. Since the statements are exactly parallel a logical substitute for the second sentence would be: *The sparrows are small birds*. In Burmese, the equivalents would be

<i>sa gale thi</i>	<i>nge thaw</i>	<i>nget</i>	<i>pyit thi</i>
<i>the sparrow</i>	<i>small</i>	<i>bird</i>	<i>is</i>

12. French, *ibid.*, p. 9. (see 6 above).

and in the plural

sa gale mya thi nge thaw nget mya pyit kya thi
The sparrows small birds are

Instead of following the form of the mother tongue, however, the learner, having first produced *The sparrows are* from *The sparrow is*, sees a parallel between *sparrows* and *birds*, and produces the common error, *The sparrows are the small birds*. A similar example is noted by Aguas, from Tagalog-speaking students. (13) In her study, she found a number of examples where sentences such as *Robot is like a human being* were produced, instead of *A Robot is like a human being*. Aguas rules out the possibility of transfer from Tagalog, since this would have required a determiner before the noun.

Ang robot (ay) parang tao.
(N-m) robot _____ like human being.

Here the analogy is from a somewhat comparable structure such as *Robots function like human beings*.

3.3 INCOMPLETE APPLICATION OF RULES

Under this category we may note the occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances. For

13. Aguas, *ibid.*, p. 49. (see 6 above).

example, across background languages systematic difficulty in the use of questions can be observed. A statement form may be used as a question, one of the transformations in a series may be omitted, or a question word may simply be added to the statement form. Despite extensive teaching of both the question and the statement forms, a grammatical question form may never become part of competence in the second language. Redundancy may be an explanatory factor. The second language learner, interested perhaps primarily in communication, can achieve quite efficient communication without the need for mastering more than the elementary rules of question usage. Motivation to achieve communication may exceed motivation to produce grammatically correct sentences. A further clue may be provided by classroom use of questions.

The use of questions is a common teaching device. Typically they are used, not to find out something, but as a means of eliciting sentences. Alternatively the statement form may be used as a means of eliciting questions through a transform exercise. Classroom observation suggests that the use of questions may be unrelated to the skills it is meant to establish. Here are some examples:

TEACHER'S QUESTION	STUDENT'S RESPONSE
<i>Do you read much?</i>	<i>Yes I read much.</i>
<i>Do you cook very much?</i>	<i>Yes I cook very much.</i>
<i>Ask her what the last film she saw was called.</i>	<i>What was called the last film you saw?</i>

<i>What was she saying?</i>	<i>She saying she would ask him.</i>
<i>What does she tell him?</i>	<i>She tell him to hurry.</i>
<i>What's he doing?</i>	<i>He opening the door.</i>
<i>Ask her how long it takes.</i>	<i>How long it takes?</i>
<i>Will they soon be ready?</i>	<i>Yes they soon be ready.</i>
<i>How much does it cost?</i>	<i>It cost one dollar.</i>
<i>What does he have to do?</i>	<i>He have to do write the address.</i>
<i>What does he ask his mother?</i>	<i>He ask his mother for the address.</i>

As the above sample illustrates, when a question is used to elicit sentences, the answer often has to be corrected by the teacher to counteract the influence of his question. Some course books proceed almost entirely through the use of questions; others avoid excessive use of questions by utilizing signals to indicate the type of sentence required. These may reduce the total number of deviant sentences produced.

3.4 FALSE CONCEPTS HYPOTHESIZED

In addition to the wide range of intralingual errors which have to do with faulty rule learning at various levels, there are a class of developmental errors which derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. These are sometimes due to poor gradation of teaching items. The form *was*, for example, may be interpreted as a marker of the past tense, giving *one day it was happened* (Table I, 2) and *is* may be understood to be the corresponding marker of the present tense: *He is speaks French* (Table I, 1). In Table II, 5, we find the continuous

form instead of the simple past in narrative; elsewhere we encounter confusion between *too*, *so* and *very*, between *come* and *go* and so on. In particular instances I have traced errors of this sort to classroom presentation, and to presentation which is based on contrastive analysis of English and another language or on contrasts within English itself.

Here is an example of how the present continuous came to be understood as a narrative tense. The simple present tense in English is the normal tense used for actions seen as a whole, for events which develop according to a plan, or for sequences of events taking place at the present moment. (14) Thus the sport's commentator's *Now Anderson takes the ball, passes it to Smith...* and the cooking demonstrator's *I take two eggs, now I add the sugar....* How do we find this use represented in text books for teaching English as a second language?

Typically one finds that the continuous form has been used instead for these functions. A recent audio-visual course contains many sequences like the following: (15)

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14. W.H. Hirtle, *The Simple and Progressive Forms*, Québec: Laval U.P., 1967, p. 40-41. R.A. Close, Concerning the Present Tense, *English Language Teaching* Vol. 13, 1959, p. 59.
 15. L.G. Alexander, *The Carters of Greenwood*, Elementary Workbook, Cineloop II. London: Longmans Ltd., 1966.

The lift is going down to the ground floor. Ted is getting out of the lift. He is leaving the office building. Ted is standing at the entrance of the office building. He is looking up at the sky....

This is not a normal use of English. The usual tense for a sequence of events taking place "at the moment" is the present tense, the continuous being used only when a single event is extracted from a sequence, the sequence itself being indicated by the present forms. This presentation of the continuous form led a number of my students to assume that the continuous form in English is a tense for telling stories and for describing successions of events in either the present or the past.

The reasons for the occurrence of untypical verb uses in many course books appears to be related to a contrastive approach to language teaching. In this example, the course designer has attempted to establish the use of the continuous form in a context in which the present form is appropriate. It is often felt that a considerable amount of time should be devoted to the continuous form, since it does not exist in most learner's mother tongues. Excessive attention to points of difference at the expense of realistic English is a characteristic of much contrastive-based teaching. My experience of such teaching confirms Ritchie's prediction. "A course that concentrates too much on 'the main

trouble spots' without due attention to the structure of the foreign language as a whole will leave the learner with a patchwork of unfruitful, partial generalizations...." (16)

It is evident why this is often the case. The linguist who writes a contrastive description of two languages is interested primarily in the areas where the two languages differ. When such a description is used as the basis for teaching materials, we may well misrepresent the actual facts of English usage, since the parts of the language which are most often needed are not necessarily those which are most different from the learner's mother tongue. The translation of techniques of language description into techniques of language teaching has been a major feature of many schools of applied linguistics. The fad for minimal pair drills, for example, was largely based on the fallacy that, since phonological distinctions depend on the criterion of meaning, distinctions of meaning must depend on phonological distinctions, and that failure to maintain all the distinctions in a second language will mean failure to communicate.

Many courses progress on a related assumption, namely, that contrasts within the language are an essential

16. William C. Ritchie, "Some Implications of Generative Grammar", *Language Learning* Vol. XVII, p. 129.

aid to learning. "Presenting items in contrast can lighten the teacher's and the student's work and consequently speed up the learning process". (17) Here are some examples of actual learning from materials thought out in terms of contrast.

George notes that a frequent way of introducing the simple and continuous forms is to establish the contrast:

is = present state, *is + ing* = present action. (18)

The contrast is in fact, quite false to English. When the past is introduced it is often introduced as a past state. *He was sick*. This lays the groundwork for the learner to complete the picture of present and past in English by analogy:

is = present state . *is + ing* = present action.
was = past state . . . *was + ing* = past action.

Thus *was* or *was+ing* may be used as past markers. Used together with the *verb + ed* it produces such sentences as *he was climbed the tree*. Interpreted as the form for "past actions" it gives *I was going down town yesterday* instead of *I went down town yesterday*.

Table III shows examples of the confusion of *too*, *so*,

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17. Ruth Hok, Contrast: An Effective Teaching Device, *English Language Teaching* Vol. 17, 3, p. 118.
18. H.V. George, Teaching Simple Past and Past Perfect, *Bulletin of the Central Institute of English* (Hyderabad, India), No. 2, p. 18-31.

and *very*. Other substitutions are common, such as the use of *teach* for *learn*, of *do* for *make*, of *come* for *go*, of *bring* for *take*. Learners often feel that the members of such pairs are synonyms, despite every attempt to demonstrate that they have contrastive meanings. Such confusion is sometimes attributable to premature contrastive presentation.

Here are the occurrences of *too* and *very* in a first reader which tells the story of a group of children who light a fire in the snow in front of an old house: (19)

The house is empty because it's old.... I'm very cold. England is too cold.... The fire is very big.... It's very big. It's a very big fire. The firemen are going to put water on the fire because it's too big.

The course designers intended to establish a contrast between *too* and *very*, but in so doing they completely confuse the meaning of the two forms. From the presentation -- and from the viewpoint of a young learner -- they have the same meanings. Thus we have the parallelism between:

*It's too big and it's dangerous.
The fire is dangerous. It's very big.*

How could a child, following such a presentation, avoid saying *This is a too big house?* *Too* would be more safely taught out

19. *Scope*, Reader 7, School Council Publications Co., London, 1969.

of association with *very*, and in contexts where it did not appear to be a substitute for *very*, as, for example, in a structure with *too + adjective + infinitive* -- *this box is too heavy to lift*.

Other courses succeed in establishing confusion between *too*, *so*, and *very* by offering exercises like these:

- (1) Reword the following sentences, using *too*.
This coffee is so hot that I can't drink it.
I've got so fat that I can't wear this dress now....

Example. *This soup is very hot. I can't drink it.*
This soup is too hot (for me) to drink.

- (2) Remake these sentences using *too*.
This hat is very big; he's only a little boy.
This grammar is very difficult: a child can't understand it. (20)

This type of exercise leads to the errors in Table III, 4. The common confusion of *since* and *for* (Table IV, 4) is sometimes reinforced by similar exercises, such as those which require choosing the correct preposition in sentences like:

I have been here (for/since) a week.
We have been in Canada (for/since) 1968.

Constant attempts to contrast related areas of English can thus have quite different results from those we intend. As yet, there is no substantial confirmation that a contrastive

20. These examples are taken from Paul Nation, *Too, So, Very* working paper, English Language Institute, Victoria University of Wellington, 1967.

approach to teaching is likely to be "a priori" more effective than any other approach.

Classroom experience and common sense often suggest that a safer strategy for instruction is to minimize opportunities for confusion by selecting non-synonymous contexts for related words, by treating them at different times, and by avoiding exercises based on contrast and transformation.

CONCLUSIONS

An analysis of the major types of intralingual and developmental errors -- over-generalization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and the building of false systems or concepts -- may lead us to examine our teaching materials for evidence of the language-learning assumptions that underlie them. Many current teaching practices are based on the notion that the learner will photographically reproduce anything that is given to him, and that if he doesn't, it is hardly the business of the teacher or text-book writer. It has been remarked that "Very surprisingly there are few published descriptions of how or what children learn. There are plenty of descriptions of what the teacher did and what materials were presented to the children but little about what mistakes the children made and how these

can be explained, or of what generalizations and learning strategies the children seem to be developing.... It may be that the child's strategy of learning is totally or partially independent of the methods by which he is being taught". (21)

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 interlanguage interference. Many errors however derive from the strategies employed by the learner in language acquisition, and from the mutual interference of items within the target language. These cannot be accounted for by contrastive analysis. Teaching techniques and procedures should take account of the structural and developmental conflicts that can come about in language learning.

21. J. Dakin, *The Teaching of Reading, Applied Linguistics and the Teaching of English*, Fraser and O'Donnell (Ed.), London: Longmans, 1969; p. 107-111.

Appendix

Tables I-VI

**Typical Intralingual and
Developmental Errors**

TABLE I

Errors in the Production of Verb Groups

<p>1.</p>	<p><i>be + verb stem for verb stem</i></p> <hr/> <p>We are live in this hut</p> <p>The sentence is occurs . . .</p> <p>We are hope . . .</p> <p>He is speaks French</p> <p>The telegraph is remain . . .</p> <p>We are walk to school every day.</p>
<p>2.</p>	<p><i>be + verb stem + ed for verb stem + ed</i></p> <hr/> <p>Farmers are went to their houses.</p> <p>He was died last year.</p> <p>One day it was happened.</p> <p>The teacher was told us.</p> <p>They are opened the door.</p>
<p>3.</p>	<p>wrong form after <i>do</i></p> <hr/> <p>He did not found . . .</p> <p>He did not agreed . . .</p> <p>The man does not cares for his life.</p> <p>He did not asks me.</p> <p>He does not has . . .</p>

(cont'd.)

TABLE I (Cont'd.)

4.	<p>wrong form after modal verb</p> <p>Can be regard as . . .</p> <p>We can took him out.</p> <p>I can saw it.</p> <p>It can drawing heavy loads.</p> <p>They can used it.</p> <p>It can use in state processions.</p> <p>She cannot goes.</p> <p>She cannot to go</p> <p>They would became</p> <p>We must made.</p> <p>We can to see.</p> <p>We must worked hard.</p>
5.	<p><i>be</i> omitted before <i>verb + stem + ed</i> (participle)</p> <p>He born in England</p> <p>It used in church during processions.</p> <p>They satisfied with their lot.</p> <p>He disgusted.</p> <p>He reminded of the story.</p>
6.	<p><i>ed</i> omitted after <i>be + participle verb stem</i></p> <p>The sky is cover with clouds.</p> <p>He was punish.</p> <p>Some trees are unroot</p>

(cont'd.)

Table I (cont'd.)

7.	<p><i>be</i> omitted before <i>verb + ing</i></p> <p>They running very fast.</p> <p>The cows also crying.</p> <p>The industry growing fast.</p> <p>At 10.30 he going to kill the sheep</p>
8.	<p>verb stem for stem + <i>s</i></p> <p>He always talk a lot.</p> <p>He come from India.</p> <p>She speak German as well</p>

TABLE II

Errors in the Distribution of Verb Groups

1.	<p><i>be + verb + ing for be + verb + ed</i></p> <p>I am interesting in that.</p> <p>The country was discovering by Columbus.</p>
2.	<p><i>be + verb + ing for verb stem</i></p> <p>She is coming from Canada.</p> <p>I am having my hair cut on Thursdays.</p>
3.	<p><i>be + not + verb + ing for do + not + verb</i></p> <p>I am not liking it.</p> <p>Correct rules are not existing.</p> <p>In French we are not having a present continuous tense and we are not knowing when to use it.</p>
4.	<p><i>be + verb + ing for verb + ed in narrative</i></p> <p>. . . in the afternoon we were going back. On Saturday we were going down town, and we were seeing a film and after we were meeting my brother.</p>
5.	<p><i>verb stem for verb+ed in narrative</i></p> <p>There were two animals who do not like each other. One day they go into a wood and there is no water. The monkey says to the elephant . . .</p>

(cont'd.)

Table II (Cont'd.)

6.	<i>have + verb + ed for verb + ed</i>
	<p>They had arrived just now.</p> <p>He had come today.</p> <p>I have written this letter yesterday.</p> <p>Some weeks ago I have seen an English film.</p> <p>He has arrived at noon.</p> <p>I have learned English at school.</p>
7.	<i>have + be + verb + ed for be + verb + ed</i>
	<p>He has been married long ago.</p> <p>He has been killed in 1956.</p>
8.	<i>verb (+ ed) for have + verb + ed</i>
	<p>We correspond with them up to now.</p> <p>This is the only country which I visited so far.</p>
9.	<i>be + verb + ed for verb stem</i>
	<p>This money is belonged to me.</p> <p>The machine is comed from France</p>

TABLE III

Miscellaneous Errors

1.	Wrong verb form in adverb of time
	<p>I shall meet him before the train will go.</p> <p>We must wait here until the train will return.</p>
2.	Object omitted or included unnecessarily
	<p>We saw him play football and we admired.</p> <p>This is not fit to drink it.</p> <p>This is the king's horse which he rides it every day.</p> <p>That is the man who I saw him.</p>
3.	Errors in tense sequence
	<p>He said that there is a boy in the garden.</p> <p>When the evening came we go to the pictures.</p> <p>When I came back I am tired.</p>
4.	Confusion of <i>too</i> , <i>so</i> , <i>very</i>
	<p>I am very lazy to stay at home.</p> <p>I am too tired that I cannot work.</p> <p>I am very tired that I cannot go.</p> <p>When I first saw him he was too young.</p> <p>Honey is too much sweet.</p> <p>The man became so exhausted and fell on the floor.</p>

TABLE IVErrors in the Use of Prepositions

1.	<i>with</i> instead of	Ø <i>from</i> <i>against</i> <i>of</i> <i>at</i>	met with her, married with her suffering with a cold fight with tyranny consist with laughed with my words
2.	<i>in</i> instead of	Ø <i>on</i> <i>with</i> <i>for</i> <i>at</i> <i>to</i> <i>by</i>	entered in the room, in the next day in T.V. fallen in love in Ophelia in this purpose in this time go in Poland the time in your watch
3.	<i>at</i> instead of	Ø <i>by</i> <i>in</i> <i>to</i> <i>for</i>	reached at a place, at last year held him at the left arm at the evening; interested at it went at Stratford at the first time
4.	<i>for</i> instead of	Ø <i>in</i> <i>of</i> <i>from</i> <i>since</i>	serve for God one bath for seven days suspected for, the position for Chinese coolies a distance for one country to another been here for the 6th of June

(Cont'd.)

Table IV (Cont'd.)

5.	<i>on</i> instead of	<p><i>∅</i></p> <p><i>in</i></p> <p><i>at</i></p> <p><i>with</i></p> <p><i>of</i></p> <p><i>to</i></p>	<p>played on the piano for an hour</p> <p>on many ways, on that place, going on cars</p> <p>on the end</p> <p>angry on him</p> <p>countries on the world</p> <p>pays attention on it</p>
6.	<i>of</i> instead of	<p><i>∅</i></p> <p><i>in</i></p> <p><i>by</i></p> <p><i>on</i></p> <p><i>for</i></p>	<p>aged of 44, drink less of wine</p> <p>rich of vitamins</p> <p>book of Hardy</p> <p>depends of civilization</p> <p>a reason of it</p>
7.	<i>to</i> instead of	<p><i>∅</i></p> <p><i>for</i></p> <p><i>of</i></p>	<p>join to them, went to home, reached to the place</p> <p>an occupation to them</p> <p>his love to her</p>

TABLE V

Errors in the Use of Articles

1.	<p>Omission of <i>the</i></p> <hr/> <p>(a) before unique nouns Sun is very hot Himalayas are . . .</p> <p>(b) before nouns of nationality Spaniards and Arabs . . .</p> <p>(c) before nouns made particular in context At the conclusion of article She goes to bazaar every day She is mother of that boy</p> <p>(d) before a noun modified by a participle Solution given in this article</p> <p>(e) before superlatives Richest person</p> <p>(f) before a noun modified by an <i>of</i>-phrase Institute of Nuclear Physics</p>
2.	<p><i>the</i> used instead of \emptyset</p> <hr/> <p>(a) before proper names The Shakespeare, the Sunday</p> <p>(b) before abstract nouns The friendship, the nature, the science</p> <p>(c) before nouns behaving like abstract nouns After the school, after the breakfast</p> <p>(d) before plural nouns The complex structures are still developing.</p> <p>(e) before <i>some</i> The some knowledge</p>

(cont'd.)

Table V (Cont'd.)

3.	<i>a</i> used instead of <i>the</i>	
	(a) before superlatives	a worst, a best boy in the class
	(b) before unique nouns	a sun becomes red
4.	<i>a</i> used instead of \emptyset	
	(a) before a plural noun qualified by an adjective	a holy places, a human beings, a bad news
	(b) before uncountables	a gold, a work
	(c) before an adjective	. . . taken as a definite
5.	omission of <i>a</i>	
	before class nouns defined by adjectives	he was good boy he was brave man

TABLE VI

Errors in the Use of Questions

<p>1.</p>	<p>Omission of inversion</p> <hr/> <p>What was called the film?</p> <p>How many brothers she has?</p> <p>What she is doing?</p> <p>When she will be 15?</p> <p>Why this man is cold?</p> <p>Why streets are as bright as day?</p>
<p>2.</p>	<p><i>be</i> omitted before <i>verb + ing</i></p> <hr/> <p>When Jane coming?</p> <p>What she doing</p> <p>What he saying?</p>
<p>3.</p>	<p>Omission of <i>do</i></p> <hr/> <p>Where it happened?</p> <p>How it looks like?</p> <p>Why you went?</p> <p>How you say it in English</p> <p>How much it costs?</p> <p>How long it takes?</p> <p>What he said?</p>

(Cont'd.)

Table VI (Cont'd.)

4.	Wrong from of auxiliary, or wrong form after auxiliary
	Do he go there? Did he went? Did he finished? Do he comes from your village' Which road did you came by?
5.	Inversion omitted in embedded sentences
	Please write down what is his name . I told him I do not know how old was it. I don't know how many are there in the box.