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List of Abbreviations

CA Contrastive Analysis

CAH Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CL Contrastive Linguistics

CLI Cross Linguistic Influence

EA Error Analysis

FL Foreign Language

HTS High Tone Syllable

IL Interlanguage

L1 First Language

L2 Second Language

LL Learner Language

MT Mother Tongue

MTI Mother Tongue Interference

NL Native Language

NPE National Policy on Education

NT Negative Transfer

PT Positive Transfer

SLA Second Language Acquisition

TL Target Language

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Abstract

This study examines the interference of the mother tongue on the written English of secondary school students in the southwest part of Nigeria. The theoretical portion of the study presents an overview, among other items, of the role and status of English in Nigeria, the nature and characteristics of the learner language, second language errors and their significance in second language acquisition, contrastive linguistics, and error analysis. A contrastive study of English and Yoruba was conducted to ascertain the main cause of the errors identified to diminish or eradicate them. The empirical part of the study comprises of data analysis, discussion of the study results, conclusion, and recommendations. The English texts were written by bilingual secondary school students whose mother tongue was Yoruba. The most representative errors in the corpus were identified and categorized into grammatical categories to determine the grammatical aspects of English which have the highest frequency of errors.

The primary goal of this study was to analyze, identify, and categorize the ensuing errors to present a genuine statement regarding the interference of the students' mother tongue. The study presents the quantity of the identified errors within each category and their rates of occurrences in relation to the total number of errors committed by the students. The study also investigates the extent to which the grammatical and structural differences between English and Yoruba affects the students' English proficiency. The results of this study revealed that errors are inevitable in second language acquisition, considering that even advanced learners of a foreign language are liable to commit errors.

In conclusion, the results of this study indicated that one's mother tongue plays a significant role in the acquisition of a foreign language. This was evident in the influence of the students' mother tongue on their written English. However, the study results showed that the interference of Yoruba was minimal, as the total number of intralingual errors dominated that of interlingual errors. Furthermore, the study researcher provided recommendations for how teachers could help students improve their proficiency in the target language. Clearly, it is important to carry out further academic research into second language acquisition to identify the most appropriate methods for teaching Yoruba learners of English and correcting their errors.

Zusammenfassung

Die vorliegende Arbeit untersucht den muttersprachlichen Einfluss auf das geschriebene Englisch von Schülern der Sekundarstufe im Südwesten Nigerias. Der theoretische Teil gewährt einen Überblick über Rolle und Status des Englischen in Nigeria, Wesen und Eigenschaften einer 'Lernendensprache' (*learner language*), Zweitsprachfehler und ihre Bedeutung für den Zweitspracherwerb, sowie über Kontrastive Linguistik und Fehleranalyse. Eine kontrastive Analyse der beiden Sprachen Englisch und Yoruba wurde durchgeführt, um die Hauptursachen von festgestellten Fehlern zu bestimmen, und diese in weiterer Folge zu reduzieren. Der empirische Teil der Arbeit umfasst die Datenanalyse, die Diskussion der Ergebnisse, sowie Schlussfolgerungen und Empfehlungen. Die englischen Texte wurden von bilingualen Schülern der Sekundarstufe geschrieben, welche Yoruba als Muttersprache angaben. Die charakteristischsten Fehler im Korpus wurden identifiziert und gemäß grammatikalischen Kategorien zugeordnet, um jene grammatikalischen Aspekte zu bestimmen, die mit der höchsten Häufigkeit zu Fehlern führen.

Das primäre Ziel der vorliegenden Studie war es, wiederkehrende Fehler zu bestimmen, zu analysieren und zu kategorisieren, um zu einem fundierten Gesamtbild bezüglich des Einflusses der Muttersprache zu gelangen. Die Studie präsentiert die Anzahl der identifizierten Fehler innerhalb jeder Kategorie sowie deren relative Häufigkeit in Relation zur jeweiligen Fehleranfälligkeit der Schüler. Außerdem wird in der Studie untersucht, inwieweit sich grammatikalische und strukturelle Unterschiede zwischen Englisch und Yoruba auf das Sprachniveau der Schüler auswirken. Die Ergebnisse offenbaren, dass Fehler im Zweitspracherwerb unvermeidbar sind, nachdem selbst fortgeschrittene Lernende einer Fremdsprache durchaus für Fehler anfällig sind.

Insgesamt legen die Ergebnisse nahe, dass der Muttersprache eine maßgebliche Rolle im Fremdspracherwerb zukommt. Dies wird im Einfluss, den die Muttersprache auf das geschriebene Englisch der Schüler hat, offensichtlich. Die Arbeit zeigt jedoch auch, dass die Interferenz von Yoruba auf Englisch relativ gering ist. Die Gesamthäufigkeit sprachinterner Fehler übersteigt jene sprachübergreifender Fehler bei Weitem. Auf diesen Resultaten aufbauend wird eine Reihe von Empfehlungen formuliert, wie Lehrende Schüler dabei unterstützen können, ihre Fähigkeiten in der Zielsprache zur verbessern. Weiterführende Untersuchungen sind notwendig, um die bestgeeigneten Methoden für den Englischunterricht mit Yoruba sprechende Schülern zu ermitteln.

1. Introduction

1.1. Purpose of the Study

This study focuses on mother tongue interference when learning a second language. It will examine how the Yoruba language interferes with the learning of English in Yoruba speaking regions of Nigeria. Error analysis will be employed to identify those aspects of the English language which are problematic for those whose mother tongue is Yoruba. It has been suggested that the mother tongue of students has significantly influenced their written and spoken English in all academic institutions in Nigeria, particularly in the southwest of the country. The effect of a mother tongue on the target language has been a major problem which affects language learners in their acquisition of a new language. According to Olanipekun (2014: 1), "the poor level of achievement in many subject areas may be due to [a] poor foundation in [the] English language among secondary school students which invariably may be connected with the conflict between mother tongue and English".

The poor standard of written and spoken English of Nigerian secondary school students is the major motivating factor for this research. The quality of students' written and spoken English in various academic institutions has diminished over the years due to certain factors which will be examined in this study. As mentioned above, this research is limited to the southwest region of Nigeria where Yoruba is the mother tongue of the majority of the population, and will investigate how Yoruba interferes with the written English of students. It will identify the primary causes of these problems and recommend lasting solutions for them. Mother tongue interference[1] is an issue that has to be dealt with directly due to its devastating effects on students' efforts in learning a second language. Fraser (1980: 129) asserts "that students' poor performance in other school subjects is traceable to the inability of students to express themselves meaningfully in English or meet the language demands the subjects make on them". This is a critical issue given that English proficiency has become mandatory for students wishing to achieve success in academic fields and other aspects of life.

Another factor that engendered this research is my aspiration to be a part of the solution that will put to rest the perennial problem of mother tongue interference, which hinders students learning English. Despite the fact that English is the official language in Nigeria, students' spoken and written English is not without deviant constructions. Problems of mother tongue

[1] Mother Tongue Interference (MTI) will be discussed in more detail in section 2.5.

interference are not limited to students alone. Many professionals in various fields in Nigeria also experience these problems. The level of native language interference in their written English is not however as pronounced as it is with students. The official status of English in the country has made it imperative for students to have adequate knowledge of the language. A passing grade in English is also one of the basic requirements in order to gain admission into a Nigerian University or any other higher academic institution of learning in the country. The fundamental goals of this research then are to provide early intervention to combat those longstanding problems that have bedeviled students' efforts to effectively learn and use English.

1.2. Research Questions

Mother tongue (L1) interference has been identified as a major factor responsible for students' difficulty in learning the target language (L2). As a result, the following questions aim to investigate the influence of Yoruba in students' acquisition of English:

1. Is Mother Tongue interference truly the major factor responsible for the errors identified in the students' written English?
2. What are the occasions on which students' knowledge of Yoruba impedes their learning of English?
3. Which aspects of students' written English are most influenced by their knowledge of Yoruba, resulting in an error?
4. How can we diminish Yoruba's interference and improve students' proficiency in English?

This study aims to provide appropriate answers to these questions which will, in turn, become relevant sources for useful recommendations and suggestions. The answers to these questions could also guide other researchers who may be interested in doing further research in this area.

1.3. The Scope of the Study

This research will mainly center on the grammar and syntax of both English and Yoruba. These are the areas in which abundant interference in the written constructions of Yoruba learners of English occurs. Researchers have carried out many contrasting studies on both languages in these fields. The differences between both languages are explored in order to ascertain which aspects of the target language are most affected by interference. According to Banjo (1969: 210), "it is interesting to note that interference from L1 leads the Yoruba learner [of English]

to say, ‘he asked that whether he should sit down’ – using two embedded sentence introducers instead of one”.

One hundred students in the senior classes were selected from both private and public secondary schools to take part in this study. The students were instructed to write a composition on the topic: *A Story I Will Never Forget*. The most representative errors were selected from the errors identified in the students’ written texts. The selected errors which derive from the written texts were analyzed using mixed methods research. Error Analysis was used as guideline to analyze the data information for this study. To start with, the errors in the students’ written compositions were identified and corrected so that they could be contrasted with the correct forms in English. Then the various errors were classified into different categories in order to ascertain their rate of occurrence in the research data. Once complete, the errors were then tabulated and organized according to their individual classes to determine the various interference variables.

This thesis is organized into two different parts. The first part provides the background knowledge which is required to understand the basic concepts and importance of this study, as well as previous studies done in this area. The second part focusses on the empirical aspects, which involves the analysis and classification of the research data, the methodology, and the results of the findings. Conclusions and recommendations follow on from that point.

THEORETICAL PART

2. The function and role of English in Nigeria

2.1. History of English in Nigeria

The English language was introduced in Nigeria by British traders in the 16th century. The British arrived at the shores of Africa for trade (including the slave trade), but had communication problems with indigenous traders. As a result, a Pidgin English developed as a means of communication between traders. Nigerian Pidgin English is extensively spoken in Nigeria because the language is very easy to speak and understand. The Nigerian Pidgin is commonly regarded as the predecessor of the standard Nigerian English and is spoken by Nigerians from almost all the various ethnic groups in the country.

After the coming of the British traders, European missionaries brought Christianity into the country in the 18th century. It was this period that the slave trade was abolished. When the missionaries arrived they built missionary schools across the country, particularly in the southern parts of Nigeria, and taught the people how to read the Bible in English. After the abolition of slave trade, some slaves returned to Nigeria when they regained their freedom and worked for the missionaries as translators and interpreters.[2]

The coming of the missionaries and the abolition of slave trade contributed immensely to the growth and development of the English language in Nigeria. These events have made the English language more prominent than the various indigenous languages in the country. Another factor in the spread of English in Nigeria was the unification of the southern and northern regions of the country in 1914. According to Yusuf (2012: 196), the British colonial administrators amalgamated the northern and southern regions of Nigeria in 1914 by joining "together people of diverse ethnic, cultural and linguistic background" as one nation. Since this meant bringing together people speaking hundreds of languages unintelligible to most, a neutral and familiar language was chosen to serve formal and official functions in the country. As Jenkins (2003: 35) points out, "whether a country has imperial antecedents or not, English may have a role in providing a neutral means of communication between its different ethnic groups". It is on this basis that English became the official and national language in Nigeria.

2.2. Status of English in Nigeria

Nigeria is a multi-lingual and multi-ethnic country with over four hundred and fifty languages spoken by various ethnic communities in the country. English, as mentioned above, was selected as the official language, due to its neutrality among the various indigenous languages in the country. There is currently no other nationally neutral language in Nigeria; none of the hundreds of indigenous minority and majority languages in the country fulfill this role. According to Nida and Wonderly (1971: 65), "the political survival of Nigeria as a country would even be more seriously threatened if any of these three [major] languages [Yoruba, Igbo, Hausa] are promoted by the government as being the one national language". The preference for English as Nigeria's official language was to deliberately create a linguistic means to preserve its socio-political and economic development. Another factor in the choice of English

[2] For more information on British imperialism in Nigeria, see http://www.britishempire.co.uk/maproom/southernnigeria.htm

as the national language in the country was that no member of the various ethnic communities was ready to learn or use the languages of other ethnic groups.

Many Nigerians, particularly among minority ethnic groups, assume that if any of the major indigenous languages is made the official language in Nigeria, they may lose their language. Generally, when a language has not been spoken or written for a long time it becomes effectively extinct. The basis for this assumption is that many minority languages in the country which were isolated in the past are no longer in existence. The owners of these minority languages have now adopted one of the major languages that dominate their region as their native language due to language loss. Most languages which are not passed on to younger generations become endangered, and they eventually go extinct (Balogun 2013: 72).

The status of the English language in Nigeria makes it essential for students and professionals in the country to be proficient in the language. A good knowledge of English is needed for effective formal communication and to carry out important official assignments. The English language has thus become so valuable that we cannot go without using it. It is mandatory for students and other English users in Nigeria to have an acceptable level of competence in the language. Most Nigerian students do not, however, measure up to an acceptable standard of both spoken and written English. Many scholars have complained about the poor performance of students in their use of English. According to Oyedotun-Alli (2014: 2), "the poor success recorded by students who sit for English examinations in various public schools across the country is worrisome". Therefore, it is the responsibility of teachers and researchers to find a lasting solution to this persistent problem.

2.3. Nigerian English

The major reason for the different varieties of English is that most countries in the world are bi- or multi-lingual. As a result, English learners use code-mixing or code-switching in their linguistic utterances. Nigerian English emerged as a result of language contact between British English and Nigerian indigenous languages. Nigerian English is a special variety of English which is considerably different from varieties like British, American, Australian, and Canadian English due to its utilization of materials from indigenous languages. The indigenous languages in Nigeria are tonal in nature. This phonological attribute is one of the factors which has influenced both spoken and written English in the country. Nigerian English is widely spoken by the elites and is the language used in education, administration, politics, and media in the country. The language has been well researched over the past decades and its features have been

established. Different kinds of studies have been carried out on Nigeria English, and academic papers have also been written about it.

However, some linguists have upheld British and American Standard English as the 'norm' and often refer to other varieties of English as non-standard norms or vulgarisms. Other linguists have a different opinion as to the varieties of English that can be accepted as standards. These linguists recognize Nigerian English and other similar varieties of English as standard varieties because of their intelligibility and social acceptance among their users within the society. According to Parakrama (1995: 9), "the existence of standards, however objectionable, cannot be denied, so the only viable option, politically at any rate, is to work towards broadening the standard to include the greatest variety possible". Jowitt (1991: 35) argues that the most significant need presently is to shift from "the well-flogged idea of 'standard' vs. 'non-standard', 'international' vs. 'internal' to the task of describing and analyzing the forms of Nigerian English". Okoro (2013: 95) also claims that "there has since been an unequivocal acceptance of Nigerian English as a legitimate variety of English worldwide and it has since taken its pride of place among the 'New Englishes'".

2.4. Yoruba language

The Yoruba language is one of three major native languages in Nigeria. A large number of the population in the southwest region of the country have Yoruba as their mother tongue. Nigeria currently have Yoruba as one of its largest ethnic and cultural groups, even though Nigerian indigenous languages are not equally distributed. Yoruba is predominantly spoken in the southwest, whereas Hausa and Igbo are mainly spoken in the north and southeast of Nigeria respectively. All of these indigenous languages belong to different language families. According to Omo-Ojugo (2004: 2):

> Most of the languages in Nigeria belong to Niger-Kordofanian. The Niger-Kordofanian is divided into Niger-Congo and Kordofanian. There are no languages from the Kordofanian group in Nigeria. The Niger-Congo family is further divided into West-Atlantic, Mande, Gur, Kwa, Benue-Congo and Adamawa-Ubangian families.

As reported by Adewole (1987: 1), "Yoruba belongs to the Kwa group of Niger-Congo family of African languages". Besides Nigeria, Yoruba is also spoken in Togo and the Benin Republic in Africa. Yoruba is not limited to Africa, as it extends to the Americas. During the time of the Atlantic slave trade, many Yoruba indigenes were taken as slaves to America. After the abolition of the slave trade, "many former slaves stayed in the Americas, and their descendants are now part of communities in Cuba, Brazil, Saint Lucia, Grenada, and Trinidad and Tobago"

(Adewole 1987: 14). And they have influenced these societies with their language, beliefs, and culture (Adewole 1987: 14).[3] The Yoruba-speaking communities are known as 'Lucumi' in Cuba, while they are called 'Nago' in Brazil.

The influence of Yoruba in some parts of the world and Nigeria, in particular, has made it a popular language around the globe. Much investigation has been performed on the language by both domestic and foreign researchers due to its widespread use. Yoruba has a well-developed grammar which has doubtless contributed to its international recognition. Oyedakun-Alli (2014: 3) points out that "the pre-eminence of Yoruba language has been firmly established in earlier works like Greenberg's (1963) Language Universals". For many years, Yoruba has played several important roles in the areas of education and socio-cultural activities. In southwest Nigeria, Yoruba function as the language of instruction in the pre-primary and lower primary schools, and as a curriculum subject in secondary schools. Yoruba is used in the press, as well as radio and television stations across the country. Yoruba is also studied as a University degree course both in Nigeria and abroad.

2.5. Mother Tongue Interference

2.5.1. Introduction

The most restraining and inherent obstacle in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is the effect of the learners' mother tongue. Therefore, Mother Tongue Interference (MTI) should not be ignored, but rather conscious and urgent efforts should be made by second language learners to prevent it. This means that learners of foreign languages have to familiarize themselves with the target language by consistently speaking and writing it. Children whose parents live in Nigerian cities, especially in the various state capitals across the country, have exceptional proficiency in the English language as they communicate only in English irrespective of their native languages. Consequently, these children grow up accepting English as their mother tongue because English was the only language ever spoken to them since childhood. The monolingual status of these children exempts them from the persistent effects of MTI. On the other hand, students who reside in rural communities with their parents have limited proficiency in English. These students mostly communicate in their native languages at home and they

[3] Wikipedia. 2016. Yoruba People. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yoruba_people (15 July 2016).

sometimes use the language in school too. The bilingual status of these students subjects them to MTI in their spoken and written English communications.

2.5.2. Definition of Mother Tongue

Mother tongue (MT) "is the language which a group of people considered to be inhabitants of an area acquired in the early years and which eventually becomes their natural instrument of thoughts and communication" (Olanipekun et al. 2014: 3). MT is the language that a child acquired first after birth. The child employs this language as a medium to communicate with his parents and peers both at home and in school. According to Olutekunbi (2011: 53), MT denotes the language which one acquires from his mother and is also the dominant language that is used at home. MT is also defined as the first language in which a child learns and successfully employs when communicating with other members of the society (Patrick et al. 2013: 285).

2.5.3. History of the Study of Mother Tongue Interference

The influence of MT on the target language has been a longstanding problem in SLA. However, MTI is not by its nature homogeneous. Instead, the linguistic relationship between the mother tongue and the foreign language is necessary for determining the level of interference. It has been observed from previous studies that if the MT has considerable similarities with the target language (TL), the interference will be low. However, when there are vast differences between both languages, the interference will be high. After several studies, researchers have developed theoretical approaches which have successfully studied the extent of MTI "so that students, learners, researchers and teachers of the second language could further develop the exploration about [the] impact of mother tongue influence" (Olutekunbi 2011: 55). Many studies have been conducted around the world, particularly after the establishment of SLA in the 1970s. Since this time, researchers and linguistic experts have continued to investigate the effect of MTI in the learning of a foreign language.

Dulay and Burt (1974) investigated MTI in learning a second language (L2) using error analysis. After the study had been conducted it was found that the structuring of a child's L2 does not necessarily lead to a negative or positive transfer, neither does it contrast with his or her MT. Rather, it depends on their engagement with the L2 syntax.

Bhela (1999) conducted a comprehensive study of MTI on the L2. He pointed out that the L2 domain comprises everything which the language learner observes in the new language. It may consist of occasional and limited activities restricted only to the immediate classroom

environment, like the study of languages and books. On the other hand, it may also involve multiple activities, such as conversation with friends, reading newspapers, or listening to the radio. He adds that irrespective of the learning environment, the main objective is for the learner to be proficient in the TL. The learner usually begins learning a language with little or no knowledge of it "through a gradual accumulation of the mastered elements of the TL" and as a result, the learner "eventually constitute a specific level of proficiency" (Bhela 1999: 22). Bhela (1999: 23) also asserts that the result of the investigation reveals that "the interference may result from a strategy on the part of the learner which assumes or predicts equivalence, both formally and functionally, of two items or rules sharing either function or form".

In addition, Albert and Obler (1978) conducted an investigation of MTI on the TL. They indicated the importance of examining the relationship between the MT and the TL. At the end of the study, they observed that "people show more lexical interference on similar items" (Bhela 1999: 23). Many learning challenges could result in performance interference in some aspects of the TL which are at variance with the MT. As a result, it becomes problematic for the learner to acquire and comprehend an entire new usage.

2.5.4. The importance of Mother Tongue

Nigeria consists of different nations that were forcefully unified by the British colonial administration for their own interests. Nigeria is politically a single country, but linguistically, culturally, and religiously it is a multi-nation. The majority of Nigerian citizens do not primarily identify themselves as Nigerians but rather as members of their various ethnic communities, with whom they share the same MT. As Khatib (2011: 1704) points out, a person's sociolinguistic identity depends on several factors such as ethnicity, language, and environment. In Nigeria, people prefer to communicate in their MT due to the importance of the language to the society which they live in. For instance, a Yoruba man would always introduce himself first as a Yoruba instead of a Nigerian as a result of his allegiance to his immediate ethnic community. According to Patrick (2013: 285), "every tongue expresses the culture of society to the complete satisfaction of its members". They assume the preservation of their MT is important in securing their cultural heritage. Some people, however, attach more value to their second or foreign language because of its advantages over their native language.

The MT is fundamental in a child's educational development despite the challenges it poses to learners during the second language acquisition process. The employment of an MT as a medium for instructing the child during their childhood education would help them develop linguistically. According to Olanipekun (2014: 3):

> It was in recognition of the importance and contributions of mother tongue to education that made the Federal Ministry of Education in collaboration with other educational statutory agencies include in the National Policy of Education [NPE] Published in 1977, revised in 1981, the use of mother tongue as a medium of educating pupils at the pre-primary and [the first three years of] primary [education].

This decision was taken because children can easily understand concepts in their native language, which they are more knowledgeable about than any other language. According to the National Policy on Education (NPE) 1981, "section (4, 19 (e)) states that the medium of instruction in primary school shall be the language of the environment [MT] for the first three years; during this period, English shall [only] be taught as a subject". The importance of MT and its contribution to the development of the child's education prompted the Federal Government of Nigeria to collaborate with Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) and draft section (4, 19 (e)) of the NPE. Teaching a child in an unfamiliar language is difficult because children learn faster in the language they are conversant in.

3. Learner Language in Second Language Acquisition

3.1. Introduction

Second language acquisition research "involves the description and explanation of the developmental processes undergone by second language learners" in their efforts to acquire the foreign language (Ellis 2008: 32). It is a broad field of investigation that has contributed to linguistics and other disciplines. As a result of the heterogeneous publications in the field of SLA, it is impossible to keep accurate records of its development over the years. Hence, some researchers doubt if SLA research is consistent, with recognizable objectives and methods of investigation. There is a difference between *General* and *Instructed* SLA. General SLA examines the issues which are related to second language learners regardless of "whether they are in a naturalistic or an instructed setting", while Instructed SLA involves "the processes through which learners acquire the second language" in a classroom environment (Ellis 2008: 33). In General SLA, a difference is established between "*Description*, where the focus is on the features of the learner language (LL) and *Explanation*, where the focus is on the theoretical underpinning of second language learning and the distinctiveness of the individual learner" (Ellis 2008: 33). Instructed SLA on the other hand, refers to the types of classroom interactions which influence second language learning and whether learners truly acquire what they are taught. Ellis (2008: 6), also indicate that *Naturalistic* SLA involves a situation in which a

language is acquired through natural conversation in social settings, while *Instructed* SLA takes place inside the classroom "with the help of books and other instructional materials".

Another distinction is that between *second* and *foreign* language acquisition. Second language acquisition can perform social and institutional responsibilities in the community. The second language is employed as a means of communication between different members of a particular community with different MTs. For instance, the multilingual setting of Nigeria makes it difficult for all of its citizens to communicate among themselves in their native languages. The English language then became a medium of inter-ethnic communication and mediation between the diverse ethnic groups in the country. Conversely, foreign language learning is usually carried out in an environment where the language does not perform any major function in the community but is rather learned as a classroom subject. The distinction between 'acquisition' and 'learning' has also been widely accepted despite previous debates on the topic. 'Acquisition' can be defined as a subconscious means of acquiring a language through exposure to that particular language, while 'learning' is a conscious process of learning a language (Ellis 2008: 7).[4]

Broadly speaking, the purpose of SLA research is to provide a detailed analysis of learners' linguistic competence, such as the description of its development and the investigation of its acquisition procedure. According to researchers, investigation of the learners' language (LL) will help them to understand their level of proficiency. Researchers, therefore, need to study LL in order to determine learners' understanding in the second language. Ellis (2008: 41) thus argues that "learner language constitutes the most important source of information about how learners can learn an L2". The analysis of samples of LL can help researchers amass a thorough knowledge and understanding of SLA process. In the late 1960s to early 1970s, there were many case studies of LL. These studies were carried out over a period of years to investigate learners' second language acquisition strategies and communicative competence. Naturalistic and instructed language learning methods were employed in these studies to determine which of these approaches was most suitable for language learners. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1992: 299) points out that, "several theorists have claimed that interlanguage development in instructed (classroom) learners does not differ significantly from that in learners acquiring an SL naturalistically". This type of study later became obsolete as they were time-consuming and did not allow for generalization. Case studies have however become popular again recently.

[4] For more information on Learning and Acquisition, see Krashen's Monitor Model (Krashen 1977).

Clearly, a proper understanding of the concepts of SLA would be helpful for the teaching and learning of a foreign language and other language-related disciplines. Despite the time and effort which researchers and teachers have devoted to describing and explaining the processes of SLA, many questions regarding the nature of LL are still unanswered. Some answers to the various issues concerning its development are not even widely accepted. Further practical research on LL is thus required to obtain clearer answers to important questions relating to its emergence and development. Discoveries in the field of SLA also have to be consistently integrated with the knowledge acquired from complementary disciplines, such as psychology or psycholinguistics.

3.2. The nature of learner language

Many kinds of research have previously been carried out in the area of learner language to obtain a proper knowledge of SLA processes. Researchers have particularly focused on learners' spoken and written language productions. In the beginning, there was a misconception in the sense that LL became known as a deviant form of language emanating from the learners' inability to communicate properly in the TL. LL was described as a collection of errors, an obnoxious phase in language development that was not worth spending time on. Errors became viewed as worrisome and burdensome elements which needed to be erased. The causes of errors and their preventions were not given serious attention until research proved that they are a crucial component in SLA processes. According to Corder (1981: 66), "the making of errors is an inevitable and indeed necessary part of the learning process". LL has since become "a linguistic system with its own norms and structures" (Selinker 1972: 35). Lennon (2008: 56) claims that "learner language has empirically been found to be systematic, dynamic, and variable and simplified, both formally and functionally, relative to the TL and the learner's native language".

Researchers and linguists have used various terms and concepts to describe LL. According to Corder (1981: 14), LL is a natural and extraordinary kind of dialect which has its own language and grammar. LL is then observed as a language that has a meaningful system and a specific set of rules. Since some aspects of LL rules are quite similar to those of its TL, the explanatory rules of the LL will be commensurate to those of the TL. Regarding dialect status, "LL is an 'idiosyncratic' and not a 'social' dialect", due to its justification criteria being linguistic rather than social (Corder 1981: 15). LL is also known as "an *approximative system*, and is a linguistic system employed by the learner who tries to use the TL" (Nemser 1971: 55). The nature of the approximative system differs, with factors like communicative role, the level of competency,

learning experience, and individual learning features being responsible for the difference. LL has also been called 'interlanguage' (IL), a concept initially obtained from Corder's (1967) 'transitional competence'. IL consists of utterances produced by a language learner attempting to communicate in the TL (Selinker 1972: 35).

3.3. Interlanguage

Interlanguage is a term that was coined by Larry Selinker (1972) in his work titled 'Interlanguage Theory'. Selinker (1972: 35) points out that:

> Since we can observe that these two sets of utterances [LL and TL] are not identical, […], one would be […] compelled to hypothesize, the existence of a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a TL norm. This linguistic system we will call 'interlanguage'.

An IL is a form of mental or interim grammar which is created by learners of a foreign language in the process of acquiring the language. It is a form of language which is developed by second language learners who are yet to be fully proficient in the TL but are approximating it by overgeneralizing its rules and creating innovations (Rustipa 2011: 20). Learners make use of IL until they attain full proficiency in the TL.

In general, IL is a dynamic system moving towards the TL (Kante 2015: 4). It is usually full of errors because the learner strives to reach a target-like form during the SLA process. Errors in IL are developmental in nature, due to their significant roles in the learning of the second language. The relevance of IL theory is based on the fact that it is the first attempt to consider the learners' efforts to take charge of their learning. Since IL is mainly concerned with the processes of TL acquisition, it is helpful to understand the developmental procedures of the learner's IL. According to Kante (2015: 4), IL research provides answers to the following questions; "where does the learner go wrong?"; "what does the learner get right?"; "what is the nature of language learning?" and; "how can we best help learners on their way to the target language?" Selinker (1972: 35) points out the following as the cognitive processes fundamental to IL: "first, *language transfer*; second, *transfer of training*; third, *strategies of second language learning*; fourth, *strategies of second language communication*; and fifth, *overgeneralization of TL linguistic material*".

Selinker (1972) introduced the concept of *fossilization*. As stated in Selinker (1972: 36):

> Linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL.

Those fossilizable items in the native language (NL) sometimes continue to be part of the speaker's performance, reoccurring as part of the IL creative performance despite seeming to have been eliminated. Many of these items usually re-emerge in the IL performance when the learner is faced with a difficult situation, fear, or excitement. Apparently, the NL is responsible for the fossilizable structures which reoccur in the IL performance.

According to Selinker (1972: 37), "the most interesting phenomena in IL are those items, rules, and subsystems which are fossilizable regarding the [following] five processes":

> If it can be experimentally demonstrated that fossilizable items rules and subsystems which occur in IL performance are a result of the NL, then we are dealing with the process of *language transfer*; if these fossilizable items, rules, and subsystems are a result of identifiable items in training procedures, then we are dealing with the process known as *transfer of training*; if they are a result of an identifiable approach by the learner to the material to be learned, then we are dealing with *strategies of second language learning*; if they are a result of identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers of the TL, then we are dealing with *strategies of second language communication*; and lastly, if they are a result of a clear overgeneralization of the TL rules and semantic features, then we are dealing with the *overgeneralization of TL linguistic material*.

The concept of IL is based on eight premises of SLA. Even though error analysis' results backed many of these premises, researchers persistently repudiate some of them. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 54-55) describe these premises as follows:

1. The learners' IL is composed of implicit linguistic knowledge. In other words, there is no consciousness of the rules that constitute IL.
2. The learners' IL knowledge creates a system in precisely the same way a native speaker's grammar is a system. The system is responsible for the regularities that are evident in the learner's employment of the second language.
3. The learners' IL is permeable because it has a deficient and unstable nature which allows new internally and externally linguistic forms to freely access it.
4. The learners' IL is changeable. The learner gradually restructures his IL grammar over a period. This process requires the learner to go through a series of phases.
5. The learners' IL is inconsistent. At various points in the development, the learner uses different forms of divergent grammatical structure. This inconsistency may be accidental, but it is believed to be systematic in nature.
6. The learners' IL is a result of common learning strategies. One of these strategies is L1 transfer, but others are intralingual, such as simplification and overgeneralization.

7. The learners' may employ communication strategies to complement their IL through the amendment of gaps or the elimination of obstacles that prevent access to second language knowledge when performing.

8. The learners' IL may fossilize, and this can hinder them from developing and achieving native speaker level of grammar. Learners hardly attain full competence in all areas of TL during the SLA process due to the fossilization of their IL.

Despite the contributions of IL in the field of SLA, the approach has met with criticism for a variety of reasons. One criticism is that the processes through which the observable data was assigned were not always clear-cut. It might then be difficult to ascertain whether a particular constituent in the IL sequence results from language transfer, transfer of training or both (Selinker 1972: 42). Another problem with this approach is one of theoretical delineation. It is most improbable that IL will be able to foretell the items to be fossilized, and in which interlingual circumstances (Selinker 1972: 42). The IL approach has also been criticized for not being able to provide appropriate answers to critical questions such as, "how does a second language learning novice become able to produce IL utterances whose surface constituents are correct, i.e. correct with respect to the TL whose norm he is attempting to produce?" (Selinker 1972: 43). Clearly, when a language learner's productive performance is close to that of a native speaker, there will be fewer IL utterances.

3.4. L1 influence on L2 learning

Weinreich (1953) was one of the pioneers of interference studies. His book, *Languages in contact*, played a significant role in the investigation of MT influence on the TL. Ringbom (1986) argues that the notion of language distance is vital in determining the role of transfer in SLA. If the TL is very close to the MT, the knowledge of the latter would be beneficial and easily transferred to the former. In L2 learning, learners often think that the easiest way is to build a connection between the grammatical features of the TL and the NL. Learners usually then internalize the linguistic patterns of the MT and apply these to the L2. They assume that the language patterns of the MT can be transferred directly to the L2. However, when learners experience failures in this process as a result of *false friends* and *negative transfer*, it becomes evident to them that language similarities do not guarantee language equality. They come to realize that the L2 as a different or new language has linguistic features and rules which must be learned, internalized, and properly applied to learn the language.

Language learning features include the capability to gradually acquire the basic items of a language and arrange this knowledge in logical structures to enhance communication efficiency

in the TL. It is expected that proper and up to date TL structures would, in turn, evolve in the course of the learner's ultimate mastery of the TL. Beardsmore (1982) points out that if the learners eventually become proficient in the language, it is in principle reasonable to attribute the expansion of their repertoire to the well-formed linguistic constructions of the TL. Conversely, Bhela (1999: 22) points out that "second language learners appear to accumulate structural entities of the target language but demonstrate difficulty in organizing this knowledge into appropriate, coherent structures". Learners encounter these problems due to the influence of MT structures on the TL.

3.5. Language Transfer

3.5.1. Definitions of transfer

Linguistics scholars have continually described the term 'transfer' from a personal viewpoint, which has engendered many controversies. Many linguists have demanded that the term transfer be abandoned or that it be used in a more restricted way (Odlin 1989: 25). According to Sajavaara (1986: 60), the term transfer is used to indicate the extension of previous knowledge into new knowledge; for instance when previous knowledge of a particular thing influences the learning of another thing. It is broadly agreed however "that the effect of the learner's MT cannot be completely accounted for with regards to habit formation" (Ellis 2008: 350). The notion of transfer cannot be limited to the learner's NL influence because the knowledge of other L2s acquired by the learner can also be responsible for the transfer. Sharwood and Kellerman (1986) argue that a term which is entirely free from theory can be more appropriate than transfer. They proposed 'Cross-linguistic influence' (CLI). Sharwood and Kellerman (1986: 1) defined CLI as "a linguistic concept which has no theory thereby allowing it to be used for phenomena such as transfer, interference, borrowing, avoidance, and other second language related notions". Even though CLI has been expanded to accommodate most cross-linguistic aspects that require attention, the definition is not universally accepted.

According to Ellis (2008: 351), the reason behind the controversies and the contradictory findings in studies of transfer is the absence of a common definition. Odlin (1989) points out that transfer is not equivalent to interference. This makes the concept of interference unsuitable for explaining some characteristics of L2 performance. According to Odlin (1989: 26):

> The term *interference* implies no more than what another term, *negative transfer* does, but there is an advantage in using the latter term since it can be contrasted with *positive transfer*, which is the facilitating influence of cognate vocabulary or any other similarities between the native and target languages.

Odlin (1989) argues that the term transfer is all-embracing because it is not only employed to describe NL influence but also L1 and L2 influence. He asserts that all other previous descriptions of the phenomenon are inadequate and do not fully characterize the term. He argues that a more appropriate and working definition is thus required. Consequently, Odlin (1989: 27) "defined transfer as the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired".

3.5.2. Types of transfer

In most L2 learning literature, researchers and linguists admit that native language knowledge influences the acquisition of a foreign language which has resulted in the differentiation between *positive* and *negative* transfer. Positive transfer (PT) is a development in which an L2 learner employs the knowledge of his MT in learning the TL without violating the rules of the L2. The process of PT requires a comparison between the L1 and TL to determine their cross-linguistic similarities. An efficient PT requires cross-linguistic similarities in the relevant units and structures of both languages; if such similarities do not exist, the results of the comparison will be incorrect, thus causing linguistic interference. Odlin (1989: 36) provides the following example:

> The similarities between the vowel systems can make the identification of vowel sounds easier. Similarities between writing systems can give learners a head start in reading and writing in the target language. And similarities in syntactic structures can facilitate the acquisition of grammar: Learners speaking a language with a syntax similar to that of the target language tend to have less difficulty with articles, word order, and relative clauses.

On the other hand, the negative transfer (NT), which is also called 'interference', has attracted the attention of many researchers because for several decades linguists have widely discussed the issue of L2 learning errors. The NT is an error which occurs as a result of the learners' application of their MT knowledge when learning the TL. The learner ignorantly or deliberately applies the rules of his MT to the TL production, resulting in an error. Since NT engenders the use of patterns that differ from the TL patterns, it is easy to recognize. According to Odlin (1989: 36), the following aspects need to be examined in the discussion of NT: "*underproduction*, *overproduction*, *production errors*, and *misinterpretation*". These are different forms of NT and they will be briefly discussed in the following section.

1. Underproduction

Since learners usually employ NL structures while learning an L2, they tend to produce fewer samples of TL structures. Generally "the examples learners produce result[s] in comparatively few errors, but if the structure is more infrequent than it is in the language of the native speakers, the infrequency constitutes a divergence from TL norms" (Odlin 1989: 36). Underproduction mainly occurs when a learner employs TL structures that are distinctly different from the NL to avoid making mistakes. For example, Japanese and Chinese students use fewer relative clause structures when compared to English students (Odlin 1989: 37).

2. Overproduction

Another form of NT is overproduction. Odlin (1989:37) points out that "overproduction is sometimes simply a consequence of underproduction" since the avoidance of difficult TL structures might lead to overusing a particular grammatical feature in the TL which may result in a violation of its grammatical rules. Learners often avoid structures that are not used in the NL in a similar linguistic situation when using the TL. For example, native speakers of English who are learning Hebrew usually emulate their NL norms when making apologies (Odlin 1989: 37).

3. Production errors

Production errors also result from the NT. Odlin (1989: 37) lists the following as the three kinds of production errors that emanate from the similarities and differences between the NL and TL: "substitutions, calques, and alterations of structures". Substitution is when the NL form is used instead of the TL. According to Odlin (1989: 37), a native speaker of Swedish used the Swedish word *bort* [*away*] in his written English sentence: "*Now I live home with my parents. But sometimes I must go bort* [*away*]" (Odlin 1989: 37). Calques are cases where the NL structure is employed in the TL. In other words, calques refer to errors that closely reflect the structures of the NL. A Spanish – English bilingual child produces the following sentence (Odlin 1989: 37):

(1)	Vamos	rapido	a poner	el fuego	afuera.
	go. 3PL. PRS	quickly	to put	the fire	out

'Let's quickly put the fire out'

(from Odlin 1989: 37)

In this case, a direct translation of the English phrase '*put the fire out'* which is translated as '*extinguir el fuego*' in Spanish was employed by the Spanish-English bilingual child. Bilingual

writers frequently refer to ‘substitution’ and ‘calques’ as the causes of transfer errors. Substitution and calques often signify the presence of an obvious correspondence between the NL and TL in the learner’s mind. Many significant instances of CLI are revealed in *alteration of structures*. Even though they do not usually indicate a direct influence from the NL they are important in this discussion. **Hypercorrection** is one of the results of CLI. Hypercorrection occurs when an L2 learner overuses or has not fully mastered the rules of the TL which they have learned.

4. Misinterpretation

Misinterpretation is also a result of the NT. The structure of the NL can influence how the TL messages are interpreted (Odlin 1989: 38). A speaker’s NL often influences the learner’s comprehension of the intended message in the TL, resulting in a misinterpretation of the message the speaker is trying to convey. The differences between NL and TL patterns may thus contribute to misinterpretation. As stated earlier, PT helps to facilitate TL learning, while NT inhibits the progress of TL acquisition. Odlin (1989: 38) reveals that the general notion that some languages can be more easily acquired than others is based “on cumulative effects of cross-linguistic similarities and differences in the acquisition process”.

4. Contrastive linguistics

4.1. Definition and historical development

Contrastive linguistics (CL) is a sub-discipline of linguistics, “which fosters a systematic comparison of languages to emphasize and describe their similarities and differences” (Kante 2015: 1). Gast (2009: 1) defines CL “as a branch of comparative linguistics which deals with the comparison of pairs of languages that are socio-culturally linked”. Socio-culturally connected in this sense means that a good number of those who speak the language are from bi- or multilingual background and that there is enough linguistic data such as texts and oral discourses which are translated from one language to another. Consequently, CL is restricted to two languages that are socio-culturally joined or close; for instance, Spanish and Basque. In a broad sense, however, CL is occasionally employed “for comparative studies of small groups instead of only pairs of languages” (Gast 2009: 1). CL is then a peculiar linguistic system of classification and stands out among other forms of typological approaches. Consequently, with CL, every pair and group of languages can undergo a contrastive analysis.

Charles Fries initiated CL in the 1940s. Fries argued that "the most efficient materials are those that are based upon [a] scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the NL of the learner" (Fries 1945: 9). Robert Lado (1957) who was a colleague of Fries at the Michigan University conducted a practical application of this notion which was established on the presupposition that the comparison of learners' MT with that of their TL will enhance foreign language (FL) teaching. Konig and Gast (2009: 1) presented the following assumptions concerning CL:

1. There is a significant difference between first language acquisition and second language learning, mostly when the native language is learned far before the foreign language and, on the grounds of a full knowledge of the mother tongue.
2. Every language has its unique structure. Similarities between the two languages will not then lead to difficulties ('positive transfer'), whereas differences will, as a result of 'negative transfer' (or 'interference').
3. A systematic comparison between native language and foreign language will unveil both the similarities and contrasts.
4. Concerning such comparison, it will be feasible to predict or grade learning difficulties and create strategies for making foreign language teaching more productive.

Other linguists, however, regarded the CL as being too vague. According to Gast (2009: 2), "it was too undifferentiated in many respects and neglected important parameters of second language acquisition (e.g. natural vs. mediated, sequential vs. simultaneous, second vs. third language". There is also the absence of "a strong foundation of learning psychology" in the contrastive scheme, which was never presented with a solid empirical background since the aim of "producing comprehensive comparisons of language pairs" was certainly not achieved (Gast 2009: 2). As a result, there was a shift of focus from CL to other practical studies of learner's behavior "even though a certain plausibility of at least some of the basic assumptions made by early CL can hardly be denied" (Gast 2009: 2).

4.2. Theory and application of contrastive linguistics

In the 1950s, CL was predominantly pedagogically aligned. However, from 1980s CL became more theoretically adapted with little or no attention given to applied research. According to Fisiak (1981: 2-3), the difference between theoretical and applied linguistics is that theoretical linguistics concentrates on the investigation of the structure of languages at different levels (syntax, morphology, phonology, phonetic), whereas applied linguistics examines the

pedagogical attitudes of language teaching and provides effective FL training. CL as an academic enterprise consists of a comprehensive "comparison of two or more languages to determine their similarities and differences" (Fisiak 1981: 1). It also helps to design a suitable framework for language comparison. According to Kante (2015: 6):

> CL (theoretical or applied) contributes not only to the understanding and learning of languages in general, but also to the study of individual languages it compares. In this regards, contrastive linguistics stands as an interface between theory (general descriptive linguistics, language typology or comparison) and application (error analysis and interlanguage, for instance).

Applied CL is driven by the discoveries of theoretical CL and selects the required information for specific purposes (Fisiak 1981: 3). CL being a part of applied linguistics has also inspired many other disciplines such as "theoretical, descriptive, and comparative linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and the psychology of learning and teaching" (Kante 2015: 6). Looking at the scope of the two approaches, it is evident that the enthusiasm in language comparison goes beyond practical applications as it makes reference to what is general to languages and what is peculiar to a specific language.

Any approach to CL depends on "theoretical linguistics" because no comprehensive and dependable investigation "of facts can be conducted without a theoretical background providing theories, hypotheses, and concepts" (Krzeszowski 1990: 35-37). Additionally, contrastive linguistics relies "on descriptive linguistics because no comparison of languages or any elements is possible without their prior description" (Kante 20015: 6). From this point of view, CL can be defined as "an area of linguistics in which a linguistic theory is applied to a comparative description of two or more languages, which need not be genetically or typologically related", although the theory employed determines the result of the comparisons.

4.3. Steps of contrastive studies

The main focus of Contrastive Analysis (CA) is the implementation of the hypothesis. This section is then relevant to the present study because a CA of the TL and NL will be carried out using a particular methodological process, and the resulting errors will be analyzed using error analysis. CA is built on three fundamental steps, namely description, juxtaposition, and comparison of the examined grammatical structures. The analyses of the grammatical structures of the TL and NL are crucial because they help to determine the differences in the grammatical structures of the two languages, and support L2 teaching and acquisition. Some of the guidelines for performing CA were presented by Lado (1957), who illustrated the general method for comparing two grammatical structures. Lado (1957) points out that the researcher will start by

analyzing the foreign language and then compare its structure with that of the NL. Attention then shifts to the NL, as the researcher will have to determine if there is a similar grammatical structure in the NL. The researcher must also know if the FL structures and meanings are similar to that of the MT and whether the formal devices are equally assigned in the language or not.

As previously stated, since comparison requires description, the starting point of contrastive studies has to be an unconstrained description of the characteristics of the languages that needs to be compared(Gast 2009: 1). These descriptions have to be carried out in the same frame of reference for the results to be comparable and compatible. The second step constitutes the propositions of what is to be compared to what and the reasons for the comparison. In contrastive studies, the informants (who are bilinguals) employ their intuitive knowledge of both languages to make decisions. The two languages are considered to be comparable when they have the same elements. Scientifically, a layman's intuitive judgments are not reliable. Likewise, language similarities cannot be assumed until they are proven by the results of the comparison. Juxtaposition cannot rely only on semantic equivalence and formal similarity, the linguistic structures and devices also need to share similar quality. Krzeszowski (1990) also listed three key areas of comparison; comparison of different corresponding systems and subsystems in various languages, comparison of identical constructions, and comparison of similar rules.

4.4. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Before the late 1960s, the most influential theory of second language learning was that of behaviorism, which claims that learning is a process through which learners acquire new linguistic habits. Thus, "errors were predicted to be the result of the persistence of existing MT habits in the new language" (Corder 1981: 1). A large "part of applied linguistics research was devoted to comparing the MT and the TL to predict or explain the errors made by learners of any particular language background" (Corder 1981: 1). According to Lado (1957: 2):

> Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives.

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) was the attempt at describing and explaining interference problems in SLA. It focused attention on the theory and method at the same time. CAH claims that the difficulties experienced by learners can be predicted based on the differences between the NL and TL. As Weinreich (1953: 1) points out, "the greater the

difference between the systems, i.e. the more numerous the mutually exclusive forms and patterns in each, the greater is the learning problem and the potential area of interference". Robert Lado was the pioneer of the theoretical foundation of this approach, as is evident in his book *Linguistics across Cultures* (1959).

CAH exists in two versions. These were otherwise "known as *the a priori* versus *the a posteriori* view or *the strong* versus *the weak* view or *the predictive* versus *the explanatory* view" (Gass & Selinker 1994: 60). The strong version of CAH indicates that the distinction between the MT and TL could be used for predicting learners' errors. The reason for this assertion is that MTI has been taken to be the primary cause of L2 learners' errors. However, since it has been confirmed empirically that not all errors result from NL transfer, a weaker version of the hypothesis was developed. Wardhaugh (1970) came up with the differences between the strong and weak version of CAH hypothesis. The weak version of CAH indicates that "only some errors were traceable to transfer, and contrastive analysis could be used only as *a posteriori* to explain rather than predict" (Ellis 2008: 360).

4.4.1. The strong version of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The strong version of the CAH claims that learner's difficulties can be determined through a systematic contrastive analysis. As a result, comprehensive educational materials can be developed to solve the problem of these challenges (Khansir 2012: 1028). The strong version of contrastive analysis relies on the following assumptions (Lee 1968: 186, quoted in Sridhar 1981: 211):

1. According to Lee, the primary cause of foreign language learning errors is interference from the learner's mother tongue.
2. Lee declares that the greater the difference between the foreign language and the native language, the more difficult it will be to learn.
3. Lee attest to the authenticity of the strong version of contrastive analysis by claiming that the degree of these differences determines the nature of the learning problem.
4. Lee acknowledged the importance of doing a contrastive analysis as the results acquired from the process is essential for predicting errors that will occur during learning.
5. Lee's adoption of contrastive analysis is pedagogically oriented. He argues that the differences found when comparing the native and foreign language are equivalent to what the teachers are supposed to teach.

Many linguists, however, disagree with Lee's version of the CAH, and as a result, it has not been accepted as the standard version. Some scholars strongly object to the role and influence ascribed to interlingual interference. Linguists who support the strong version of CAH argue that learners' errors are caused by a complete transfer of NL structure into the TL. Advocates of the strong version of CAH believe that it is very efficient in explaining and predicting learners' errors. They assume that the results acquired from the comparison of an NL and TL should serve as relevant guidelines for language teachers. Banathy et al. (1966: 37, cited in Wardhaugh 1970: 124) declare that:

> 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 prepare to teach them; the task of the student is to learn them.

Adherents of the strong version of CAH point out that when a teacher is knowledgeable about the differences in the patterns of both the MT and TL, it becomes much easier for them to reveal the difficult aspects, even before the start of the learning activity. They assume that these predictions help teachers to prepare useful teaching materials which assist learners in avoiding errors. The predictive nature of the strong version of CAH has made it quite useful in the classroom environment.

4.5.2. The weak version of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Linguists who disagree with Lee's version of the CAH strongly object to the role and influence ascribed to interlingual interference. In an attempt to correct the flaws of the strong version of CAH, Wardhaugh (1970) introduced an explanatory or 'weak' version. The weak version of CAH only performs an explanatory role where there are difficulties that result in learners' errors (Khansir 2012: 1028). The NL structure does not then provide every detail of the processes involved in FL learning; rather it only provides a few solutions to language acquisition problems through the comparison of the structural differences of the NL and TL. The contrastive analysis may then be more valuable in the explanation of errors than for the prediction of errors. Wardhaugh (1970: 124) argues that despite the fact that many scholars who have written about contrastive analysis seem to have based their work on the strong version, that "version is quite unrealistic and impractical". In the weak version, linguists trust in their knowledge to anticipate difficulties in learning the FL. Unlike the strong version, the weak version of the CAH does not

predict difficulties, but rather diagnoses and explains them. The weak version of CAH begins "with the evidence presented by linguistic interference and uses that evidence to point out the similarities and differences between systems" (Wardhaugh 1970: 126). As a result of these perceived deficiencies in the strong version of CAH, it was not accepted as the standard version.

4.5.3. Critique and Advocacy of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The CAH used to be very prominent and efficient in the field of SLA until the 1970s when it lost credibility as a result of its behavioral view and was abandoned in favor of a mentalist approach. Odlin (1989: 17) identifies the following as its flaws:

> The predictive validity of many contrastive analyses seemed questionable: empirical research was beginning to show that learning difficulties do not always arise from cross-linguistics differences and that difficulties which do arise are not always predicted by contrastive analyses.

Critics argued that a mere comparison of the NL and TL cannot predict or explain all language errors. Moreover, "CAH could not be sustained by empirical evidence because it was soon pointed out that many errors predicted by CAH were inexplicably not observed in learners' language" (Rustipa 2011: 17). According to Allwright and Bailey (1991: 83), "there were errors that could be explained simply by noting the differences between the languages involved, and sometimes the errors that a contrastive analysis did predict were not found in practice". As a result, CAH as a basis for teaching was considered to be misleading because of its claim that the NL influence on the TL was responsible for all learner's errors. Similarly, Fisiak (1981: 7) asserts that:

> The value and importance of contrastive analysis lie in its ability to indicate potential areas of interference and errors, however, not all errors are the result of interference because psychological, pedagogical and other extra-linguistic factors contribute to the formation of errors.

Apparently, not all learner's errors result from interference as claimed by CAH. Factors such as "ignorance of the correct pattern, bad teaching, confusion, analogical replacement, and poor practices" can also engender learner's errors (Khansir 2012: 1029). Notwithstanding the flaws of CAH, it is still very much useful for comparing languages to determine their similarities and differences. The approach may have been skewed in predicting learner's errors and difficulty, but it cannot be entirely ignored, especially in FL learning. Fisiak (1981: 7) argues that, "contrastive analysis has to be performed undermining its shortcomings because not all contrastive analyses that were carried out are wrong". Dulay et al. (1982: 97) also points out that, "contrastive analysis underlies much current language teaching methodology and material because of how it has tremendously shaped early linguistic research".

It is important to point out that CAH will play a significant role in my analysis. A contrastive study of the linguistic items in both Yoruba and English language should be considered very useful not only in helping to prepare teaching materials but more importantly in facilitating the detection and correction of learners' errors. The usefulness of CAH has been extensively discussed in SLA, but needs to be re-examined in this study. I believe that a contrastive study of both English and Yoruba languages will reveal the causes of linguistic interference in students' written English.

5. Error Analysis

5.1. Definitions and Goals

In the early 1970s, CAH forfeited the dominant role it had previously played and the position it occupied in language pedagogy. The main reason for the waning influence of CAH was the criticism it had received from various scholars. This criticism involved its theoretical background, its unrealistic claims, and its practical usefulness. The opponents of CAH argued that most of the predictions about TL difficulty made by CAH were neither informative nor accurate. CAH thus lost its credibility and was abandoned since its claims lacked empirical validation.

The concept of Error Analysis (EA) replaced CAH. EA is defined as a process in which independent and neutral description of the TL, the learners' IL, and a comparison of the two is carried out to detect discrepancies. James (1998: 5) presents the concept of EA as follows:

> The novelty of EA, distinguishing it from CA, was that the mother tongue was not supposed to enter the picture. The claim was made that errors could be fully described in terms of the TL, without the need to refer to the L1 of the learners.

The notion of *errors* had recently been observed from a different viewpoint following the publication of an article by Corder (1967), entitled 'The Significance of Learners Errors' (Gass & Selinker 1994: 66). As one of the pioneers of this approach, Corder argued that linguistic analysis should focus on the comparison of errors made by learners of the TL, which is also part of the learning process (Corder 1981: 66). Unlike previously, where teachers presented errors as something that had to be eliminated, an error was now taken to be part of L2 learning process. Gass and Selinker (1994: 66) refer to errors as 'red flags' which shows clearly in a system, providing proof of the learner's expertise in the second language. Kante (2015: 3) points out that "instead of predicting learner's difficulties, one should rather observe what problems

occur through a systematic study of learners' errors". In this way, EA is an approach which investigates the various types of errors that occur during L2 learning.

EA, as a method for studying errors, consists of measures developed for pinpointing, describing, and classifying learners' errors. The major aim of EA is to perform an empirical investigation to ascertain the source of the breach of TL standards. James (1998: 62) also described EA as "being the study of linguistic ignorance, the investigation of what people do not know and how they attempt to cope with their ignorance". In other words, EA is the process of gathering L2 learners' spoken and written language constructions that deviate from the L2 norm; classifying the errors into categories, and explaining the sources of their development. Despite the fact that most researchers do not find it difficult to identify an error, it is still not clear-cut in all circumstances as to what is accepted as an error. The factors regarding the acceptability of the meaning of an error might differ according to the circumstance in which the learners finds themselves while performing in the L2 as well as on other factors such as motivation, age, and type of activity. Some linguists have also presented recognition, classification, and explanation, as the required methods for performing EA.

5.2. The differences between Mistake and Error

Many linguists have indicated the differences between 'mistake' and 'error'. Brown (1993: 205) for instance argues that it is important to distinguish mistakes from errors because the two phenomena are different from each other in practice. Mistakes are unsystematic language performance which cannot be classified as they do not follow rules. There is no doubt that 'mistakes' are inevitable in both L1 and L2 situations. Native speakers, however, can recognize these mistakes and correct them because they do not occur as a result of a defect in their competence but due to an interruption in the production process (Rustipa 2011: 18). On the other hand, an error signify a deviation which reveals the learner's lack of competency. It is a systematic deviation displayed by a learner who has inadequate or faulty knowledge in the TL (Rustipa 2011: 18). An error can also be defined as any deviation from a standard performance in any language. A learner usually finds it difficult to self-correct an error since the error results from his present level of competence and development in the TL (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1992: 59). James (1998: 78) declares that:

> If the learner is inclined and able to correct a fault in his or her output, it is assumed that the form he or she selected was not the one intended, and we shall say that the fault is a **mistake**. If, on the other hand, the learner is unable or in any way disinclined to make the correction, we assume that the form the learner used was the one intended, and that it is an **error**.

There are two kinds of learners' errors, namely 'covert' and 'overt' errors. Covert errors occur in language performances that are superficially produced but which differ from their intended meaning. According to Lennon (2008: 54), "covert errors, unlike overt errors, are formally acceptable but do not express the meaning intended by the learner". Overt errors, on the other hand, are very easy to recognize due to the clear deviation of the learner's language performance from the standard form. Corder (1967: 167) argues that, since 'mistakes' do not display "a defect in our knowledge but are traceable to performance failure", they do not play a significant role in language learning. James (1998: 79-80) points out that learners may use the wrong form of a language for two reasons: i) either they do not have the required knowledge (due to ignorance), or ii) they applied their current knowledge which appears to be wrong (James 1998: 79 – 80).

5.3. Significance of Learners' Errors

The work of Corder has contributed immensely to the development of important concepts in L2 learning. EA became fully integrated into applied linguistics in the 1970s, a development that was widely credited with the work of Corder (Ellis 1994: 48). Most of his works, especially The Significance of language learning, have introduced researchers to the practical approaches required for doing SLA research. Corder argues that attention should shift from the learning activity to the learner, and was the first to point out the significance of errors in the SLA process, one of his major contributions to foreign language teaching and learning. Corder (1967: 167) claims that:

> Errors are 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 has 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, they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. It is a way the learner has for testing his hypotheses about the nature of the language he is learning.

A proper review of learner's errors will give us insight into their internal syllabus and style of learning, and also prevent us from making unnecessary assumptions and misconceptions. Our knowledge of learner's errors may also permit the learner's in-built "strategies to control our action and dictate our syllabus" (Corder 1967: 169). This may help us learn to adjust ourselves to the learner's needs without imposing on them how and what to learn.

5.4. Comparison of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and Error Analysis

As stated above, the limitations of CAH resulted in its loss of relevance to language pedagogy. Error analysis, which is also known as the 'weak version' of CAH, began to gain ground until it finally occupied and dominated language pedagogy. EA displaced CAH mainly because most of the predictions or claims made by CAH were discovered to be false once they were empirically tested. CAH is not an investigative tool used to examine how learners acquire a foreign language; it is rather a framework that is employed to explain why learners' errors occur and to pinpoint those TL areas that learners find difficult in SLA. CAH is interested in both the TL and the NL of the learner, while EA provides an approach for analyzing learner language. On this basis, EA has established a proper base for teaching a second language (Khansir 2012: 1029). According to Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977: 444), EA is a more appropriate pedagogical tool than CAH due to the following:

> They tell the teacher how far the learner has come and what he still must learn; they give the researcher evidence of how language is learned (i.e., strategies and procedures used); they are a device the learner uses to test out his hypotheses concerning the language he is learning.

It reveals other kinds of errors that foreign language learners make, including 'intralingual errors' like "ignorance of rule restriction, errors resulting from inappropriate learning strategies, faulty teaching, and overgeneralization" (Sridher 1975: 17). Unlike CAH, EA also employs real data to verify predictions and claims that lack empirical affirmation. While CAH deals with competence, EA is focused on language usage. It is worth mentioning that irrespective of the differences between the two approaches, they share some common features. Regardless of these slight similarities in certain areas, EA cannot be used to replace CAH due to their distinctive roles in foreign language pedagogy. Fisiak (1981: 7) asserts that:

> Psychological and pedagogical, as well as other extralinguistic factors contribute to the formation of errors; therefore error analysis as part of applied linguistics cannot replace contrastive studies but only supplement them. Contrastive studies predict errors, error analysis verifies contrastive predictions, *a posteriori*, explaining deviations from the predictions.

The two approaches are significant, and neither can carry out the functions of foreign language pedagogy alone. EA is required to perform empirical investigation based on actual data against the learning problems identified by CAH.

5.5. Error Classification

Apart from the two types of errors described above, there are also 'interlingual' and 'intralingual' errors. Interlingual and intralingual errors are the primary error types identified

in EA. Interlingual errors are similar to cross-linguistic interference or language transfer. The learning problems experienced by foreign language learners mainly occur due to the difference between the NL and TL structures. According to Van Els et al. (1984: 51), interlingual errors are referred to as 'interference problems' because they are deviations that evolved from NL transfer. The learner's belief that the TL and NL are similar to each other is the cause of most L2 learners' errors (Brown 1980: 160).

Intralingual errors, however, result from the linguistic elements and structure of the TL. Richards (1974: 6) points out that, "intralingual interference are items produced by the learner which reflect not the structure of the MT, but generalizations based on partial exposure of the target language". The learning problems which arise from the overgeneralization of TL rules are clearly universal phenomena. These generalizations often occur due to ignorance or limited exposure to the TL rules and structures. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 65) claims that "intralingual errors reflect the operation of learning strategies that are universal, i.e. evident in all learners irrespective of their L1". Similarly, Gass and Selinker (2008: 103) asserts that intralingual errors occur as a result of "language being learned", and not due to MTI. Richards (1971: 173) argues that:

> 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.

In the beginning of the learners' acquisition of the foreign language they often commit interlingual errors, but once they have an improved knowledge of the TL rules and structure, intralingual errors become more common in their language performance.

Richards employs a non-contrastive approach to describe the pedagogical problems confronted by foreign language learners. He distinguished intralingual errors from developmental error. According to Richards (1971: 174), "intralingual errors are those which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generalizations, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rule apply". On the other hand, "developmental errors illustrate the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or textbook" (Richards 1971: 174). Richards (1971) investigated the "errors produced by speakers of Japanese, Chinese, Burmese, French, Czech, Polish, Tagalog, Maori, Maltese, and some major Indian and West African languages". He examined these languages in order to identify the types of errors associated with their speakers, especially English learners who have one of these languages as their MT. Based on the error types which emerged from his investigation, Richards (1971) established the following errors

which he titled 'intralingual' errors: i) overgeneralization, ii) ignorance of rule restrictions, iii) incomplete application of rules, iv) false concepts hypothesized. Each of these types of error will be discussed in more detail below.

1. Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization, also known as 'redundancy reduction', occurs when learners produce incorrect language forms through their knowledge of the TL (Norrish 1983: 31). Richards (1971: 174) describes overgeneralization "as instances where the learner creates a deviant structure by his experience of other structures in the target language". Richards (1971) observes that such errors are caused by the blending of structures which were learned earlier in the learning progression. Some of the examples of overgeneralization given by Richards (1971) are the following: "*he can sings*, *we are hope*, *it is occurs*, and *he come from*".

2. Ignorance of rule restrictions

According to Richards (1971: 175), this error which is "closely related to the generalization of deviant structures, is [a] failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is, the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply". Richards points out that the following clause: "*The man who I saw him*, violates the limitation on objects in structures with *who*". These kinds of errors are equivalent to transfer or overgeneralization because the learner employs rules learned earlier in a current situation. Other forms of rule restriction error result from 'analogy'. Analogy has been identified as the main factor responsible for the wrong application of prepositions in L2 learners' linguistic performance. Richards (1971: 175) asserts that "the learner, encountering a particular preposition with one type of verb, attempts by analogy to use the same preposition with similar verbs". For example, "*He showed me the book* result in *he explained me the book*" (Richards 1971: 175).

3. Incomplete application of rules

This category of error signifies "the occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances" (Richards 1971: 177). Second language learners sometimes find it difficult to use questions, irrespective of their linguistic background. Redundancy is one of the factors responsible for this error owing to the fact that the learner is more interested in achieving effective communication in the TL than in question usage. Redundancy is "the way the learners employ words or phrases which add nothing to the overall meaning of the sentence" (Kaweera 2013: 14). The FL learners' motivation to communicate in the new language often surpasses their ability to construct

grammatically correct sentences. The following examples were provided by Richards (1971: 177):

(2)	**Teacher's question**	**Student's response**
	a. What was she saying?	She saying she would ask him.
	b. Ask her how long it takes.	How long it takes

In the examples above, the teacher makes use of questions to elicit information from the student. The student's utterances are influenced however by the teacher's questions, and the teacher has to correct them to cancel out this influence.

4. False concepts hypothesized

According to Richards (1971: 178), these errors "are a class of developmental errors which derive from [a] faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language". They "are sometimes due to [a] poor gradation of teaching items" (Richards 1971: 178). A learner may interpret '*was'* as a past tense marker and '*is'* as its corresponding present tense marker, resulting in the following example: "*The accident* ***was*** *happened last week*; *John* ***is*** *drives a new car*" (Richards 1971: 178).

Dulay et al. (1982: 150) classified second language errors into various categories and termed this categorization 'The Surface Strategy Taxonomy'. James (1980: 106) proposed the term 'Target Modification Taxonomy' because the categorization is established on the learner's erroneous production of the TL form. Dulay et al. (1982: 150) argue that:

> Analyzing errors from a surface strategy perspective holds much promise for researchers concerned with identifying cognitive processes that underlie the learner's reconstruction of the new language. It also makes us aware that learners' errors are based on some logic. They are not the result of laziness or sloppy thinking, but of the learner's use of interim principles to produce a new language.

Dulay et al. (1980: 150) points out that, "a surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are altered: learners may *omit* necessary items or *add* unnecessary ones; they may *misinform* items or *misorder* them". L2 learners' errors were then classified into the following categories in line with surface strategy taxonomy: "*omission*, *addition*, *misinformation*, and *misordering* errors" (Dulay et al. 1980: 150). James (1980: 106) added one more error type which he calls *blends*. The categorization of these errors will be discussed in more detail below.

1. Omission

Omission (Ø) "is to be distinguished from **ellipsis** (E), and from **zero** (Z), elements which are allowed by the grammar (indeed are powerful grammatical resources), whereas omission is ungrammatical" (James 1980: 106).

(3) a. He'll pass his exam but I won't [pass my exam]. Ellipsis
b. He'll pass his exam and I'll [Ø] too. Omission
(from James 1980: 106)

When the rate of omission becomes very high, it can reduce interlanguage forms or structures, as in the case of pidgin languages. This is characteristic of learners who have either not been taught or are at the beginning of learning. According to Dulay et al. (1982: 154), "omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance". Morphemes are mostly affected by omission, with some morphemes being more affected than others. Second language learners usually commit many errors "across a variety of morphemes in their early stages of learning" (Dulay et al. 1982: 155).

2. Addition

This error is the reverse of the error of omission. They "are characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance" (Dulay et al. 1982: 156). These errors occur when learners who have the knowledge of TL rules overuse them due to their ignorance of their limitations. There are "three types of addition errors" found in L1 and L2 learners' speech: "*double markings*, *regularizations*, and *simple additions*" (Dulay et al. 1982: 156).

2.1 Double marking

This error is a result of "failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic constructions but not in others" (James 1980: 107). In other words, this error occurs due to failure to remove unnecessary elements from certain linguistic configurations. Double marking takes place "when two items are assigned the same feature" (e.g. past tense) instead of one (Dulay et al. 1982: 156), such as placing a past tense marker on both the *main* and *auxiliary* verb.

(4) a. He doesn't knows my name. [know]
b. We didn't went there. [go]
(from Dulay et al. 1982: 156

2.2 Regularization

This error occurs when "a marker that is typically added to a linguistic item is erroneously added to exceptional items of the given class that do not take a marker" (Dulay et al. 1982: 157). Regularization errors usually happen when the learner overlooks exceptional items and applies the rules to all linguistic items in that domain. For instance, when the rules for regular forms of linguistic items (e.g. past tense markers –s and –ed) are also used for irregular ones.

(5) a. Mary *selled* her car. [sold]
b. There are many *sheeps* in the garden. [sheep]
(from Dulay et al. 1983: 158)

2.3 Simple addition

This error is a subcategory "of addition errors; if an additions error is not a double marking or a regularization, it is called a simple addition" (Dulay et al. 1982: 158). It also has the same features as the addition error. The following are some examples of simple addition errors:

(6)

Linguistic Item Added	**Examples**
3rd person singular –s	The fishes *doesn't* live in the water
Past tense (irregular)	The train is gonna *broke* it
Article *a*	*a* this
Preposition	*in* over here

(from Dulay et al. 1982: 158)

3. Misinformation

This error is "characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure" (Dulay et al. 1982: 158). These errors differ from omission errors in the sense that the learner makes use of an incorrect item, unlike an omission error in which there is no supply of any item.

(7) The dog *eated* [ate] the chicken.
(from Dulay et al. 1982: 158)

In this case, the learner used the past tense marker despite the fact that it was not the correct one. Misinformation error is divided into three types: "*regularization*, *archi-forms*, and *alternating forms*" (1982: 158).

3.1 Regularization Errors

Errors "which fall under misinformation category are those in which a regular marker is used in place of an irregular one" (Dulay et al. 1982: 158). Below are some of the examples of over-regularization errors that were identified in the linguistic performance of L2 learners:

(8)

Linguistic Item Misinformed	**Examples**
a. Reflexive pronoun	*hisself* [himself]
b. Regular past	I *falled* [fell]
c. Plural	*childs* [children]

(from Dulay et al. 1982: 159)

3.2 Archi-forms

This error occurs when a particular "member of a class of forms" is used to represent all other members in that class (Dulay et al. 1982: 160). This error is a typical feature in all phases of L2 acquisition.

(9) That dog
That dogs [those]
(from Dulay et al. 1982: 160)

In this example, the learner assumes that the archi-demonstrative adjective (*that*) covers all other demonstrative adjectives.

3.3 Alternating forms

This error occurs due to the advancement of the learner's grammar and vocabulary. According to Dulay et al. (1982: 161), "the use of archi-forms often gives way to the apparently fairly free alternation of various members of a class with each other".

(10) a. Those *dog* [dogs]
b. This *cats* [cat]
(from Dulay et al. 1982: 161)

4. Misordering

This error usually occurs when "a morpheme or a group of morphemes" are wrongly employed "in an utterance" (Dulay et al. 1982: 162). The error is committed by both first and second language learners in their previously acquired constructions, particularly direct and indirect

questions. It was observed that misordering is often caused by "word-for-word translations of native language surface structures" Dulay et al (1982: 163).

(11) a. He is all the time late. [He is late all the time]
b. What Daddy is doing? [What is Daddy doing?]
(from Dulay et al. 1982: 162)

5. Blends

James (1980) added the category of error which he terms 'blends'. He argues that this error type complements the previous categories of error which were proposed and discussed in Dulay et al. (1982). Blend errors occur in "situations where there is not just one well-defined target, but two, [and which makes] the learner […] undecided about which of these two targets he has in mind" (James 1980: 111). Blend errors sometimes occur because of the learner's ignorance. In most cases though, the learner knows the two grammatical structures they want to combine. However, they are ignorant of the fact that if both structures are combined they will result in an ill-formed blend.

(12) Kobalance
Not balanced
'Imbalance'

In this example, The Yoruba word *ko* (im/not) is combined with the English word *balance* to produce the hybrid word *kobalance*. Whenever a Yoruba learner of English uses this word in their writing, it would be counted as a 'blend error' because there is no such word in English.

5.6. How to conduct an Error Analysis

This section will explain the necessary steps required to carry out an EA according to the procedures stipulated in Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 56-71). It will also examine the processes Corder (1974) proposed for conducting EA research. During the initial stage of conducting EA, a precise definition of the concept 'error' is required. It is not easy however to determine "whether *grammaticality* or *acceptability* should serve as the criterion" (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 56). If the criterion selected is grammaticality, then an "error is a breach of the rule of code" (Corder 1971, cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 56). Defining error based on grammaticality requires further distinguishing between an *overt* and a *covert* error. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 56), an overt error can be identified by examining the sentence in which it was committed, whereas a covert error can be identified by looking at "a larger stretch of the discourse". Acceptability relies "on the subjective evaluation of the researcher",

and it mostly entails "making stylistic rather than grammatical judgments" (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 56). A proper context befitting the specific utterance is also a determining factor for acceptability. For instance, the sentence *He's student* can be acceptable in some specific contexts irrespective of the missing article, while the same sentence will be rejected in other contexts. Judgments established on the acceptability of a sentence are not then reliable as a result of their inconsistency among researchers. As a result grammaticality criterion will be used in this study because it examines a written language in which grammaticality is typically required. Also, grammaticality criteria are easier to apply consistently.

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 57) presented the following as the necessary stages for conducting an EA: i) collection of a sample of learner language, ii) identification of errors, iii) description of errors, iv) explanation of errors, and v) error evaluation.

Step 1: Collecting a sample of learner language

The first stage is the collection of learner language sample. This sample produces the information needed to perform the EA. The researcher has to be aware of the fact that the nature of the collected sample determines the distribution and nature of error identified. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 57), the factors that can influence the collected sample are "the learner, language, and production". These factors can be classified in different forms. Firstly, researchers can restrict the samples they want to collect by using various parameters such as proficiency level, medium, and genre. Secondly, researchers can decide to sample errors in a more general way by gathering a large sample representing "different learners, various types of languages and different production conditions" (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 57). A correct statement concerning the nature, forms, and classification of errors is only possible where there are well-defined learner language samples. For this study, a closely itemized sample will be used to examine L2 learners' errors. Specific linguistic parameters will be employed to investigate the factors responsible for the written English errors often committed by Yoruba speaking students.

Step 2: Identification of errors

The second stage is identifying learners' errors. Error identification implies the comparison of learners' production and that of the NL speaker in the same environment. Some procedures have to be followed in order to identify these errors. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 58-59) presented the following as guidelines for error identification. i) Prepare a reconstruction of the sample as it would have been produced by the learner's native speaker counterpart. ii) Assume that every utterance/sentence produced by the learner is erroneous and systematically eliminate

those that an initial comparison with the native speaker sample shows to be well-formed. iii) Identify which part(s) of each learner utterance/sentence differs from the reconstructed version. The first of these procedures is the key. It is however quite problematic in the sense that it is not possible to accurately reconstruct a learner's utterances/sentences. For example:

(13) The policeman was in this corner whistle but it was too late.

a. The policeman who was in this corner whistled but it was too late.

b. The policeman was in this corner and whistled but it was too late.

c. The policeman in this corner whistled but it was too late.

(from Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 59)

In this case, the three reconstructions identified the error in *whistle*. Each construction also established a different error in the syntax of the sample. In example (13a), the reconstruction identified the error of a missing 'relative pronoun' *who*. In example (13b), the reconstruction established the absence of a 'co-ordinator' *and*, and in example (13c), the reconstruction pointed out a missing 'copula verb' *was*. As a result of the problems involve in reconstructing a learner's utterances/sentences, some scholars have suggested the use of authoritative interpretations by asking the learners what they meant. It is unrealistic however to expect the learner to produce a precise interpretation of their utterances/sentences.

Step 3: Description of errors

The third stage is the description of learners' errors. As stated in Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 60), the description of learners' errors is basically "a comparative process, the data being the original erroneous utterances and the reconstructed utterance". Therefore, "description of learner errors involves specifying" the differences between learner's linguistic forms and "those produced by the learner's native speaker counterparts" (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 60). Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 60) also point out that the description of learners' errors "focuses on the surface properties of the learner utterances" and that it involves both the development of "a set of descriptive categories for coding the errors that have been identified, and recording the frequency of errors in each category". James (1998: 120) points out that "a *taxonomy* must be organized according to certain constitutive criteria [and that] these criteria should as far as possible reflect observable objective facts about the entities to be classified". This taxonomy has to serve as a criterion for establishing descriptive categories. According to James (1998: 104), this taxonomy needs to be well-developed and elaborated, and it has to be simple and self-explanatory. It also has to be capable of defining errors without hindrances. Dulay et al. (1982: 146-150) presented two kinds of taxonomies: i) a *linguistic taxonomy* and ii) a *surface structure*

taxonomy. These taxonomies can also be combined. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 60):

> A linguistic taxonomy is mainly based on categories drawn from a descriptive grammar of the target language such as […] general categories relating to basic sentence structure, the verb phrase, verb complementation, the noun phrase, adjuncts, coordinate and subordinate constructions.

The violated TL categories have to be employed as the basis for classifying errors instead of adopting the linguistic categories utilized by the learner.

On the other hand, "a surface strategy taxonomy emphasizes on the ways surface structures are altered in erroneous constructions" (Dulay et al. 1982: 150). The surface strategy taxonomy is pedagogically relevant for the description of errors because it enables the teacher to point out where learners deviate from the TL standard. The surface strategy taxonomy has identified the following as means through which learners alter their TL forms: i) *Omission*, ii) *Addition*, iii) *Misinformation*, iv) *Misordering*. James (1998: 111) added a fifth category called *Blend*. The two approaches (linguistic category & surface strategy taxonomies) can be combined simultaneously with a dictionary of errors because they are not mutually exclusive. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 61) claim that the benefit of using "a descriptive taxonomy is that it utilizes well-established grammatical categories and thereby maximizes the practical applications". Linguistic category helps to enhance language teaching because it utilizes broad grammatical categories which are used to produce learners' instructional materials. Linguistic taxonomy is vulnerable to the "comparative fallacy" in which the TL grammar becomes its point of reference (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005: 61). Comparative fallacy is a process in which the systematic nature of one language is employed by way of comparison to study another (Bley-Vroman 1983: 4). The learner's language deserves to be studied rather than regarded as an ill-formed version of the TL (Bley-Vroman 1983: 4). Comparative fallacy is still significant in the description of L2 learners' errors. According to Liu (2004: 3), "the quest for a comparative account can best be served and prove highly informative when the focus of a study is to examine the factors, mechanisms or processes driving the production of a given language form".

Step 4: Explanation of errors

The fourth stage is the explanation of learners' errors. The explanation of errors is crucial because it is responsible for determining the sources of the learners' errors and why learners make them. It is an effort to establish the procedures involved in L2 learners errors. Analysts are more interested in examining those sources of errors "relating to the processing mechanism

involved in L2 use and to the nature of the L2 knowledge system" (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005: 62). Learners usually make errors because of the difficulties they encounter in accessing their L2 knowledge during communication. The TL forms that are not yet mastered need controlled processing and this places a burden on the learners' information processing mechanisms. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 65) point out that when explaining errors it is important to ask the learners the procedures they employ whenever they do not know the TL form. The learners may transfer certain items from the L1 into the TL or implement learning strategies to bridge the gap between their knowledge, thereby resolving communication difficulties. The first procedure is that in which the learner transfers some elements of the L1 into the TL which results in interlingual errors. The second process is that in which the learner employs learning strategies to bridge the gap in their knowledge and engenders intralingual errors.

The classification of errors into different categories is not a simple task. Despite the fact that error taxonomies like linguistic category and surface strategy taxonomies have been developed to help analysts identify, describe, and explain L2 learners' errors, the exercise of analyzing learners' errors is still not straightforward. Sometimes it is difficult to distinguish one error from another because the category is not well-defined. There are learners' errors which overlap with one another. For example, in Dualy et al. (1982: 157-158) there are two types of regularization errors. In the *addition category*, there is *regularization error* as a sub-category and in the *misinformation category*, there is also *regularization error* as a sub-category, with both having similar examples. The overlapping of these errors has made it impossible to assign them to a particular category. To solve this problem, grammatical categories have to be delineated from L2 learners' actual language production. These grammatical categories should be employed to describe and explain L2 learners' errors instead of using error taxonomies which were previously developed from the study of other languages. According to Liu (2004: 2), "if we are to provide linguistic descriptions of learners' language development, we must avoid *relying* on the analyses developed for describing other languages or on the grammar/pattern observed in other language groups".

Step 5: Error evaluation

The last stage is the evaluation of learners' errors. Error evaluation is a method used for administering EA results. Error evaluation is employed as an instrument to determine the seriousness of various errors, thereby revealing/identifying those errors that require instruction. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 67), error evaluation study comprises several steps. i) Select the errors to be evaluated. ii) Decide the criteria on which the errors are to be judged. iii) Prepare the error evaluation instrument. iv) Select the judges. Errors are most often

presented in complete sentences. They might also be presented in the continuous text. The criterion of error's gravity is used to define errors. The instrument employed for the evaluation of errors includes "a set of instructions, the text containing the errors, and a system for evaluating the errors" (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 67). It is more appropriate to select a minimum of two judges because "this increases the reliability and generalizability of the results" (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 67).

6. Yoruba Contrastive Linguistic

6.1. Characteristics of the Yoruba Language

As earlier mentioned, "Yoruba language belongs to the Kwa family within the Niger-Congo phylum of African languages" (Adewole 1987: 1). In Nigeria, Yoruba language has the following dialects: "Oyo, Awori, Egba, Ila, Ekiti, Ondo, Ijebu, Wo, Iworo, Ikale, Jumu, Gbedde, Ife, Yagba, Igbomina, Ilaje, Akono, Aworo, Ijesa, and Bunu (Bini)" (UCLA 2014). Despite these numerous dialects, all Yoruba speakers understand each other. The Yoruba language is spoken in the following states in Nigeria: Lagos, Osun, Oyo, Ogun, Ondo, Kwara, partly in Kogi. The language is also spoken in other countries, like Benin, Togo, Cuba, and Brazil. Yoruba native speakers in Nigeria amount to over 30 million in all (Adesola 2012: 1).

Unlike the English language, Yoruba has an alphabet consisting of 25 letters (seven vowels and eighteen consonants): a b d e ẹ f g gb h i j k l m n o ọ p r s ṣ t u w y. Five Latin letters which form part of the English alphabet (c, q, v, x, z) are not included in Yoruba alphabet. In addition, Yoruba alphabet has the letters (ẹ, ọ, ṣ, gb) which are not present in the English alphabet. Contrary to the consonant /*gb/*, which is pronounced as it is written, the consonant /*kp/* is written as the letter 'p', for instance, *pápá* /*kpákpá*/.

The "Yoruba language is a tonal language with three essential tones: the "high tone which is marked with an acute accent [é], the low tone with a grave accent [è], and the mid-tone is typically identified with an optional macron **(¯)**" (UCLA 2014). Out of these three main tones, "only the high tone cannot occur on a word initial vowel" (Adesola 2012: 2). It is important to "note that only the vowels carry these marks" (UCLA 2014). According to Adesola (2012: 2), "the three level tones determine the meanings that each word has in Yoruba" in the sense that "a form that has the same form (i.e. vowels and consonants) can have different meanings depending on the tone", for instance, "*Igba* 'two hundred'; *Ìgbà* 'time'".

Yoruba "single vowels are to be regarded as short, and vowel length is represented by doubling the vowel, which simplifies tone marking" (Derek et al. 1990: 1). For instance, the word *orùn* means either 'sun' or 'smell'. However, the word can be written with a double vowel and be assigned specific tone marks to each vowel to distinguish the two meanings: *òórùn* 'smell'; *oòrùn* 'sun'. The expansion of the final vowel of nouns and verbs is used to display "syntactic relationships" (Derek et al. 1990: 1). For verbs, it is employed to mark the preceding "verb of a serial verb construction" (Derek et al. 1990: 1). For nouns, it is employed to indicate "possessive constructions", and the characterized noun becomes "the possessee of the noun which accompanies it, for instance, *ilé* 'house'; *ilée Bisi* 'Bisi's house'" (Derek et al. 1990: 1).

As mentioned earlier, Yoruba learners of English have continued to have problems in their written English due to mother tongue interference. This problem of interference is rooted in the fact that Yoruba learners of English often transfer knowledge of their native language into English. Thus, the linguistic system of their mother tongue continues to get in their way whenever they write English. Deji-Afuye and Olowoyeye (2014: 10) point out that:

> An average language learner brings his/her knowledge of the mother tongue into the learning process of the second language. In an attempt to learn the second language or when he/she is faced with pressures of communication, the learner may translate the structures in his/her MT to the L2.

As we will see in the next chapter, Yoruba differs considerably from English. These differences play a significant role in the empirical part of this thesis. An investigation of the problems encountered by Yoruba learners of English requires a contrastive analysis of the two languages, as described in chapter 4. The following section will discuss the linguistic areas in which Yoruba learners of English have most problems, especially with regards to written English. The main focus of this thesis is on the written English of Yoruba learners of English. The reason why basic phonological aspects are included is to facilitate readers' comprehension, particularly readers who are not knowledgeable about Yoruba.

6.2. Yoruba Grammar

6.2.1. Parts of Speech

1. Articles

Yoruba has both the definite and indefinite article. The element *na* functions as the definite article while *kan* stand for the indefinite articles *a* and *an*. It is worth noting that Yoruba articles usually follow the noun:

(14) ajá kan

dog INDF-ART

'a dog'

(from De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 7)

2. Nouns

Although most Yoruba noun phrases "function as subject and object of verbs", some noun phrases "normally never function in that way, instead, they function as an object of prepositions" (Awobuluyi 1978: 10). Like English, Yoruba nouns are divided into two classes, abstract and concrete. The nouns in the language do not inflect to signify changes in *number*, *case*, and *gender*. Thus, Ogunbowale (1970: 38) points out that "Yoruba has no grammatical gender and that, gender is expressed lexically by means of different words or by prefixes which shows the two sexes". There are two processes through which Yoruba nouns administer gender. The first process requires the changing of a word, for instance from *oba* 'king' to *ayaba* 'queen'. The second process involves the use of affixes which means "using the word *okònrin* 'man', for the masculine, and *obinrin* 'woman', for the feminine" (De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 8). Additionally, the prefix *ako* stands for male, while *abo* is used for a female.

Yoruba plurals are produced by putting the personal pronoun *awon* before the noun. For instance, *iwe* means 'book', while *awon iwe* stands for 'books'. However, "when two or more nouns are joined by 'and', *awon* is placed before the first noun only" (De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 9).

(15) Awon oko ati iyawo

3PL husband and wife

'husbands and wives'

(De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 9)

According to Adesola (2012: 9), "Yoruba nouns do not inflect for number"; hence, "there are no morphological differences between a singular and a plural noun".

(16) a. Olu ra ìwé ni Ìbàdàn

Olu buy book at Ibadan

'Olu bought a book at Ibadan'

(from Adesola 2012: 9)

b. Olu ra ìwé méjì ni Ìbàdàn

Olu buy book two at Ibadan

'Olu bought two books at Ibadan'

(from Adesola 2012: 9)

3. Verbs

Yoruba verbs usually begin with consonants. They are not form by affixation but are formed by converting words which are not verbs into verbs (Tinuoye 1979: 57). As a result, Yoruba verbs are regarded as primitive. The unique system of verb derivation in the language makes it quite complicated and somewhat different from other parts of speech. According to Adesola (2012: 7), "more than one verb can occur in a sentence" and, "this is usually referred to as a serial verbal construction".

(17) Olu sáré lo sí Ìbàdàn

Olu run go to Ibadan

'Olu went to Ibadan quickly'

(from Adesola 2012: 7)

Where there is a combination of two verbs in a sentence, "the first verb has an object while the second verb has none" (Adesola 2012: 41).

(18) Olu **gbé** aso **tà**

Olu **carried** cloth **sold**

'Olu sold off the cloth'

(from Ogunbowale 1970: 41)

In Yoruba, “verbs do not inflect for tense” (Adesola 2012: 7). The future and non-future tenses have been identified in the language and “the future tense is marked with *yóò*” (Adesola 2012:7).

(19) Olu yóò lo sí Ìbàdàn
Olu will go to Ibadan
‘Olu will go to Ibadan’
(from Adesola 2012: 7)

Yoruba “non-future tense is usually marked with the High Tone Syllable” (Adesola 2012: 7). According to Olumuyiwa (2009: 1), “In Yoruba declarative sentences, a V-shaped syllable bearing high tone and known in Yoruba linguistic literature as high tone syllable (HTS) manifests itself between the noun and the verb”. The basic form of the HTS in modern standard Yoruba, **ọ́**, usually “assimilates to the last vowel of the subject noun phrase” (Awobuluyi 1992: 32).

(20) Jímoọ̀ **ọ́** lọ si Ìbàdàn
Jimo HTS go to Ibadan
‘Jimo went to Ibadan’
(from Adesola 2012: 8)

4. Plurals

In Yoruba, there are three ways in which plurals can be marked. First, a plural can be contextually signified in the language. According to Ajiboye (2005: 5), “these are the cases where there is no overt plural marking as such and a noun can be interpreted as a singular or plural”.

(21) Táyé ní ajá
Taye have dog
‘Taye has dog’
‘Taye has dogs’
(from Ajiboye 2005: 5)

Secondly, Plurality can be semantically marked. Ajiboye (2005: 5) indicates that "these are the cases where nouns take quantifiers and numerals that have an abstract [PLURAL] feature", and as a result, these nouns become "unambiguously interpreted as plural".

(22) a. Táyé ra [ajá diẹ̀]

Taye buy dog few

'Taye bought few dogs.'

(from Ajiboye 2005: 5)

b. Táyé ra [ajá méje]

Taye buy dog seven

'Taye bought seven dogs.'

(from Ajiboye 2005: 5)

Lastly, a plural can be morphologically indicated in Yoruba. In this case, plurality is expressed overtly by means of plural words. According to Ajiboye (2005: 5), "there are two syntactic positions for morphologically determined plurality: the noun and a modifying element in a nominal expression". The word *àwon* is used to indicate plurality in the language.

(23) Mo ra [**àwon** ìwé] ní Kánádà

1sg buy PL book Loc Place

'I bought books in Canada.'

(from Ajiboye 2005: 5)

Furthermore, Ajiboye (2005: 5) indicates that "plural marking on modifiers is realized through the COPY of a modifier, ***gíga*** *gíga* 'tall'".

(24) [Ilẹ̀ ***gíga*** *gíga*] wà ní Fànkufà

House COPY tall be LOC Vancouver

'There are high houses in Vancouver.'

(from Ajiboye 2005: 5)

5. Subject-Verb Agreement

In Yoruba, there is no "agreement between the verb and the number feature of the nouns" (Adesola 2012: 9).

(25) a. Adé fẹ́ràn owó
Ade like money
'Ade likes money'
(from Adesola 2012: 9)

b. Adé àti Olú fẹ́ràn owó
Ade and Olu like money
'Ade and Olu like money'
(from Adesola 2012: 9)

6. Prepositions

Yoruba prepositions generally signify a connection between two or more substantives. The prepositions *ní* 'at' and *sí* 'to' usually precede its object in the language (Ogunbowale 1970: 89). Apart from these two primary prepositions, Yoruba have other classes of prepositions such as "*lori* 'on/upon' *láti* 'to'; *lori-gbogbo* 'beyond/above'; *labe* 'under'" (De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 59). According to Ogunbowale (1970: 88), "the preposition **ní** and **sí** have homophones as verbs" Yoruba prepositions are grouped into three categories with regard to stranding (Adesola 2012: 10). The first category is comprised "of prepositions that can be stranded by moving their complement to a sentence initial position" (Adesola 2012: 10). Prepositions in this category include *sí* 'to' and *fún* 'for'.

(26) Ta ni Adé ra àpò fún
who be Ade buy bag for
'who did Ade buy a bag for?'
(from Adesola 2012: 10)

The second category is made up of "the prepositions that could not be stranded and this category includes *ti*/*láti* 'from' and *ní* 'at'" (Adesola 2012: 10).

(27) a. Ibo ni Olú ti wá láti

where be Olu ASP come from

'where did Olu come from'

(from Adesola 2012: 10)

b. Láti Ibo ni Olú ti wá

from where be Olu ASP come

'where did Olu come from'

(from Adesola 2012: 10)

The third category consists of "prepositions which allow pied-piping and stranding" (Adesola 2012: 11). One of the prepositions in this category is *pẹ̀lú* 'with'.

(28) Kí ni Adé hó iṣu pẹ̀lú **rè**

what be Ade peel yam with it

'what did Ade use to peel the yam?'

(from Adesola 2012: 11)

According to De Gaye and Beecroft (1951: 60), the prepositions *li* or *ni* signifies i) rest in place; ii) specific time. While "*ni* is used before a noun that starts with *i*, *li* is used before all the vowels except *i*" (De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 60).

(29) a. **Ni** ìlú wa

in country our

'in our country'

(from De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 60)

b. Mo gbé osù meta **li** Ekó

I stay months three in Lagos

'I stayed three months in Lagos'

(from De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 60)

The prepositions "*ba* and *fi* differ from each other in the sense that *ba* stands for *with* as in 'together with', whereas *fi* is said to be instrumental" (De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 60).

(30) a. O **ba** mi lo lana
he with me go yesterday
'he went with me yesterday'
(from De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 60)

b. O fi ibon pa eye na
he with gun kill bird ART
'he killed the bird with a gun'
(from De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 60)

7. Pronouns

Yoruba pronouns have their own specific characteristics. According to Adebileje (2013: 1759), "the 3rd person singular object simply copies the vowel of the preceding verb, an iconic representation of the extension or completion of the verbal activity".

(31) Ó sí **í**
3s open **it**
'he opened **it**'
(from Derek et al. 1990: 1)

Yoruba pronouns are divided into the following categories:

Personal pronoun

Yoruba personal pronoun is divided into three classes: "subject, object and emphatic pronouns" (Adebileje 2013: 1759). Ogunbowale (1970: 64), refer to subject pronouns as the 'single syllable' pronouns or the 'short form' and the emphatic pronouns as the 'double syllable' pronouns or the 'full form'. (Ogunbowale 1970: 64). The division of Yoruba personal pronoun into different classes is presented in the table below.

Table 1

Yoruba Personal Pronouns. Source: Derek et al. (1990: 2)

PERSON	SUBJECT	OBJECT	EMPHATIC
Singular: 1st person	Mo/Ng	Mi	Èmi
2nd person	O	Ọ/Ẹ	Ìwo
3rd person	Ó	V	Òun
Plural: 1st person	A	Wa	Àwa
2nd person	E	Nyin	Ènyi
3rd person	Nwon	Wọn	Àwon

According to De Gaye and Beecroft (1951: 29), "the primary forms of the personal pronouns are emphatic, except *nwon*", and they are employed "before the verb 'to be' and in the future tense".

(32) Tani wa nibẹ̀? Emi ni ó
who is there? 1s is it
'who is there? It is me'
(from De Gaye & Beecroft 1951: 29)

Interrogative pronouns

Yoruba have several interrogative pronouns which are employed in asking questions. The following are some of the interrogative pronouns identified in the language: "*Tani*? 'Who?'; *Ti tani*? 'Of who?'; *Kini*? 'What?'" (Ogunbowale 1970: 66).

(33) Kini o nse?
what you doing?
'what are you doing?'
(from Ogunbowale 1970: 66)

Demonstrative pronouns

Ogunbowale (1970: 66) points out that Yoruba demonstrative pronouns "are derived from adjectives". For instance, the pronoun *Ìyen* 'that' is derived from the adjective *yen* 'that'. Tinuoye (1979: 56) observes that "the demonstrative pronouns *èyi* 'this' and *ìyen* 'that' usually have the word *àwon* attached, to denote plurality". These pronouns are neither altered morphologically nor syntactically. They are morphologically and syntactically primitive. These are some of the demonstrative pronouns which have been identified in the language: "*Èyin* 'this'; Ì*yen* 'that'; *Ìwònyí* 'these'; *Àwònyen* 'those'" (Tinuoye 1979: 56).

Possessive pronouns

Yoruba possessive pronouns, which are also known as "absolute pronouns", are produced by "adding *ti* to personal possessive adjectives" (Ogunbowale 1970: 66). These pronouns are presented in the table below.

Table 2

Yoruba Possessive Pronouns. Source: Ogunbowale (1970: 66)

	SINGULAR	**PLURAL**
1st person	tèmi (mine)	tiwa (ours)
2nd person	tìre (yours)	tinyín (yours)
3rd person	tire (his)	tiwon (theirs)

Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns

There are different kinds of reflexive pronouns in Yoruba. These pronouns are classified into various categories as shown in the table below (Ogunbowale 1970: 67).

Table 3

Yoruba Reflexive Pronouns. Source: Ogunbowale (1970: 67)

	SINGULAR	**PLURAL**
1st person	Ara-mi (myself)	
2nd person	Ara-re (yourself)	
3rd person	Ara-rè (himself, herself or itself)	Ara-won (themselves)

8. Adjectives

Adjectives are mainly used to modify a noun or pronoun. Yoruba adjectives often come after the nouns which they describe in a sentence.

(34) iwé dáradára
book good
'good book'
(from Ogunbowale 1970: 75)

However, "there are exceptions" to this rule in the sense that there are other adjectives that precede the noun which they modify in a sentence (Ogunbowale 1970: 75).

(35) òbun omo
dirty child
'dirty child'
(from Ogunbowale 1970: 75)

9. Cognate Object

A typical characteristic of Yoruba is that cognate objects are mainly specified instead of incorporating them in the corresponding English verbs (Owolabi & Dasylva 2004: 617).

(36) Mo fé kí *o gba àdurà yìí* pélú mi
I want you to *pray this prayer* with me
'I want you to pray with me'
(from Owolabi & Dasylva 2004: 617)

10. Lexical substitution

There is no one-to-one relationship between all lexical elements in the two languages. For instance, "English has two separate verbs for the action of 'lending' and 'borrowing', while Yoruba has only one, i.e. *yá* 'lend, borrow'" (Owolabi & Dasylva 2004: 618).

(37) I don't *play* with Latin and Greek
'I don't *joke* with Latin and Greek'
Sire ' play, joke'
(from Owolabi & Dasylva 2004: 619)

EMPIRICAL PART

7. Methodology and Procedures

This chapter outlines the research methodology and procedures that were used for this thesis. It also provides the guidelines for analyzing the errors found in the written texts of final year secondary school students in the southwest of Nigeria. Essentially, this chapter is designed to identify the most representative errors so that an empirical analysis can be carried out on them to determine their true sources. The idea is to ascertain the major factor(s) responsible for the errors in students' written English with a view to finding a long-term solution to them.

7.1. Sample of the Study

The students who supplied the data for this study were selected from different secondary schools (public and private) in the southwest of the country. All the informants are bilinguals: they speak and understand both English and Yoruba. Sixty females and 40 male final year

students participated in this study. Yoruba is the students' L1, while English is their L2. The bilingual status of the students made it possible to assemble a corpus which reveals their various levels of competency in English. The students were between the ages of 17 and 19. The reason for using final year students is that students at this level can be assumed to have a good knowledge and an acceptable level of proficiency in English. Additionally, these students are already preparing for their university education, which is only realizable with a good command of written English, due to the official status of the language in Nigeria. Thus, the findings of this study may, to a certain extent at least, be of immense help to students learning English as an L2 in Nigeria.

7.2. Data Collection and Research Instrument

The data was obtained from the selected students who took part in the study. The students were asked to write an essay on the topic: *A story I will never forget*. The essay writing exercise was closely supervised by the English teachers of the various secondary schools. The students were instructed not to write their names on the answer scripts, instead, they were given numbers to replace their names. The students were asked to write between 200 - 250 words; they were given enough time to write and revise their written work before submitting it. The students were not allowed to make use of the dictionary because spelling errors were also checked in their written essays. The written compositions were collected from the students and the most representative errors identified in their works were analyzed.

7.3. Data Analysis Procedures

Previous studies in SLA have used various procedures to analyze L2 learners' errors. For instance, Dulay et al. (1982: 150) utilized the *Surface Strategy Taxonomy*, while James (1980: 106) employed the *Target Modification Taxonomy* to analyze learners' errors (see Section 5.6). However, in this study, *Grammatical Criterion* was used to analyze the most representative errors which were identified in the students' written essays. The reasons for using Grammatical Criterion are as follows: i) the grammatical criteria are consistent and easy to apply, unlike 'surface strategy taxonomy', which sometimes attributes an error to more than one category;[5] ii) grammatical criterion is more appropriate for analyzing the errors identified in the students' written essays because this study examines written language where grammaticality is generally

[5] For more information on error classification and overlapping categories, see Richards (1971: 175) and Dulay et al. (1982: 157-158).

required. Consequently, the identified errors were classified using grammatical categories like *Article*, *Verb*, *Noun*, *Preposition*, and so on. In addition, these errors were analyzed to determine their rate of development in the students' written works. Lastly, the most representative errors which were identified in the student's written essays were codified and organized in accordance with their respective classes to ascertain their interference variables.

8. Data Analysis

8.1. Article Errors

The article normally precedes the noun in English. English uses both the definite *the* and the indefinite *a/an* articles. Similarly, there are both the definite *na* and the indefinite *kan* in Yoruba. These articles also precede the noun in the language. Generally, we employ the definite article when we assume that the addressee can identify the person or thing we are talking about. In other words, definite articles are used in phrases or sentences to pinpoint a particular person or thing as well as to mark definiteness. On the other hand, the indefinite article is used when we discuss somebody or something that we have not talked about previously, as well as to show indefiniteness.

Misuse of articles was observed in the corpus of the students' errors. The students misused the definite, indefinite, and zero articles in their essays. It is important to note that the wrong use of these articles may not result from the influence of the learners' L1, given the similarities in their uses for both languages. For instance, in the following sentence, the learner employed the zero article Ø instead of the definite article *the* in his construction: *I am only – one that even went to – farm*. Other examples that were identified in the corpus includes the following:

(38) a. It was *a* day I was going to the club to meet my member. [the]

b. Some disagreement in my town between *a* two clans. [Ø]

c. His father married *the* second wife last year. [his]

In example (38a), the learner used an indefinite article instead of a definite article, leading to an error. He was referring to a particular day and as such he requires a definite article to signify the definiteness of his sentence. It is important for English learners to learn how to use an article appropriately with its exceptions to avoid errors. In example (38b), the learner made use of an indefinite article instead of a zero article. English does not allow the use of an indefinite article before numbers neither does Yoruba. A possessive article/determiner is more suitable for

example (38c) because the second wife referred to is not someone that has been spoken about previously. From the examples above, one can argue that the students' MT is not solely the cause of articles errors. The overgeneralization of TL rules is also responsible for some of the errors in this case.

8.2. Singular/Plural Form Errors

There are different ways in which plurals are marked across languages. The marking of plurals in English generally follows a morphological process. However, there are exceptions such as the *ablaut* plurals which are formed by the transformation of the vowel sound within the singular form and, zero plurals which do not require any form of changes to the singular form. The following suffixes are usually added to English words to indicate plurals, -s, -es, and -en. On the other hand, "Yoruba plurals are contextually, semantically, and morphologically marked" (Ajiboye 2005: 5). Basically, there are four plural words in Yoruba: *awon* - 'third person plural'; *pupo* - 'many'; *won* - used to change a demonstrative to plural; and copied modifiers like ***giga*** *giga* - 'tall.' Many misapplication of plural markers were identified in the corpus of student's errors. For instance, the learner wrongly applied a plural marker in the following sentence: *The baby 'were' seriously sick.* In this case, the learner employed a plural predicate while using a singular noun. The following are some other examples that were found in the corpus:

(39) a. There are some *womans* whose names are Ruth and Rose. [women]

b. Two *visitor* and one of the elderly man came to him. [visitors]

c. When it is raining I play with the *muds*. [mud]

In example (39a), the learner employed a regular plural form (*womans*) in place of an ablaut plural (*women*). Ablaut in general, in the sense that, this particular plural is unique in English. The only way learners can avoid this error is to memorize these categories of words and their plural forms otherwise they would continue to make the same errors. This error occurred due to the learner's overgeneralization of TL rules or regular plural formation rules. In example (39b), the learner used a singular noun (visitor) after the numeral (two) instead of a plural noun (visitors). The learner is not aware that in English when a noun is preceded by a numeral or quantifier, it must be marked for plural. This is somewhat similar to using a modifier word to indicate plural in Yoruba. In example (39c), the learner made use of the regular plural form (*muds*) to mark the uncountable noun (*mud*) instead of a zero plural. Apparently, the learner is

unaware of the fact that uncountable nouns in English does not require the plural marker (-s) to indicate the plural form of the word.

8.3. Verb Tense Errors

In English, verb tenses are used to make a distinction between past, present, and future tense. As stated in Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 40), "[t]ime is a universal, non-linguistic concept with three divisions: past, present, and future; by tense, we understand the correspondence between the form of the verb and our concept of time." In English, a verb in the *present tense* is employed to signify an action or occurrence that is currently happening. A *past tense* verb is employed to indicate an action or a past occurrence and a *future tense* verb is employed to signify an action that would occur in the future. The *present perfect tense* shows that an action has just taken place or is about to happen. The *past perfect tense* indicates that an action occurred before another action which is also in the past, and the *future perfect tense* signifies that an action will have occurred by a certain time or before another future event.

English learners' inability to employ the appropriate form of verb tenses is the cause of many errors in SLA. Also in the current corpus learners committed many verb tenses errors. Some of these errors result from a direct transfer of the learners' MT patterns, while others occurred due to learners' limited knowledge in the use of verb tenses. The methods by which English forms its verb tenses significantly differ from those of Yoruba. One of the ways in which English past tense is formed is by adding the suffixes *–d* and *–ed* to a verb. This past tense formation rule applies to most verbs and, as a result, it becomes overgeneralized. Some English verbs have irregular past tense forms, which form their past tense by an alteration in relation to the stem. Other irregular past tense verbs are formed in an entirely different process with no affixation to the stem. The following examples were identified in the corpus:

(40) a. I even *thinked* that I not moved forward. [thought]

b. He *sayed* no problem. [said]

c. She jumped the fence and *broken* her leg. [broke]

In examples (40a) and (40b), the learners regularized the irregular verb forms. In other words, the grammatical pattern of regular verb forms was extended to irregular ones. In this case, the learners employed their internalized regular past tense formation rules in contexts where they are not required. On the other hand, example (40c) was caused by the learner's limited knowledge in the formation of irregular past tense. The combination of existing verb forms may be accountable for this error because the past participle of the verb *break* is *broken*. The

application of a wrong past tense marker in the preceding example results from the learner's inadequate understanding of English past tense formation rules.

Examination of the corpus showed that the learners employed past tense *double marking* in their writings. In SLA development, the double marking of grammatical items by learners is a common occurrence. This error occurs due to the learner's inability to differentiate the verb to be marked for past tense in his construction. The following examples were identified in the corpus:

(41) a. He told the wife that he *did* not *gave* birth to a male child. [give]

b. My Mum *didn't answered* and she was worried about me. [answer]

In examples (41a) and (41b), the learner placed the past tense marker on the auxiliary and main verbs of both sentences, *did* and *didn't* as well as *gave* and *answered*.

It was also found that the learners employed the present simple tense in place of the past simple tense in their written constructions and vice versa. The following examples were discovered in the corpus:

(42) a. Our former coach *know* nothing. [knew]

b. God *show* me in my dream last year. [showed]

c. When you *took* a bus is cheaper. [take]

d. I played football during break so I *were* very tired. [was]

In examples (42a) and (42b), the learner used the present simple tense instead of the past simple tense. Clearly, this is a case of negative transfer because the learners transferred their MT patterns into their L2 constructions, since Yoruba do not inflect to signify tense. On the other hand, examples (42c) and (42d) might result from the learners' lack of required knowledge in the proper use of verb tenses.

Other errors in this category include omission of the *auxiliary* and *linking* verbs which are also known as *content morphemes*. Learners omitted these linguistic items in their essays resulting in an error. Auxiliary verbs like *am*, *will*, *do* and so on were omitted in the students' essays. It is important to note that the omission of the auxiliary verb does not necessarily affect the well-formedness of a sentence. However, the absence of this linguistic item in a sentence can sometimes result in an error. For instance, the use of an auxiliary verb was disregarded in the following erroneous construction: *After he – answer the question*. The learner's exclusion of the auxiliary verb (*will*) from his construction was due to his limited knowledge of the use of auxiliary verbs. Other examples that were found in the corpus includes the following:

(43) a. I – not afraid of exams. [was]

b. We – very stubborn in my class. [were]

In examples (43a) and (43b) above, the learners omitted the auxiliary verbs *was* and *were* in their essays. The exclusion of these linguistic elements hinders the relatedness between the subject and the verb in a sentence. However, the omission of these items does not completely alter the meanings of these constructions but they have negatively impacted on them thereby resulting in incorrect sentences. In this case, the students' omitted these linguistic items in their sentences as a result of their ignorance of its usage in these particular contexts.

8.4. Subject-Verb Agreement Errors

An English verb has to agree with its subject in order to produce a well-formed sentence. A singular subject goes with a singular verb, while a plural subject is followed by a plural verb. However, learners often violate the *subject-verb agreement* rules and, as a result, they produce incorrect constructions. The learners' limited understanding of the subject-verb agreement rules is responsible for their inability to use them correctly. The following examples were found in the corpus:

(44) a. She *walk* to school every day. [walks]

b. They *sounds* very arrogant. [sound]

In example (44a), the learners violated the subject-verb agreement rule by combining a plural verb with a singular subject. In example (44b), the learner used a singular verb with a plural subject resulting in an error. Thus, all the errors above occurred as a result of the misapplication of the subject-verb agreement rule.

8.5. Preposition Errors

A preposition is a word which usually connects with nouns and noun phrases within a sentence to express modification. In other words, prepositions precede both the noun and pronoun and link them with other parts of the sentence. The relationship between different parts of a sentence is cut off when prepositions are omitted or wrongly applied. According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 143), "a prepositional phrase consists of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement, which is characteristically a noun phrase or a *wh*-clause or V-*ing* clause." As in English, Yoruba prepositions generally indicate a connection and show a relation between two or more substantives. Moreover, there is no clear distinction in the application of

preposition for both languages. As in English, Yoruba prepositions precedes the nouns which they refer to in a sentence and they can be placed at the end of a sentence. There are rarely rules that specify how and when to employ which preposition. Therefore, the only means of acquiring the correct usage of prepositions is by memorizing their usage. Yoruba learners of English usually find it difficult to choose the right preposition to use. The following are some examples of the errors that were discovered in the corpus as a result of the learners' omission and misapplication of prepositions:

(45) a. I prayed *for* God to give the chance. [to]

b. Now I am – SSS 3 (Senior Secondary School). [in]

c. They took police – that sugar daddy house. [to]

In example (45a), the learner used a wrong preposition in his construction resulting in an error. This error could result from the learner's insufficient knowledge in the use of English preposition. In examples (45b) and (45c) above, the learners omitted the prepositions 'in' and 'to' in their constructions. Similar to previous explanation, this errors occurred due to the learners' limited knowledge in the application TL rules. Learners' can avoid this error by paying close attention to contexts where this preposition is used in English literature.

8.6. Pronoun Errors

A pronoun is a word or phrase which is used to replace a noun or noun phrase, which serves as the pronoun's antecedent. English pronouns consist of many subclasses and take different forms. Pronouns are different from nouns due to the following reasons: "they do not accept determiners; they usually have objective cases, personal distinctions, and visible gender contrast; and singular and plurals forms are hardly morphologically related" (Quirk & Greenbaum 1973: 100). Contrary to the noun, pronouns transform in line with their usage in a sentence. In other words, the case of the pronoun determines its function in the sentence. Similar to the noun, most pronouns possess both the *common* and *genitive* case, however, some pronouns also possess an objective case. The following are some of the errors that were identified in the corpus:

(46) a. I buy food from those girls but I don't like *they* character. [their]

b. I no really like *they*. [them]

In example (46a), the formal similarities between the pronouns 'they' and 'their' made the learner to employ the third person possessive plural pronoun instead of third person personal

plural pronoun in his construction. The explanation for this error is perhaps the same for example (46b) where the learner used the third person personal plural pronoun (they) as a substitute for the accusative form (them). These errors occur due to the learners' insufficient knowledge in the use of English pronouns. Additional examples in this category are the following:

(47) a. He went to visit *her* mother in the village. [his]

b. She buy food for *his* boyfriend during lunch break. [her]

In example (47a), the learner used the third person possessive feminine singular pronoun in place of the third person possessive masculine singular pronoun. This error may result from the fact that Yoruba does not have gender-specific pronouns. Consequently, the learner mixes up different forms of pronouns resulting in an error. This explanation is somewhat relevant for example (47b) where the learner employed third person possessive masculine singular pronoun instead of third person possessive feminine singular pronoun.

8.7. Adjective Errors

An adjective is a word that is employed to describe the properties or characteristics of a noun. Yoruba adjectives and their applications are quite different from those of English. Yoruba use the words *ju* and *julo* 'surpass' as its comparative and superlative markers, while English forms its comparative and superlative markers by adding the following morphemes, *-er*, *-est*, *more* and *most* to the adjective. The learners' inappropriate use of adjectives in their constructions mainly results from the differences in their use in both languages. According to Adelabu (2014: 513), "while most adjectives post modify in Yoruba, most English adjectives pre-modify the words they qualify". Consequently, learners transfer their MT patterns into their written English resulting in an error. The following are some examples that were found in the corpus:

(48) a. My table *tall pass* his own. [taller]

b. Their house *high pass* all the houses. [higher]

In examples (48a) and (48b), the learners employed a direct translation of their MT pattern in their L2 constructions, which results in an error. As earlier mentioned, English and Yoruba use different means to indicate comparative and superlative forms of adjective. Yoruba use the word *ju* and *julo* (surpass) in place of English comparative and superlative forms (-er, -est). Therefore, in these examples, the learners transferred their knowledge of MT structure into their L2 constructions by using the words 'tall pass' and 'high pass' (surpass) instead of 'taller' and

'higher'. Clearly, these errors occurred due to the differences between the structure and rules of the MT and TL.

8.8. Cognate Object Errors

A typical "characteristics of Yoruba is that objects are generally specified, where they would have been incorporated in the corresponding English verbs" (Banjo 1969: 617). In English, cognate objects are usually integrated with noun phrases which have an equivalent meaning or morphological stem. Yoruba, on the other hand, typically specify cognate objects without combining them with their corresponding verbs. The following are some examples that were identified in the corpus:

(49) a. It is friend that injured me *this injury* like this. [Ø]

b. I told him we should play *the play* together. [Ø]

In example (49a), the student clearly specified the cognate object instead of incorporating it with the noun phrase. The sentence would have been well-formed if the cognate object was not included. This explanation is also applicable to example (49b). These errors occurred due to the students' transfer of the grammatical patterns of their MT into their TL. This problem is mostly associated with learners who have a good background of their L1 (see Section 4.1).

8.9. Lexical Substitution Errors

There are often no direct English equivalents for Yoruba lexemes. Unlike Yoruba, most English words can perform several functions. There are occasions where a lexeme in Yoruba has two or more equivalence in English. Consequently, learners directly translate this word from their MT to English thereby resulting in an error. The following examples were discovered in the corpus:

(50) a. The second wife *called* the spirit of her husband. [invoked, call up]

b. When the news *came out* to everybody. [spread]

In examples (50a) and (50b) above, the learners employed the words which they directly translated from their MT. The word 'invoke' in English is equivalent to 'call' in Yoruba, while the word 'spread' is similar to 'come out.' This lack of equivalence between English and Yoruba lexemes has negatively affected the learners, particularly those learners who use their MT knowledge to learn the TL.

8.10. Spelling Errors

English spelling is often unpredictable. There is no one-to-one relation to sound and written symbol. English have words with similar structures that are sometimes mistaken for each other. These kinds of words can be very tricky to spell due to the resemblance that exists between them. Also, irregular plurals in English are quite difficult to spell because of the differences between them and their singular counterparts. As a result, learners usually acquire these plural forms off by heart. Consequently, learners sometimes employ the closest spelling to their MT when spelling an English word which they are not familiar with. According to Olusoji (2013: 42), "what the students write is what they articulate." The following are some examples that were identified in the corpus:

(51) a. His brother was the *course* of the problem. [cause]

b. We travel to *Saria* last year. [Zaria]

In example (51a), the similarities of the structures of both words mislead the learner to spell the word *cause* as *course* thereby resulting in an error. There are many words in English whose structures look very similar to each other but have completely different meanings. Clearly, this error did not occur as a result of MT influence. On the contrary, the error in example (51b) occurred due to MT influence. Yoruba native speakers usually have difficulty in pronouncing the sound '**z**', hence, any English word with this sound is likely to be misspelled by them.

9. Discussion of the Results

The focus of this section is the results of the study. I analyzed each category of error in more detail. I compared the percentages of errors in each category and the total percentage of errors in the corpus. Additionally, I compared the percentages of errors which emanated from the interference of the students' first language with those that resulted from their inadequate knowledge of the target language. The purpose of these comparisons was to determine the main causes of the errors identified in the students' written essays.

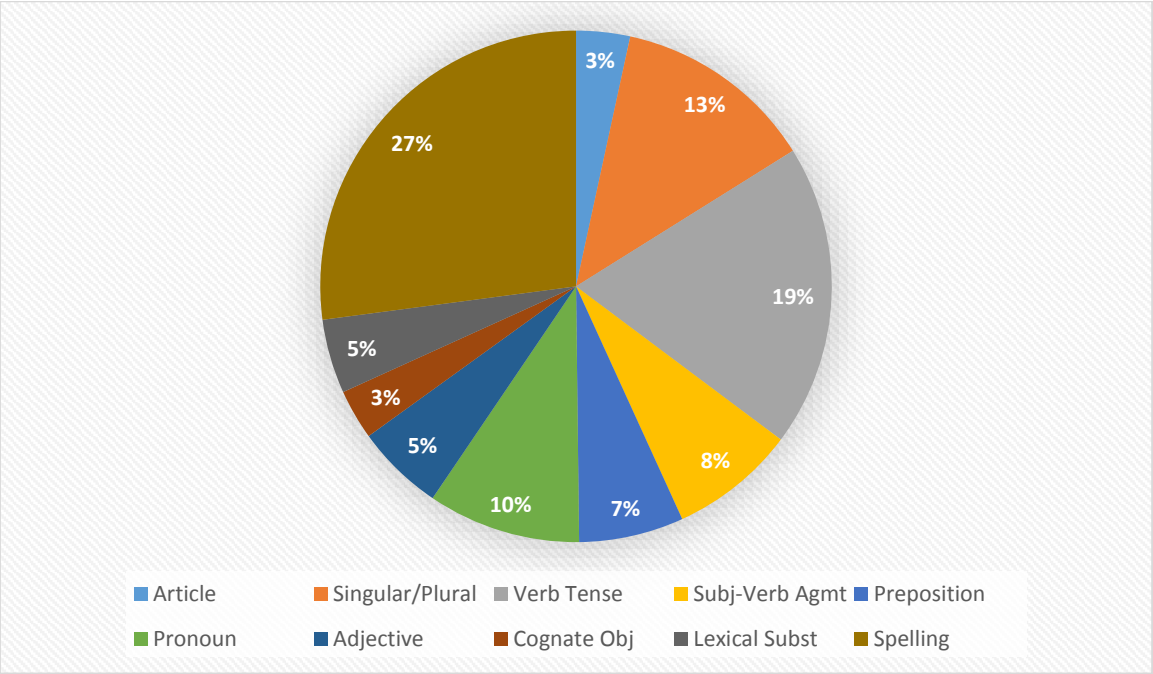

Figure 1. Percentage of total errors in the corpus.

Table 4 (below) summarizes the number and percentage of total errors in the study corpus. The total number of errors identified in the students' written essays was 2,172. To obtain the percentages of each category of errors in the corpus, I multiplied the number of errors in each category by 100 and then that number by 2,172.

Table 4

Number and Percentage of Total Errors in the Corpus

Categories of errors	**Article**	**Singular/Plural**	**Verb tense**	**Subject-Verb Agreement**	**Preposition**	**Pronoun**	**Adjective**	**Cognate Object**	**Lexical Substitution**	**Spelling**
Number of errors	74	276	415	173	144	210	121	69	102	588
Percentage of errors	3.40%	12.70%	19.10%	7.96%	6.62%	9.66%	5.57%	3.17%	4.69%	27.07%

9.1. Article

As stated earlier, we use the definite article 'the' to describe someone or something that had previously been discussed or talked about. Additionally, the definite article is used for both singular and plural nouns. However, plural nouns do not require indefinite articles except when a particular category of the noun is being signified. English learners can avoid making article errors by acquiring some general rules for using articles, including the exceptions. For instance, some names of places require an article, whereas others do not need one. Thus, learners can discover how to use articles by exploring English literature and through a learning experience. The percentage of errors regarding articles is very low in comparison to other types of errors such as verb tenses and wrong spellings. In the corpus, the total number of identified errors was 2,172. Among those 2,172 errors, 74 were in the category of article, which constituted 3.40% of all the errors in the corpus. The wrong use of articles can occur by different means such as substitution of one form of an article for another or through superfluous use.

According to the corpus, the primary cause of this category of errors was the students' inadequate knowledge of TL rules. There are similarities between English and the Yoruba articles system. That fact notwithstanding, there is, however, no one-to-one equivalence between these articles because they originated from two different languages. Contrary to CAH, which claims that the difficulties experienced by learners during language acquisition emanate from the differences between the NL and the TL (see Section 4.4), none of the errors in this category can be traced to interlingual transfer or MT interference. All the errors in the corpus which belonged to this category originated from the students' limited knowledge of the use of English articles and not from L1 transfer (see Section 5.5). The reason might be that the students could not maneuver their L2 difficulties using their L1 patterns or because they did not consider it the appropriate solution to the problem.

9.2. Singular/Plural

As shown in section 8.2, there are considerable differences between the English and Yoruba plural marking systems. Generally, English marks its plurals through a morphological process, however, there are exceptions, such as the *ablaut* and *zero* plurals (see Section 8.2). On the other hand, Yoruba plurals are contextually, semantically, and morphologically indicated in the language (Ajiboye 2005: 5). Considering these significant differences in the plural formation

system of both languages, one may assume that in conformity with CAH, the errors in this category would come from MT interference. Surprisingly, this was not the case in the corpus, as all the errors that originated from this category resulted from the students' overgeneralization of TL rules and structure. The percentage of the errors in this category was relatively high when compared to other types of errors like adjective and pronoun errors. From the results shown in Table 4, one can see that there were 276 occurrences of singular/plural errors out of the total 2,172 errors in the corpus. Which accounted for 12.70% of the total errors.

Apparently, the differences in the plural formation systems of English and Yoruba cannot be used exclusively to determine the students' errors. This is one reason why CAH is being criticized by scholars who have a different view of the causes of L2 learners' errors. The ideology of CAH is that the comparison of learners' L1 and L2 is the only means in which one can identify and explain learners' errors (see Section 4.4). The differences in the patterns and structure of both languages have nothing to do with the errors in this category, as they were all intralingual errors. The reason why MT interference could not account for these errors might be that the students disregarded their MT pattern as the solution to their problems. Generally, learners employ their MT patterns in learning the TL whenever they encounter difficulties, but this is not applicable in all situations, especially in this particular case.

9.3. Verb Tense

A major cause of verb tense errors is learners' inability to preserve tense continuity. Once a tense is employed in a sentence, it must be used throughout the sentence. However, the tense might be changed or terminated if a new topic is introduced in the following sentence. Another reason which may explain these errors is when learners avoid using unfamiliar tense forms due to their difficulties. It is important to note that avoidance in this sense is not the same as tense markings. According to the results shown in Table 4, verb tense consisted of 19.10% (415 errors) of the total 2,172 errors identified in the corpus. Some of the errors in this category occurred because of the structural differences between Yoruba and English. Many students do not understand the functions of English tenses. They may know the correct form of the tenses, but find it difficult to apply them correctly in the right contexts. Consequently, the students use their discretion to choose tenses and may switch tenses haphazardly.

The majority of the errors in this category were traced to omission of regular past tense markers and misuse of those markers. This could be responsible for the relatively high percentage of students' errors because these types of errors are very common with L2 learners. For instance,

Yoruba does not inflect to indicate tenses, but English does (see Subsection 6.2.1). Consequently, students who have limited knowledge of the use of English past tense often employ their MT patterns in their writing, leading to an error. According to the corpus of students' errors, the errors in this category emanated from two sources: some of the errors resulted from the direct transfer of the students' MT on their TL, and some originated from the students' insufficient knowledge of the TL rules and structure. Therefore, both interlingual and intralingual errors were derived from this category, which is, to some extent, inconsistent with the CAH theory. If one investigates the occurrence of interlingual errors within this category, one will find different results. In this case, 175 (42.17%) of the total 415 errors emanated from MT transfer.

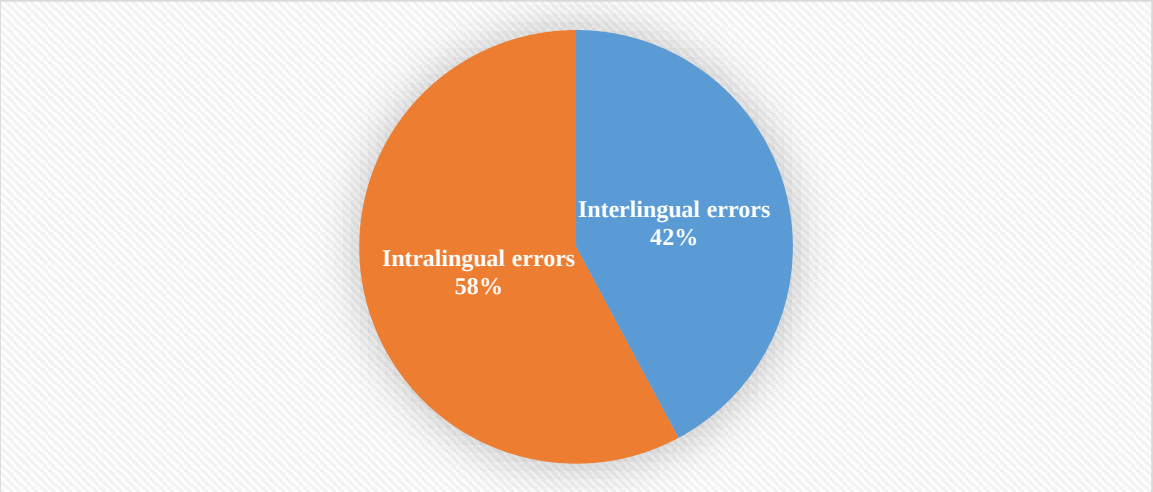

Figure 2. Relationship between interlingual and intralingual errors in the verb tense category.

9.4. Subject-Verb Agreement

Generally, the verb must agree with the subject to attain a well-formed sentence. For instance, the form of the verb *play* usually changes in accordance with the subject: "I play" becomes "he plays." This is called subject-verb agreement. Learners often experience difficulties in the application of subject-verb agreement rule when there is no clear subject or verb. As a result, the subject or the verb is applied incorrectly, resulting in an error. Therefore, the subject-verb agreement rule must be obeyed to construct a well-formed English sentence. According to the results presented in Table 4, 173 (7.97%) of the total 2,172 errors identified in the corpus occurred due to the misapplication of subject-verb agreement rules. The errors derived from this category resulted from the students' limited knowledge of the application of TL rules, however, other factors have been responsible for these errors, including compound subjects,

collective subjects, and complex plural forms. None of the errors in this category could be traced to the influence of the students' MT patterns. Thus, all the errors were intralingual errors, which was in sharp contrast to CAH theory.

9.5. Preposition

Generally, prepositions are used to indicate relations between parts of a sentence. Yoruba learners of English often encounter difficulties in using prepositions. This was one of the things I observed in the students' writings. According to the results shown in Table 4, the misuse of prepositions accounted for 144 (6.63%) of the total 2,172 errors in the corpus. The learning difficulties experienced by the students may have resulted from the fact that there are no clear rules which indicate how and when to use prepositions. This could be the reason for the relatively high percentage of errors discovered in this category. The whole errors that were identified in this category emanated from an intralingual transfer or generalization of TL rules and structure. Learners are often bewildered by the numerous prepositions in English, and, as a result, they select prepositions at random. Contrary to CAH, the differences between the students' L1 and L2 did not account for any errors in this category because the errors "reflect learner's competence at a particular developmental stage" (Zobl 1980: 472).

9.6. Pronoun

A pronoun is a word which is used to replace a noun or noun phrase in a sentence. The pronoun is divided into various subclasses such as personal pronouns, interrogative pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, possessive pronouns, etc. As shown in Table 4, 210 (9.67%) errors of the total 2,172 errors in the corpus were pronoun errors. The differences between the English and Yoruba pronoun systems accounted for some of the errors in this category. However, other errors in this category resulted from the students' inadequate knowledge of the application of English pronouns. Consequently, these errors emanated from both interlingual and intralingual transfer. To some extent, the weak version of the CAH theory might be considered correct in this case (see Subsection 4.5.2). As previously mentioned, those errors that are traced to both the students' L1 and L2 rules and structure are regarded as "ambiguous" (Dulay & Burt 1974: 131). In this instance, the errors that were traced to MT interference resulted from gender distinction between the two languages. When compared to other forms of errors, the number of errors identified in this category was relatively low. When I examined the role of MT influence

within the errors in this category, a different result appeared. In this category, 57 (27.14%) of the 210 pronoun errors originated from MT interference.

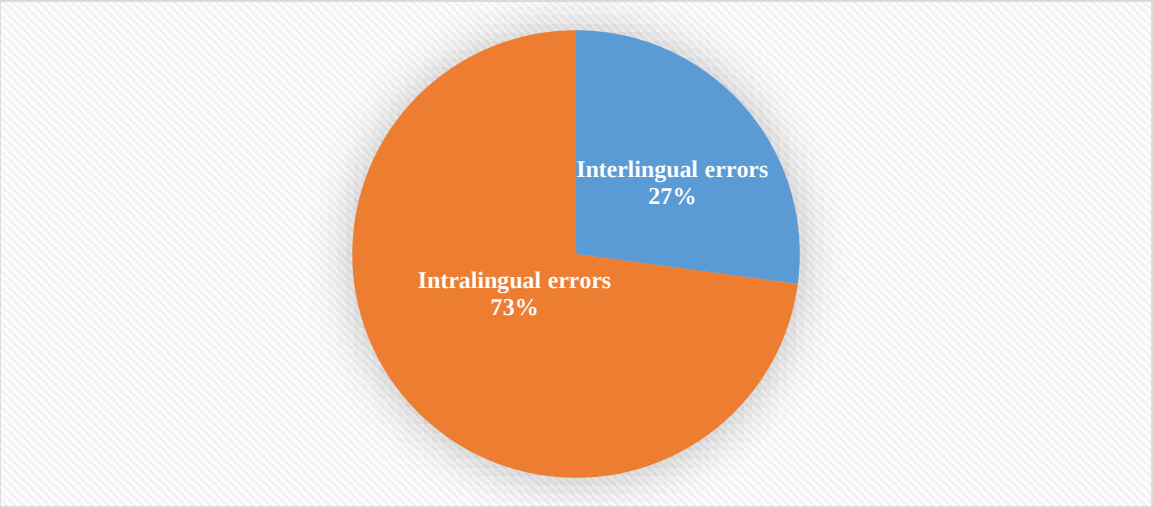

Figure 3. Relationship between interlingual and intralingual errors in the pronoun category.

9.7. Adjective

As stated earlier, English adjective systems are significantly different from those of Yoruba, which have resulted in the learning difficulties which the students encountered. While Yoruba has only *ju* and *julo* as its comparative and superlative markers, English, on the other hand, has numerous adjectives denoting same (see Section 8.7). According to the results given in Table 4, 121 (5.57%) of the total 2,172 errors committed by the students were adjective errors. In accordance with CAH, the whole errors in this category resulted from interlingual transfer. The students directly employed their MT patterns in their L2 writings. The examples in section 8.7 clearly indicated that these errors emanated from the interference of the students' MT on their TL. One difference that I observed between the two languages was that Yoruba adjectives post-modify the nouns they qualify, while many English adjectives pre-modify their nouns (Adelabu 2014:513). The students' MT knowledge of the comparative and superlative markers negatively influenced their L2 constructions because there was no one-to-one correspondence between the comparative and superlative markers of the two languages. If the comparative and superlative markers of both English and Yoruba were similar, perhaps it would have resulted in a positive transfer and these errors would not have occurred (see Section 3.5.2).

9.8. Cognate Object

A cognate object is a direct object which possess an equivalent semantic derivation like the verb that controls it. As indicated in the results shown in Table 4, 69 (3.18%) of the total 2,172 errors in the corpus were cognate object errors. In conformity with CAH theory, all the errors that I identified in this category came from interlingual transfer. The students directly employed their MT patterns in their writings, resulting in an error. The number of errors in this category was relatively low when compared to the other categories of errors in the corpus. One probable reason for this could be that the students were knowledgeable of this error and, as a result, avoided making it. Teachers often emphasize commonplace errors in their students' writings to help them improve. Consequently, the students become aware of these errors and eventually avoid them. However, irrespective of the rate of occurrence of an error in the students' writings, the teacher must help the students to avoid it.

9.9. Lexical Substitution

Lexical substitution occurs when a word is replaced in a context with an appropriate alternative substitute. However, the differences in the English and Yoruba lexemes have made the process difficult, thus resulting in an error. As shown in Table 4, 102 (4.70%) of the total 2,172 errors committed by the students were lexical substitution errors. In accordance with CAH theory, all the errors in this category resulted from the interference of the students' MT. The influence of the students L1 negatively impacted their L2 writings (see Subsection 3.5.2). There is no one-to-one relationship between most words and their functions in either language. As a result, no words can perform the exact same functions in English and Yoruba. Additionally, unlike Yoruba, English has a very broad lexeme and many of its words can be used in many senses and contexts.

9.10. Spelling

There are English words with similar structures which learners often mistake for each other, thereby resulting in an error. According to the results given in Table 4, of the total 2,172 errors committed by the students, 588 (27.07%, the largest number and percentage of errors in this study) were spelling errors. These results may be due to the structural similarities between one or more words in the TL language. The resemblance in the structure of these words makes it difficult for students to spell them correctly. Consequently, the students erroneously use words

whose structures are like the intended words, but which have different meanings. The errors in this category emanated from both interlingual and intralingual transfer. Some of the errors resulted from the students' insufficient knowledge of the TL structures, while others resulted from the interference of the students' MT on their TL writings. If one considers the role of MT interference over the errors in this category, then the results would be different, as 150 (25.51%) of the 588 spelling errors committed in the corpus emanated from MT transfer.

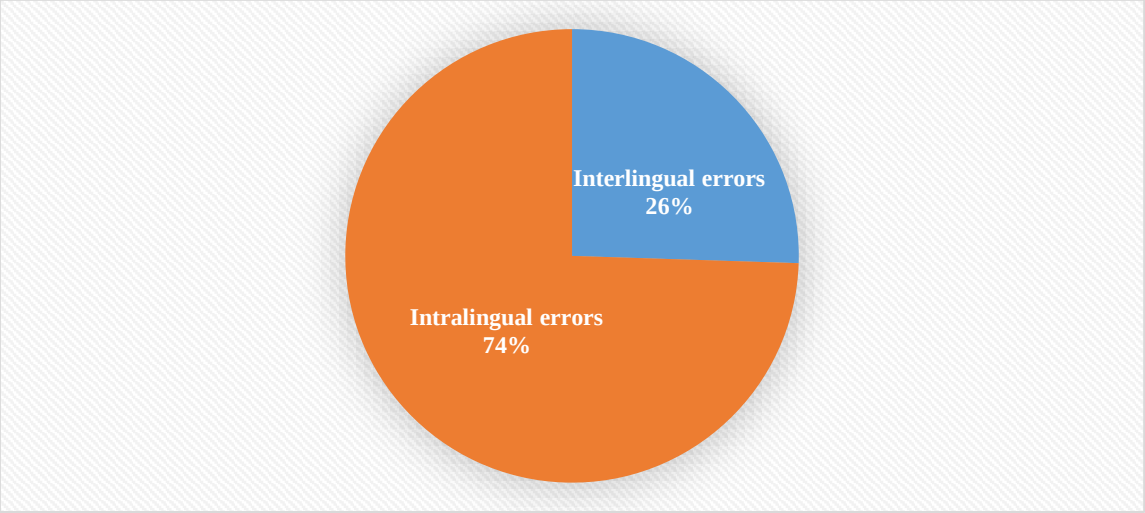

Figure 4. Relationship between of interlingual and intralingual errors in the spelling category.

As can be seen from the results of this study, the students' errors originated from both interlingual and intralingual transfer. Interlingual or interference errors generally result from mother tongue influence on the target language, "whereas, intralingual errors occur due to the following factors: simplification, overgeneralization, hyper-correction, faulty teaching, fossilization, avoidance, inadequate learning, and false concepts hypothesized" (Touchie 1986: 75). In this study, many of the students' errors occurred due to intralingual transfer, while the other errors emanated from interlingual transfer. The results indicate that interlingual and intralingual errors both negatively influenced the students' writings, irrespective of the fact that the percentage of intralingual errors was higher than that of interlingual errors.

10. Conclusion

This thesis investigated the major cause of students' poor performance on written English that have occurred in some secondary schools in the southwest part of Nigeria. Many students have

encountered setbacks as they attempted to achieve a native-like proficiency in their written English. Linguists and researchers have often disagreed about the primarily cause of this problem. Consequently, linguists have proposed several SLA theories to investigate the cause of the difficulties encountered by second language learners. CAH, a leading theory developed to fulfill this obligation, claims that the main cause of the difficulties learners encounter in the acquisition of a foreign language is the interference of their mother tongue. The ideology behind CAH is that when the structure of the learners' L1 is like that of their L2, the learners would acquire the target language with ease. However, when there are differences between the structures of the learners' L1 and that of their L2, the learners would experience difficulties in acquiring the target language. Hence, CAH was important to this study. I employed CAH to investigate the differences between the structure of English and Yoruba, as this would help researchers and readers understand the extent to which the students' L1 interfered with their written English. I used error analysis to diagnose the errors identified in the students' essays since it was one of the most reliable methods for analyzing learners' errors in SLA research.

As can be seen from preceding sections, this thesis consists of both theoretical and empirical portions. Within the theoretical portion, which contains five chapters, I provided a theoretical framework for diagnosing and analyzing the errors identified in the corpus. In this portion of the thesis, I presented an overview of the role and function of English in Nigeria, with an emphasis on the southwest area of the country. I gave insight into the language situation in Nigeria and provided information on the official status of English in the country. I also explained why none of the hundreds of indigenous languages in Nigeria could be selected to function as the official language. Additionally, I discussed the characteristics of the Nigerian English followed by a description of the history and functions of Yoruba. I highlighted the role and importance of the learner language in SLA research. Furthermore, I provided an insight into the *interlanguage theory*, *contrastive analysis hypothesis*, and *error analysis*, all of which served as the theoretical framework and means for analyzing the data obtained in this study. I employed the foregoing theories because linguists and researchers widely acknowledged them as proven theories for carrying out SLA research. Finally, I discussed the differences and similarities between the English and Yoruba linguistic systems to determine those aspects of Yoruba that may interfere with the students' writings.

I included five chapters in the empirical portion of this thesis. Within the empirical portion, I described the methodology and procedures used to analyze the data obtained in the study. I presented a sample of the study and outlined the strategies that constituted its development. Subsequently, I discussed the data-collection process. I then proceeded to the data analysis

section, which contained a discussion of the various procedures and criterion previously used to analyze second language learners' errors and an explanation for why they might not be suitable for this study. I described the criterion used for the analysis and how it aligned with the linguistic categories used to classify the identified errors in the thesis. In addition, I explained why the most common errors were selected and divided into various categories of errors. I described each of the linguistic categories in detail and presented some of the errors which originated from them. I used examples of errors identified in the corpus to determine their linguistic categories. I discussed why those errors in the corpus which reflected the structure of learners' L1 resulted from MT interference and why other errors were considered to have occurred due to learners' misuse of TL rules. While it is not always easy to determine the source of an error, but with careful examination and deeper analysis, one can determine whether an error emerged from an interlingual or intralingual transfer.

Furthermore, I discussed the results of the identified errors in the corpus. I classified these errors into various linguistic categories and then analyzed them to determine their frequency (number of occurrences), percentage of the total number of errors, and rate of occurrence (see Section 9). I identified 10 major categories of errors in the corpus. The total number of errors in each category consisted of the total number of interlingual or intralingual errors within the category. However, when both interlingual and intralingual errors existed within a particular error category, I divided the number of errors in such a category between them according to their rate of occurrence. I used the same method to obtain the percentages within the various categories of errors identified in the corpus. Besides the fact that students' essays were full of errors, many of their writings lacked coherence and cohesion, making it difficult to comprehend. However, some of the students' essays were comprehensible, thus demonstrating that student proficiency level varied.

The results also indicated that *verb tense* errors were the second-most-frequent category of errors. Many of the errors in this category came from the wrong use of past-tense markers. Verb tense errors represented 19.10% of the total number of errors in the corpus. Following the verb tense errors were the *singular/plural* errors. The singular/plural category consisted of 276 errors, which accounted for 12.71% of the total number of errors in the corpus. It is important to note that I counted only deviant constructions in the students' essays as errors. Therefore, those linguistic categories in which the students committed fewer errors were likely the ones they were more proficient in. For instance, the students committed few errors in the *cognate object* category. A total number of 69 errors was derived from this category, which accounted for 3.18% of the total number of errors in the corpus. Another linguistic category in which the

students committed fewer errors was the *article*. The total number of errors in this category was 74, which accounted for 3.41% of the total number of errors in the corpus. The fact that the students were not permitted to ask for assistance or use learning aids undoubtedly affected the study results. The essay writing exercises were carried out in the classrooms since the aim of the study was to gain a comprehensive view on the cause of widespread errors in the students' written English.

The results indicated that interlingual errors were relatively uncommon compared to intralingual errors. However, it was not uncommon to find structures reflecting Yoruba in the students' writings. I observed that the students usually employed their Yoruba knowledge in writing their essays when they did not have an idea of the correct English structure. Many interlingual errors identified in the corpus were due to direct transfer of the students' L1 structure as displayed in their written essays. The major aspects or grammatical categories that were affected by the influence of the students' mother tongue included *adjective*, *cognate object*, and *lexical substitution*. All the errors that were identified in the corpus pertaining to each of these three categories were interlingual, in that they consisted of 100% interlingual errors, as none of the errors could be traced to the students' inadequate knowledge of TL rules. Furthermore, I identified interlingual errors in the following categories: *verb tense*, *pronoun*, and *lexical substitution*. However, these categories consisted of both interlingual and intralingual errors. Verb tense had 42% interlingual errors, the pronoun consisted of 27% interlingual errors, and spelling consisted of 26% interlingual errors.

The study had many shortcomings which limited the results. Therefore, it would be unrealistic to draw an overall picture of the writing difficulties Yoruba learners of English encountered based on the outcome of the research. Some aspects that may have limited the results of this investigation included the number of participants, the type of writing activity, the topic of the essay, and the depth of data analysis performed. That notwithstanding, the investigation provided suitable answers to the research questions which is the ultimate goal of the study. Despite the notion of CAH that L2 learners' errors are generally caused by interference of the learners' mother tongue, the results of the study showed that many of the students' errors were intralingual. Since the study established that the primary cause of the students' errors resulted from intralingual interference, it was significant that teachers improved on their teaching techniques to help the students resolve this problem. However, it is important to note that teachers could only help their students avoid committing these errors when they are familiar with the errors. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to always observe the kinds of errors usually committed by their students.

Obviously, there was a need to curtail the interference of Yoruba in the students' written English to enhance their proficiency. In view of the outcome of the study, it is important to consider common areas of Yoruba interference when developing a curriculum for teaching English. The results of the study indicated that virtually all the errors which occurred stemmed from the students' inadequate exposure to the target language. Thus, students' adequate exposure to English would help them to diminish the influence of Yoruba and improve their development of English writing skills. The students' L1 interference habits could be reduced or eliminated when their teacher consistently give them writing tasks in those areas where they often commit this kind of error. Ministries of Education should employ contrastive techniques in producing English textbooks and teaching materials for second language learners. They should also consider those interference aspects in the students' writings with a view to helping them minimize or avoid them. The government should employ English teaching professionals or specialists who possess effective teaching skills and adequate teaching experience to teach the students and purge them of interference errors. Besides having appropriate English teaching qualifications, teachers should also attend conferences and seminars on English teaching. The interference of Yoruba in the students' written English is inevitable, however, its influence can be reduced or completely eradicated if teachers employ the best teaching practices and a positive attitude in correcting the students' errors.

The results of the study have given insight into the factors responsible for the errors identified in the written English of some selected secondary school students in the southwest part of Nigeria. The contrastive study of both English and Yoruba played a key role in the investigative process. Also, the results of the analysis of the students' errors were instrumental in this study. It has been shown that the learner language is very important to teachers, in that it gives a comprehensive picture of students' proficiency levels and their exposure to the target language. I observed that learners' language and their errors helped teachers to identify those areas where the students had difficulties. As Ellis (2008: 41) pointed out, "the learner language constitutes the most important source of information about how learners can learn an L2." It has been shown that learners' errors which teachers previously considered unacceptable and laboriously sought to prevent have become very useful to them. The results of this study indicated that English still dominates the Nigeria linguistic space and as such, an average Nigerian must have an acceptable level of proficiency in the language. The study conformed to previous research which claimed that many errors committed by Yoruba learners of English resulted from intralingual transfer. However, the results of the study cannot be used as a point of reference to make a general statement about the major causes of Yoruba interference errors in students'

written English due to its limitations. Nevertheless, the results of the study have given insight into the linguistic characteristics of Yoruba learners of English which may contribute to the evolving research and documentation of the second language learners' profiles.

11. Recommendations

Based on the results of the study, the problems observed, and the conclusion, I made the following recommendations:

Teachers should be acquainted with SLA theories so they can react positively to their students whenever they commit an error. It is important to note that learners' errors are inevitable, as they are part of the second language learning process (see Section 5.1). Teachers often believe errors must be eradicated and, as a result, they become impatient with learners who commit them. However, if teachers are persuaded that learners' errors are part of the learning process, then they might be more willing to help their students find lasting solution to this problem. Even though formal teaching has its limitations regarding correcting learners' errors, teachers must be determined to teach or help their students with the required input they need to overcome this problem. Although teachers cannot determine the students' intake, good teaching skills and a supportive attitude would go a long way to help the students who are ready to participate to improve their written English.

I discovered from the results of the study that L2 learners' errors can originate from L1 interference and overgeneralization of the target language rules and structure. However, researchers are yet to agree on the true causes of second language learners' errors. Regardless of teachers' viewpoint, they must take cognizance of mother tongue interference and the circumstances in which learners may likely employ it in learning the target language. When teachers are conversant with the learners' problems, they can devise a means to easily resolve them. Teachers could improve their teaching skills if they assembled information about the types of errors their students usually commit. Additionally, they could focus on individual students and help them with the aspect of the target language they had a problem in.

Teachers must have good knowledge of error analysis theory because it would help them develop appropriate teaching materials to meet their students' needs. If teachers had adequate knowledge of what learners' errors stood for, they might be able to curb their students' flaws to enhance their writing skills. Also, teachers need a good understanding of learners' errors to improve their teaching methods. For instance, if they discovered that some of their students'

errors occurred due to the *transfer of training*, they could possibly employ a better method to teach their students (see Section 3.3). Consequently, teachers could use error analysis to evaluate their teaching skills. Learners' errors could provide valuable information about the learners, teaching materials, teaching methods, and the learning context. Therefore, learners' errors are important to teachers whose goal is to help their students improve the standard of their target language. It is interesting to know that we cannot easily differentiate between minor and major errors. In addition, it is impossible for teachers to correct all their students' errors without inhibiting them. Therefore, teachers must have samples of errors committed by their students to know when and how to correct them. Teachers could easily accomplish this task if they had adequate knowledge of error analysis theory.

It is important for teachers to understand that their students' attitudes play a significant role in the errors they make. Some students tend to prioritize fluency and, as a result, attach less importance to making errors. There are other students who are excessively conscious of what they write to avoid committing errors. In either case, teachers must be very careful in resolving this problem because it is often difficult to strike a balance between both situations. However, teachers must do their best to solve this problem. If a teacher becomes over-sympathetic toward his students regarding correcting their errors, the students might end up learning nothing. However, if a teacher applied strict measures in correcting students' errors, the students might be scared away from learning. Therefore, teachers should learn about their students' personality to determine their attitudes toward errors. Additionally, teachers should not employ a frightening teaching attitude in correcting their students' errors. They should help the students develop confidence in their writing, but inform them that languages have rules and, as a result, it cannot always be written correctly based on their instinct or L1 patterns. Teachers should educate their students on the required TL rules and avoid saying anything that would inhibit them.

Teachers should correct their students' errors in the right manner. They could point out where the learners committed errors in their writing and provide the appropriate measures for correcting them. However, learners may require a great deal of explanation for why there were errors in their written work. Teachers should always highlight learners' errors to attract their attention to them and see if they would be able to self-correct them. Teachers should make clear the signs which they use to indicate a particular error for easy recognition and interpretation. Teachers must make the teaching environment conducive for the learners to feel comfortable with the teachers' feedback. In addition, teachers should always ensure that they provide corrective feedback to their students in a friendly manner, as opposed to a scary one. Teachers

should avoid victimizing their students by openly highlighting the errors committed by individual students in front of other students. This might make the students cultivate a negative attitude toward learning. Any error correction teachers make should be focused on the entire class, but if an individual students commits the error, the teacher should not reveal that student's identity when correcting the error.

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13. Appendix

No.	Error Category	Examples
1.	Article	• It was a day I was going to the club to meet my member. • Some disagreement in my town between a two clans. • His father married the second wife last year. • Their is a one man and woman lives together. • I was given a orange color shirt. • The man name is James and he is a old man. • My father work at – shop and in his farm. • The people always tell me to be serious with my studies.
2.	Singular/Plural	• There are some womans whose names are Ruth and Rose. • Two visitor and one of the elderly man came to him. • When it is raining I play with the muds. • After some month the man come back to house. • They born two child, one is boy and one girl. • He have four childrens and one wife. • Many of the datas were missing. • He has cause us too much problem. • There are many student in the party. • The teacher gave us a lot of informations.
3.	Verb Tense	• I even thinked that I not moved forward. • He sayed no problem. • She jumped the fence and broken her leg. • He told the wife that he did not gave birth to a male child. • Our former coach know nothing. • God show me in my dream last year. • When you took a bus is cheaper. • I played football during break so I were very tired. • I – not afraid of exams. • We – very stubborn in my class.
4.	Subject-Verb Agreement	• She walk to school every day. • They sounds very arrogant. • The day that my father has an accident. • The two of them go to school and they have good work. • When he was on the way to the farm he see one snake. • From that moment if I killed snake. • They use to telling everybody not to go to farm. • He say I use to stay behind in the classroom. • Many students was absent from the class.

5.	Preposition	• I prayed for God to give the chance. • Now I am – SSS 3. • They took police – that sugar daddy house. • Mary hair rested in her back. • After studying of six good years. • The former principal died for heart attack. • We all arrived in Lagos for the wedding. • My father thank me of helping him in the farm. • We go to the market together in Saturday.
6.	Pronoun	• I buy food from those girls but I don't like they character. • I no really like they. • He went to visit her mother in the village. • She buy food for his boyfriend during lunch break. • The girl was very rude to his brother. • They do not really love theirselfs. • We all love weselves. • They didn't know this students caused it. • My nephew injure herself with a knife.
7.	Adjective	• My table tall pass his own. • Their house high pass all the houses. • The rock tall pass Olumo rock. • My younger brother tall pass me. • Our fence high pass their own. • Their food sweet pass this one. • Our school good pass their own. • Their king great pass our own.
8.	Cognate Object	• It is friend that injured me this injury like this. • I told him we should play the play together. • They danced the dance at the party. • She cried the cry like a baby. • We clap the clap for the best student. • They talked the talk throughout that day.
9.	Lexical Substitution	• The second wife called the spirit of her husband. • When the news came out to everybody. • The breeze was very sweet that evening. • Their tap was rushing when we got there. • The food was done after few hours. • Our neighbour's dog was shouting at us. • I heard that rice is now very cost.

10.	Spelling	• His brother is the course of the problem. • We travel to Saria last year. • The memba try there best to get this man. • He promise me that he we never live me. • I don't no what to do now. • The man turn to the order person. • The doctor can not sove the problem. • The time that I was in pramary school. • The man and the woman marry were very greatful.