

ERROR ANALYSIS, CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS AND
COHESIVE WRITING

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INTRODUCTION

1.1. GENERAL INFORMATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

The current emphasis on language in use is a perfectly natural reaction against the older approach to language teaching, which involved parsing, clause analysis, and the learning of a seemingly endless set of grammatical terms, thus presenting language as a "dead" phenomenon. It is possible to make grammatical analysis live, but only if at every point the following questions are asked:

- "What has been learnt from analysis of this sentence about language as a whole?
- How far are the principles of our analysis powerful forces that we use many times a day to create new sentences, solve ambiguities, persuade, joke, etc?
- What effect do the errors have on the interpretation of the statements made? (Norrish, 1983: Introduction).

Supplementing a formal analysis by an account of the use of linguistic structures immediately makes the exercise more promising. In practical terms, it is still a major pedagogic task if we have to work through a grammar book in class, getting terms and methods understood before knowing in advance how much of the grammar-learning is going to be relevant when we arrive at the language use. There is one way of avoiding the dangers of this situation, and that is by ensuring that those involved in introducing and assessing children's use of language should be given a firm grounding in the principles that affect the nature of these activities. At least if we are aware of the theoretical and methodological difficulties inherent in the situation, we can be more cautious and self-critical about our procedures, and anticipate some of these problems. It is also not possible to develop a systematic awareness of language functions without a corresponding awareness of the nature of language forms. The pendulum, which swung away from formal grammar many years ago and moved in the direction of functions, now needs to swing back somewhat to a position where the strengths of formal linguistic analysis are integrated within a functionalist perspective and not ignored.

The errors that learners of a second language make are a major element in the feedback system of the process called language teaching and learning. It is on this basis of information the teacher gets from errors that she/he varies her/his teaching procedures and materials, the pace of the progress, and the amount of practice which she/he plans at any moment. For this reason, it is very important that the teacher should be able not only to detect and describe errors linguistically but also understand the psychological reason for their occurrence and the effect on the continuity of the text.

1.2. THE PROBLEM DEFINED

According to Norrish (1983:1) there are basically two different attitudes to errors made by people learning languages other than their own (L₂). The first attitude is that probably most teachers regard errors as undesirable, a sign of failure either on the students' part to pay attention or to "listen properly" or else, on the teacher's part, to make his meaning clear or to give the students sufficient time to "practise" what they have been taught. The second attitude is about the Italian proverb that says *sbagliando s'impara* (we learn through our errors) and making errors can indeed be regarded as an essential part of learning.

- What is it that causes the Motswana child/student to make grammatical errors when communicating in English?
- Are the language categories he/she errs in different in English to that of Tswana or are they absent in Tswana?
- Are the errors common?
- How are the errors interpreted by the teacher/listener?
- How do these errors affect interpretation and communication between the teacher and the student, i.e. are the student's intentions conveyed correctly?

This topic is very broad, but, to be more specific, the following language categories will be discussed:

- (a) The English pronoun as opposed to the Tswana pronoun.

- (b) The English article and the absence of the article in Tswana.
- (c) Number in English as opposed to number in Tswana.
- (d) How the abovementioned items contribute to cohesive writing.

1.3. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

This study wants to outline some of the errors made by the Motswana child when she/he communicates in English. I also want to look at the origin of the errors and how the errors affect cohesive writing and interpretation.

This research also aims at making second language teachers aware of the influence a first language can have in the learning of a second language.

Note: At school level, the student/child learns the language and does not acquire it and thus language learning skills or strategies should not be confused with language acquisition skills or strategies.

Transfer has long been a controversial issue, but recent studies support the view that cross-linguistic influences can have an important impact on second language learning. To elaborate on the above issue, the article, the pronoun and number will be looked at. I want to establish how much influence a learner's native language can have in making the learning of a new language easy or difficult.

I want us to look at the following questions of which some will lead or develop into our hypotheses:-

- Will knowledge of the origin of errors eliminate or reduce the errors?
- Which errors will be eliminated and at what rate?
- Will the remedial lessons have an effect on the elimination or reduction of errors?
- Is the contrastive analysis method the best way to handle such a situation?
- To what extent do errors affect interpretation and connectivity?

The study is conducted on the following language categories:-

- (a) The pronoun (English vs Tswana)
- (b) The article (English vs Tswana)
- (c) Number (English vs Tswana)
- (d) Cohesive writing (misconception/ambiguity)

These questions will be further discussed with the results of the tests where all hypotheses will be discussed.

1.4. HYPOTHESES

1.4.1. Hypothesis 1 (H_1)

Interference from the learner's source language (L_1) appears to be a major cause of target-language (L_2) errors.

1.4.2. Hypothesis 2 (H_2)

"Coherence, in its broadest sense, is indispensable to the biopsychosocial functioning of man. The limitations in understanding the verbal texts of fellow humans are largely due to the limitations of constructing the same lines of coherence as they do" (Charolles, 1985:9).

1.4.3. Hypothesis 3 (H_3)

Learning a second language requires a variety of psychological and social conditions, including motivation, attention, the availability of linguistic models, and both the need and the opportunity to use the target language in real communicative situations.

1.5. PROGRAMME OF STUDY

In Chapter 2, error analysis and cohesive writing are defined. Major theories on these two concepts are discussed and the relationship between error analysis and contrastive analysis is highlighted.

In Chapter 3, a historical background of the subjects and their learning situation is discussed. A clearer background of the causes of errors is brought to the attention of the reader.

Chapter 4 deals with the type of errors made by the learners. The errors are then looked into and their origin is discussed.

Chapter 5 contains the design of the empirical research as well as the actual tests given to the students. The results are given and discussed.

Chapter 6 contains a summary, recommendation and possible areas for further research.



CHAPTER 2

ERROR ANALYSIS, CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS AND COHESIVE WRITING

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to explain and discuss the terms "error analysis" and "cohesive writing" and the relationship between error analysis and contrastive analysis. Chapters 2, 3 and 4 will form the theoretical basis to this study.

2.2. WHAT IS ERROR ANALYSIS?

According to Corder (1986: Introduction) the study of errors provides a validation of the findings of contrastive linguistic studies. He continues to say "Bilingual comparison is based on theory that is the differences between languages i.e. L₁ and L₂ which the learner has to learn" (Corder, 1986: Introduction).

"Contrastive studies are undertaken in order to discover and describe the differences. Error analysis confirms or disproves the prediction of the theory behind bilingual comparison" (Corder, 1986:3). In this sense, error analysis is an experimental technique for validating the theory of transfer (Corder, 1986:9).

Corder (1986) also states that error analysis aims at telling us something about the psycholinguistic processes of language learning, thus error analysis is part of the methodology of the psycholinguistic investigation of language learning.

Description of errors is a linguistic operation. Errors are described by the application of linguistic theory to the data of erroneous utterances produced by learners.

Corder (1986:14) classifies errors as follows:

- Errors of omission - some element which should be present is omitted

- Errors of addition - some element which should not be there is present
- Errors of selection - the wrong item has been chosen instead of the right one
- Errors of ordering - the elements presented are correct but are wrongly sequenced.

2.3. ERROR ANALYSIS AND CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Ellis (1982) states that from the post-war years and carrying on into the 1960;s there was a strong assumption that most of the difficulties facing L₂ learners were imposed by their L₁. It was assumed that where there were differences between L₁ and L₂, the learner's L₁ knowledge would interfere with the L₂ and where the L₁ and L₂ were similar, the L₁ would actively aid L₂ learning. This process was then called language transfer. In the case of similarities between L₁ and L₂ language transfer functioned positively while in the case of differences language transfer functioned negatively.

What effect does contrastive analysis have in second language teaching/learning?

Hammers and Rice (1965: Introduction) define contrastive analysis as

"...a systematic comparison of selected linguistic features of two or more languages, the intent of which is ... to provide teachers and textbook writers with a body of information which can be of service in the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses; and the development of classroom techniques."

The justification or reason for existence of contrastive analysis derives essentially from two central claims or assumptions, i.e.:-

- (a) that one of the main causes of difficulty and therefore of errors in second language learning is interference or negative transfer from the learner's mother tongue, so that where the structures of the second language are similar to those of the mother tongue, learning proceeds almost automatically, while differences lead to difficulties; and

- (b) Accordingly, that a sound comparison of the languages concerned will highlight differences and similarities and can therefore be used to predict and to provide explanations for errors that occur in the process of learning the second language (Hammer and Rice, 1965:8).

Let us now examine these two claims more closely. Together they constitute what may be called the contrastive analysis hypothesis.

2.3.1. Language transfer and interference

These terms derive ultimately from behaviourist learning theory. According to this theory, learning transfer is said to take place when past learning (or habits) influences present learning. Positive transfer or facilitation applies when this influence is an aid to the learner, but if it hinders him in his task it is said to be negative transfer or interference (Sanders, 1976:18).

Despite the connotations of behaviourism that attach to these terms, the strong empirical support for the concepts they denote has led to the adoption of such terms as mother-tongue transfer and source language interference without the mentalists transformational-generative paradigm, as in the following statements:

"The interference in performance in L_1 which can be associated with competence in L_1 can be counteracted by exercises which are specially designed to reduce the influence of competence of L_1 on performance of L_2 (Politzer, 1972:90),"

and

"Versteuring is die ongrammatikale gebruik van 'n taal T_1 deurdat aspekte van die grammatika van 'n ander taal T_2 of andertake $T_2 \dots T_n$ daarop oorgedra word as gevolg van onvolledige internalisasie van die grammatika van T_1 en/of ontoereikend ontwikkelde vaardighede in die gebruik van T_1 ," (Van Wyk, 1976:145).

The importance of the first claim of contrastive analysis hypothesis is, then, that the learner's internalised mother-tongue system or competence can facilitate and interfere with the acquisition of competence in his target language (L₂) depending on whether the relevant structures of the source and target language are similar or different. Where the latter applies errors in target language - language performance will result. These interference-based errors occur at all levels of structures, as exemplified in the following instances where the source language is Tswana, and the target language English:

Syntax : *Boys came early today (cf. *Basimane ba phaketse gompieno*) No article in Tswana.

Morphology : *Peter throw a stone at me (cf. *Peter o nkolope ka letlapa*) -s is associated with plural.

Lexis : *A car has more speed than a bicycle (cf. *Koloi e na le lobelo lo lo gaisang lwa peretshitswana*)

It should be noted that according to the first claim of the contrastive hypothesis, interference is advanced only as one of the main causes and not as the sole cause of error in second language learning.

Apart from language transfer, Selinker identifies four other basic processes as being responsible for the shaping of the learner's interlanguage: "transfer of training", "strategies of second language learning", "strategies of second language communication" and "overgeneralisation of target-language material" (Selinker, 1972:215).

(a) Transfer of training : This is the process that gives rise to what Corder terms "teaching-induced errors" (Corder, 1974:131), i.e. errors which can be positively identified as resulting directly from certain teaching techniques or materials.

* Ungrammatical sentences

In teaching English, for example, too much classroom or textbook emphasis on the pronoun could give rise to errors such as

*Tom and Percy they went to the cinema.

- (b) Strategies of second-language learning : Attempts by the learner to reduce the target language to a simpler system lead to errors which are explicable in terms of learning strategy : Inflected forms tend to be replaced by uninflected forms, marked forms by unmarked forms and forms carrying a light semantic load such as articles, some prepositions are disregarded.
- (c) Strategies of second language communication : As causes of error, strategies of second language communication are closely related to learning strategies, but the emphasis here is on the way in which the speaker, under pressure in an actual communication situation, uses what he has learnt to communicate his intentions. For example, the child who, not knowing the rules for nominalisation in English, gave as a definition for "fence": *to keep the cow ... don't go out of the field.

As in the case of learning strategies, simplification of target-language structures usually result.

- (d) Overgeneralisation : Examples of overgeneralisation of the subjects in their oral tests:
- *The John is a good boy (overgeneralisation of the article)
 - *To drive a bicycle is easy (overgeneralisation of the item (verb) "drive")
 - *There wasn't nothing in the purse (double negation, overgeneralisation of negative)
 - *John didn't stole the purse (overgeneralisation of the past tense formation rule).

Overgeneralisation is thus the over usage of a rule or an item which results in an erroneous structure.

As can be concluded from the above discussion, it would appear then that interference is indeed one of the main causes of error in second language learning and that the first claim of

the contrastive analysis hypothesis can therefore be regarded as valid. One implication that is said to follow from this hypothesis is that the greater the difference between source language (L_1) and target language (L_2), the greater the incidence of the resulting errors. This means that it would be easier for a Tswana child to learn other Sotho languages than it would be for a German child. Although no scientific method of measuring relative differences between languages has been developed, experience would appear to bear out this hypothesis.

2.3.2. The role of contrastive analysis

The second claim of the contrastive analysis hypothesis relates more specifically to the role of this discipline in second language teaching. It is assumed that a sound analysis of the languages concerned can serve as a basis both for predicting and explaining errors.

My main concern here is with two questions, i.e. "What is the role of contrastive analysis?" and "What is the effect of errors in cohesive writing?"

Types of language comparison



There are essentially three different methods which the language teacher/learner can employ when comparing languages:

- (a) The categories used in the description of L_1 may be applied to the description of L_2 without further ado;
- (b) Each language may be described in its own terms; or
- (c) Both languages may be described with reference to a set of "universal categories".

The first approach is exemplified typically by older Latin-based teaching grammars of most European languages. In such a comparison of languages, also known as "transfer comparison", the "picture of one of them [the languages] is deliberately distorted by its being viewed through the matrix set up to account for the other" (Halliday *et al*, 1964:120). Such an approach lacks scientific objectivity and can be useful to very few language learners.

The second approach is typical of the structuralist school and is what Fries had in mind when he declared that "the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner" (Fries, 1945:9).

In the third approach the question of "common ground" or semantic equivalence is of central importance. The representative theory here is transformational-generative grammar and the *tertium comparationis* is a level of deep structure where potentially universal semantic categories are given. Contrastive analysis can then be seen as "the process of showing how each language interprets universally shared features as unique surface forms" (Di Pietro, 1963:68). Such a process is undoubtedly of some pedagogical relevance too because, as was mentioned above, the learner is confronted with the problem of expressing a certain meaning by means of a set of target language forms or surface structures.

To summarise, teachers were encouraged (e.g. by Brooks (1960) and Lado (1964)) to focus their teaching on the areas of difficulty created by negative transfer. In order to identify the areas of difficulty a procedure called contrastive analysis was developed. This was founded on the belief that it was possible, by establishing the linguistic differences between the learner's L_1 and L_2 to predict what problems the learner of a particular L_2 would face. To this end, description of the two languages was obtained and an interlingual comparison carried out. This resulted in a list of features of the L_2 which, being different from those of the L_1 , were presumed to constitute the problem areas and which were given focal attention in the teaching syllabus.

"A contrastive analysis presents a potential for the prediction of errors" (Sanders, 1976:72).

Contrastive analysis can thus be seen as complementing error analysis. This means that where error analysis is not available, contrastive analysis has a predictive role to play. If error analysis is undertaken later, it can be used to assess the validity of the predictions derived from the contrastive analysis for a particular situation.

Let us now have a look at what effect the errors have on interpretation and cohesive writing.

2.4. WHAT IS COHESIVE WRITING?

Before I explain what cohesive writing is, I want us to focus our attention on these questions:

Does cohesion have a role to play in interpreting a text?

If so, to whom and to what extent?

Van de Velde (1989:91) states the following six main points with respect to cohesion:

- Cohesive writing is a matter of language expression.
- Cohesion is an all or none matter in the sense that it must be totally manifested in the surface form of the grammatical information parts.
- To the grammarian, cohesive writing is a matter of grammar, whereas to the student of style, cohesive writing may become part of the higher/lower qualifications of poetic language.
- The study of cohesion is not primarily concerned with the notion of acceptability but with the notion of grammaticality.
- A distinction must be drawn between cohesive writing on the one hand and recognition of cohesive writing on the other. The recognition of cohesive writing may be dependent on/tributary to the receiver's identification of the language content and its coherence.
- Cohesive writing cannot be recognised without relying on syntactic interference.

There are different factors influencing cohesive writing, e.g. communicative maxims, pragmatic information, grammar rules, socio-cultural information, etc. Inference plays a very important role in the interpretation of a text.

"Inferences serve the function of identifying the parts of co(n)textual information and of connecting them (van de Velde, 1989:184).

Van de Velde (1989) further states that inferences are the main subject of logic. This is one of the qualities a target language teacher must have to enable her to interpret the errors the

language learners make, because some knowledge resources are used in inferencing, some knowledge resources result from inferencing and are further needed in the progressive development of the text (essay) and its reception, some knowledge resources must be included during the inferential text processing, and so on.

Van de Velde (1989) says it is a basic assumption of most theories of grammar that the knowledge and use of grammar proper enables the receiver to handle the grammatical information parts of verbal utterances. This is a classical structuralist conception. It ignores the multi-facets of human thinking involved in the receiver/reader's use of the knowledge of grammar. In actual fact, human thinking is actualised in syntactic inferencing.

Syntactic inferences also work beyond the level of sentence grammar. In such cases, they serve to discern how grammatical information parts are iterated and how their markers contribute to the combination of separate utterances, e.g. the use of a name (Tom) and in a later sentence, the pronoun (he) (Van de Velde, 1989:76).

Heger (1986:32) states that if all the pertinent rules of grammar of an utterance have correctly been applied in a sequence/set of utterances, then the text can be considered as a cohesive whole. He further says coherence may depend on so many cognitive, affective, conative and other inner qualities of the receiver that its construction is almost always a matter of degree.

"The construction of coherence and the identification/recognition of other kinds of organisation is largely due to the interactive and integrative functioning of thinking processes. I call these thinking processes inferential, reasoning processes and inferencing" (Margolis, 1984:24).

Margolis (1984:27) further states that texts do not function on their own in the process of communications. They may coordinate with extra-verbal information or relate in other ways to what is outside the verbal texts. Or it may be the case that extra-verbal information parts have to be invoked by the receiver to handle the contextual information. He speaks of "contextual information".

Van de Velde (1984:89) identifies three levels of coherence, i.e.

- (1) Firstly, coherence must be an intrinsic part of the inner world of the conscious self (inner coherence)
- (2) Secondly, coherence must be an immanent ingredient of the intricate relations between the conscious self and the outer world (interactive coherence).
- (3) Thirdly, coherence must be an identifiable/recognisable/constructible set of properties of the outer world. That is, man must be able to identify/recognise/ construct the coherence of the outer world including realised verbal texts (outer coherence).

We can therefore conclude that the reality of verbal text is, to a large extent, what different individual receivers experience differently. That is, the perceived outer coherence of a text will partly differ from receiver to receiver. Cohesion is the relation between sentences in a text, but inferences are indispensable to the construction of coherence.

We distinguish between linear cohesion (the sequence of words) i.e. syntactic coherence and referential cohesion (the relationship between words), i.e. semantic cohesion.

2.4.1. On syntactic inferences and cohesion

Let me now illustrate that syntactic inferences also work beyond the level of sentence grammar. In such cases, they serve to discern how grammatical information parts are iterated and how their markers contribute to the concatenation on separate utterances. Let us look at the following example. (The different pronominal links which are repeated and have been put between diagonal strokes agree in number and gender with the respective syntactic constituents which they substitute) (Margolis, 1984:37).

/She/ looked at /his/ mobile intellectual face, realising that /it/ was closed against /her/ and wondering why. Just then /it/ rang. /It/ was the telephone call /she/ expected from /her/ mother...

Apart from serving the discernment of how the pronominal constituents link the separate utterances of the above passage, syntactic inferences are there to disclose that the tense forms of the passage was, looked, rang and waited are responsible for the temporal order of the action sequences. The syntactic inferences also contribute to the identification of the referential links between different syntactic constituents, for instance, it rang - the telephone (Norrish, 1983:11).

The above discussion implies that without the functioning of syntactic interference all these (and other) grammatical characteristics of the above passage would go unnoticed and it would be impossible to recognise it as a syntactically organised whole (Norrish, 1983:11).

2.4.2. On semantic inferences and coherence

The selection of words plays an extremely important role in the interpretation of an utterance, because words are carriers of meaning. "These carriers of meaning are commonly called content words and function words" (Hardy, 1965:96). The content words have common denotative and connotative meaning whereas the function words (e.g. conjunctions, prepositions) serve to express the relations between the content words.

The meaning of any word is not static, that is, the meaning of a word depends on its use. Although synonyms do not exactly mean the same, we are often tempted to use an inappropriate word, e.g. The food is nice instead of the food is tasty.

When the word "nice" is contextualised, the listener/reader understands that "nice" means "tasty". It is inappropriate to use the noun "food" with the adjective "nice".

Fromkin and Rodman (1978:178) note that we "comprehend sentences because we know the meaning of individual words and we know (unconsciously) the rules for combining their meaning".

Fromkin and Rodman (1978:179) further note that "Our knowledge of semantic properties of words and their selection restrictions enables us to assign a meaning to any syntactically and semantically well-formed sentence of a language". It is assumed that we can assign meaning to a sentence even if no indication whatsoever is given to us about the situation in which the sentence is used. Such context-free sentences are the kind of sentences that we often use as examples in class.

To summarise, I want to outline three theories about coherence.

- (1) Firstly, some of the latest works on text theories present coherence not as a typically linguistic problem, nor as a typically textural problem, but as a general principle in the interpretation of all human activities, and therefore automatically applying to the interpretation of texts:

Whenever discourse presents itself materially as forming an entity, the receiver automatically supposes it to be coherent (Charolles, 1985:77).

- (2) Secondly, text coherence is regarded as a property not inherent in texts, but assigned to them by the interpreter. Petöfi (1983) who considers coherence analogously to textuality, states:

"I do not consider textuality (coherence) as an inherent property of a verbal object, I believe rather that it is a property assigned (or not assigned) to a verbal object, in whatever form, in a special context by an interpreter" (Petöfi, 1983:266).

- (3) Thirdly, coherence is seen as a function of the background knowledge of the interpreter:

The interpreter must use all his knowledge/beliefs/assumptions, which she/he thinks can be related to the text to be interpreted, in order to be able to interpret it (Hatakeyama *et al*, 1984:19).

Fig. 1	TEXT (A)	INTERPRETER	WORLD (B)
	text-world fragments	mental models of knowledge	correlates in the extralinguistic world

(See Hatakeyama *et al*, 1984:28). Figure 1. (where A — B means B assigned to A).

This background knowledge the cognitive universe of the interpreter, his "mental models", which are essential in the interpretation process, as they mediate between the text-world fragments on the one side and the real-world fragments on the other. By his mental models, the reader relates the text-world fragments to the extralinguistic. Correlates as shown in Figure 1. (Hatakeyama *et al*, 1984:29).

The interpreter can only assign a real world fragment to a text if he considers the relations expressed in the text as relevant to him:

"A text ... can be regarded as ... interpretable by a given interpreter if he can assign a world fragment to it for which the states-of-affairs are held together by relations considered by him as being relevant..." (Hatakeyama *et al*, 1984:23).

The relations and their relevant depend, in their turn, on how the cognitive universe of the interpreter is structured, on his cognitive framework. The establishing of coherence, which is a condition for a successful interpretation, may be regarded as an adaptation of new knowledge (i.e. new relations) to establish knowledge, as an act of relating new ideas to old.

According to these assumptions about coherence as a general, non-linguistic principle dependent on the structures and frames of the interpreter's background knowledge. Coherence in texts must be analysed in relation to the specific kind of knowledge involved and transmitted in this particular type of communication.

2.5. CONCLUSION

Let me conclude the notion of coherence by pointing out some of the specified characterising potential/actual properties:

- (1) Coherence may be a set of properties which can be ascribed by the receiver to the global text.
 - (2) Coherence may concern parts of the text.
 - (3) Coherence may be dependent on all the invoked contextual information parts.
 - (4) Coherence may be taken as the result of the receiver's cognitive process (including inferencing).
 - (5) Coherence may be a matter of sensitivity/experience/empathy within areas of affective life.
 - (6) Coherence may pertain to actions which are not described by the text, but which must be hypothetically reconstructed for the aims of justified interpretation.
 - (7) Coherence may arise from identifying the subtle connotations evoked by the text.
 - (8) Coherence may depend on inferential complementation of the text.
- (Van de Velde, 1986:75).

"Cohesion refers to the connectivity of the text. Cohesion draws attention to the important role in the connectivity of surface markers of linkage, such as conjunctions and pro-forms, and of devices such as substitution and ellipsis" (Halliday, 1976:18).

Coherence refers to logical and consistent speech or thought.

The example below illustrates the difference between coherence and cohesion.

Paragraph A:

Many children like sweets. Sweets are very expensive nowadays. The value of the rand has dropped drastically. We cannot afford sweets any longer.

Paragraph B:

Many children like sweets. Their parents like to give them sweets to keep them quiet when they leave them. They get angry when they are not given sweets when their parents leave or arrive at home from work.

Paragraph A is an example of text which is cohesive in terms of grammatical cohesion, but lacks coherence. Children like sweets - the value of the rand was dropped drastically. What is the link in context?

Paragraph B is an example of text which is cohesive and coherent. The paragraph talks of sweets throughout.

"Certain words do regular service as general discourse organisers. They organise other words of the text, acting as lexical signals of where the text is going and where it has come from" (Halliday, 1976:23).



CHAPTER 3

PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The target language learner has at his disposal much less of the language than his native speaker counterpart, so the planning activities will be concerned with fewer alternatives. On the other hand, there is a very important extra level of planning to be undertaken - that of consciously recalling language items and patterns in which they occur. Often in class the students perform this latter type of planning; the content of his utterance is controlled because he is required to perform certain actions on data presented to him in the form of exercises, blanks to be filled, or puzzles to be solved.

It is relatively easy for teachers to deceive themselves into thinking that students have achieved fluency in the target language when they can do the exercises in their books quickly and well. It is self-evident that language learning takes place over a period of time and at any one time in this period the learner will produce some forms correctly, some incorrectly and other inconsistently. But how can noting a student's errors tell us about what he knows of the target language as opposed to what he actually does?

Generally, teachers consider a learner's output in terms of deviation from the native speaker's output. To put it in another way, the learner is judged by the errors he produces, not the correct forms. An alternative to this would be to regard the learner's output as indicating a "staging post", a sign of where he is on the journey from complete ignorance of the target language to a competent command of it. This stage of development is more reliably gauged by looking at what the learner knows, or gets right, as well as what he does not know. One advantage of performance analysis is that I am looking not only at deviations but also at current forms to determine the learner's progress. I can also gain a clearer overall picture of what the student knows, his transitional competence, and not simply what errors are being made. As any learner knows, it is much more satisfactory to have recognition for getting

answers right than only to have one's mistakes/errors commented upon. Performance analysis will help in allowing more individual treatment to be given to students and will also help the teacher to plan remedial work.

3.2. SOME ESSAYS WRITTEN BY THE STUDENTS

My arguments and discussion will be based on the two essays which were chose at random. (These two essays were amongst the first 40 during our first lesson/meeting). I instructed all 40 students to write an English essay of about 20 lines on topics of their choice. They were given an hour in which to write the essay. (See Appendix 3).



CHAPTER 4

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to determine whether the extra efforts taken to correct errors are worthwhile and can be said to minimise errors.

In this chapter we will further discuss the tests and the post tests which were given to the students. The aims of the tests are twofold, i.e.

- (i) To identify the errors of the students.
- (ii) To determine whether the technique used to eliminate/minimise the error(s) is functioning.

Finally the results of the first results and the final results are compared to see if there had been any improvement.

4.2. METHOD OF RESEARCH



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4.2.1. Type of research

This mini-dissertation is primary research. The research is derived from the primary source i.e. the pupils learning a language. A case study is used. The method is longitudinal which means that I have followed various individuals' progress over a period of eight months investigating errors made by Tswana pupils while they communicate in English. It is also a statistical study because it has a survey and experiment. The research is tangible in that it is based on the collection and manipulation of data from the real world. The data is taken from oral and written exercises to investigate the errors made and to attempt to determine the causes of the errors.

4.2.2. The study population

The study population consisted of forty (40) Standard Six Tswana students (boys and girls) who were selected at random. The group was then divided into two groups of twenty. The first group (which will be labelled Group A) was the experimental group because they were to receive extra lessons and the remedial programme was conducted on them only. The second group (which will be labelled Group B), was the control group. They attended fewer lessons and no remedial programme at all. The ages of the pupils ranged from 13 to 15 years. English was the second language of all the pupils and they were all in their seventh year of learning English at school. The school which the pupils attend conducts all lessons in English except for Tswana as a subject, their mother tongue. No homework was given to either group because I wanted to make sure that the work done was the pupil's own work and completed by the pupil without any outside assistance. N.B. For result interpretation purposes only ten pupils' errors from each group will be analysed. These were also selected at random and were permanently classified in numerical order.

4.2.3. Instrumentation



Students were tested both orally and in a written form. The oral test was composed of a discussion where each child had to tell me something about his/her family (See appendix 1c). The second exercise was that of filling in missing words or phrases from a passage they listened to (See appendix 1a). The oral exercise was aimed at bringing the students nearer to me and also to help me detect or identify some of the errors. I wanted the students to talk about their families (a free oral production) because I believe that what they had to say was more communicative than an exercise on a directed (fill in) slot, and because I administered both free and directed topics. I believe they had a fair chance of showing their level of proficiency.

Written exercises were also given. Children were also asked to write essays on topics of their choice (20 lines). This would serve as a starting point of raising grammatical consciousness

of the learners because much of the language content would derive from the work of the learners themselves.

Students were also instructed to identify correct sentences from wrong ones. This type of exercise enables the teacher to notice the students' ability to judge grammatically correct statements. The statements were taken from the students' essays (both written and oral).

White (1989:58) states "One way of establishing whether L₂ learners' competence includes knowledge that certain forms are impossible is by the use of grammaticality judgement tasks, where learners are asked to judge the correctness or otherwise of various sentences".

Two remedial lessons were also conducted whereby in the remedial lesson pronouns, the article and number is learned by means of a game for reinforcement purposes. Verbs are also given so that student construct grammatically correct sentences. In remedial lesson No. 2, rules are taught to the children and the lesson also concentrates on pronouns, the article and number.

The point of departure of the remedial lesson is a Cloze test of 20 items to be filled in.

The following categories were included in the tests"

- (1) Articles
- (2) Pronouns (more personal pronouns)
- (3) Number
- (4) Linking words (cohesion).

The complete tests are included as Appendices 1 and 2 a - c.

4.2.4. Procedure

The oral test was done at the beginning of the pupils' Standard Six year. The written test was done a week later. The pupils were put in a class at random where each of them sat at his own desk.

The second month, after errors were identified, teaching/lessons began. A lesson on pronouns was taught to the whole class, then a test was given and later a remedial lesson was given to the experimental group. The same was done with the article and number. All tests given after lessons started are called posttests (for all the pupils).

N.B. Tests were conducted weekly. The second oral test was also done a week later on given topics, the first having been on a topic of their choice. The second written test was given a week later. This is a month's work without any teaching. The pupils were also given a passage to fill in missing words and sentences to correct. They first had to say whether the sentences were correct or not and correct those which were not correct (See Appendix 1).

The post test also comprised of the types of questions posed in the test. In addition, they had to answer questions on their prescribed literature textbook. During the eight months prior to the post test, all pupils had received English lessons - the control group in class only and the experimental group in class (with the rest of the group) as well as additional lessons as stated under the study population heading.

After every lesson questions were given to highlight/emphasise the rules or differences per aspect. All the tests were an hour long and were handled informally, i.e. the pupils were allowed to sit anywhere they pleased. They were not told about the test beforehand.

4.2.5. Scoring

Errors were classified and categorised and the pupils' errors were counted according to the classification and category e.g. Omission - pronoun, addition - article, etc. Errors in the written tests were counted per hundred words, but they were also classified as in the oral tests. In the case of correction of sentences, if a student indicated that an incorrect sentence was

correct, it was marked as an error. The same was done when correct sentences were indicated as being incorrect. In the case where they had to give (fill in) a correct word and the word was wrong, it was also marked as an error. Percentages were then calculated. In the post test, all correct sentences were ignored in the scoring.

4.3. EXPLANATION OF TEST AND POST TEST ITEMS AND RESULTS

In this section the items and the results are presented. The grammatical rule in each case is first given which is then followed by the prediction of a possible error. This prediction is formulated in the form of an hypothesis. The results of both the test and post test for each item are given to establish whether the hypothesis was supported or refuted in the test and post test. The results of the post test of Group A will be compared with that of Group B to establish whether the remedial lessons contributed to the elimination of errors or not. Finally a comparison between the same structures given in the test and the post test is presented.

4.3.1. Pronouns

"A pronoun is one of a class of words that serves to replace a noun or noun phrase that has already been or is about to be mentioned in the sentence or context" (Collins, 1988).

The Tswana pronoun is divided into two types, the absolute pronoun (which is a primary pronoun referring to the class of persons in both singular and plural) and secondary pronouns derived from noun classes of which there are 17 (i.e. singular and plural). Gender does not play a role in the Tswana absolute pronoun. The English pronoun has a number of functions such as nominating, substituting, referring, etc. Gender also plays a role of distinction in the absolute pronoun.

Now let us look at the lesson on pronouns.

4.3.2. Lesson on Pronouns

The lesson consisted of three sessions (periods) of 30 minutes each. Teaching and learning aids such as the chalkboard, concrete objects such as people were used to make the situation concrete. The pupils were also invited to participate in the lesson by giving examples and opinions.

Pronouns

A pronoun is a word used to take the place of a noun or noun word group.

Look at these sentences:

Kele waved to Mphoko

She waved to him

The black cat ate the cheese

It ate the cheese

It ate it

In the first two sentences above, the pronouns she and him stand for the proper nouns Kele and Mphoko. In the second set of sentences, the pronoun it stands for the entire word group, the black cat and/or the cheese.

Here is a list of common pronouns next to some of the nouns they can stand for:

Nouns	Pronouns	
	Subject	Object
car, bus, school, toy	it	it
cars, schools, donkeys	they	them
Nancy, Aunt, Mother, sister (female)	she	her
Benny, John, Father, Uncle (male)	he	him
The person speaking	I	me
The person spoken to (singular and plural)	you	you
The speaker is included	we	us

The above pronouns are called person pronouns.

The second type of pronouns are possessive pronouns. Possessive pronouns are used to replace possessive adjectives and nouns.

Everything that a man or boy (male) possesses is his thing.

Everything that a woman or girl (female) possesses is her thing.

For example, Tom took his book and Mary took her pen.

Everything that an animal or object possesses is its thing.

A dog wags its tail when it is excited.

We then move to reflexive pronouns. Reflexive pronouns are identified with the suffixes -self (singular) and -selves (plural), e.g. myself, yourself, yourselves, themselves.

I cut myself.

Look after yourself.

You must write it yourselves.

The next type of pronouns are relative pronouns. The relative pronoun is divided into three types viz: defining, non-defining and connective relative pronouns.

(a) Defining relative pronouns

These pronouns vary slightly according to whether they refer to persons or things and according to whether they are subjects or objects, singular or plural or masculine or feminine.

The forms are as follows:

	Subject	Object	Possessive
For persons	who that	who / whom that	whose
For things	which that	which that	whose/which

4.3.3. Remedial lesson on the pronoun

Let us look at the following sentences:

- (1) **Jane is the girl whom I believe baked the cake.*
 (2) *Jane is the girl who I believe baked the cake.*

There is a general problem when the Tswana pupil uses the pronouns who and whom in the nominative case and objective case respectively because in Tswana such cases do not exist.

- (3) **Me and my mother went to town.*
 (4) *My mother and I went to town.*

Sentence 3 is a first language interference (*Nna le mme re ne re ile toropong*)

In English, a pronoun in the nominative case (the same case as mother) must be used to form part of the subject of the sentence.

- (5) **The shopkeeper thanked my mother and I.*
 (6) *The shopkeeper thanked my mother and me.*

The transitive verb thanked requires a pronoun in the objective case (the same case as mother).

- (7) **You had to share the money between you and I.*
 (8) *You had to share the money between you and me.*

Prepositions are followed by personal pronouns in the objective case. You and me are both in the objective case after the preposition between.

The reflexive pronoun is also erroneously used by the Tswana pupil because in Tswana this aspect does not exist.

- (9) **The teacher and myself were happy.*
 (10) *The teacher and I were happy.*
 (11) **The boys bought themselves a ball.*
 (12) *The boys bought themselves a ball.*

A reflexive pronoun cannot be used as the subject of a verb as in sentence 9.

Pronouns are also omitted e.g.

- (13) **My shirt was not as clean as my brother's.*
- (14) *My shirt was not as clean as that of my brother.*

The relative pronouns who, whom, which and whose can be used either in defining or in non-defining clauses. That as a relative pronoun can be used only in defining clauses.

- (15) Where is the man that married last week?
- (16) The money that you stole was your mother's.

The types of errors committed (The pronoun)

— Omission: This type of error is grossly committed especially when the equivalent type of pronoun is absent in Tswana. The interference theory also predicts that if a learner is called upon to produce some second language forms which he has not learnt, he will tend to produce an erroneous form having its origin in his first language. Sentence 13 is an example of a demonstrative pronoun.

— Substitution: This error is mainly caused by first language interference. In Tswana there is only one pronoun for the first person singular. If the pupil does not know or is not certain when to use I or me he uses any one he thinks is correct and that was the answer given by most of them when asked

"Why did you use I instead of me or vice versa?"

Sentences 3, 5 and 7 are examples of substitution. (See appendices for examples)

— Word order: First language interference is also a contributory factor in this case. Sentence 3 is a typical example of that. In Tswana you always start with the speaker i.e. I (nna) then the rest. However, that is not the case in English. This is also a common error made by Afrikaners (ek) when speaking English.

Hypothesis 1

The Motswana student often

- (a) uses a pronoun and a noun in succession in one sentence;
- (b) uses the same pronoun for both males and females; and
- (c) uses an inappropriate pronoun.

In essays I and II of the students (see appendix 3), the following errors on pronouns were made:

- The students they say she teach ... them
- My parents they like to give me some paints
- The people they say they like my pictures

The above utterances are examples of the use of a pronoun and a noun used in succession in one sentence.

Let us look are more examples:

Test Item 1

- My sister she is very beautiful (incorrect)

Some errors from the stories they told:

- My brother and sister they want to ... die.
- The old lady she give me money ... shop.

In the test item 1 52% had this item wrong. This means 52% indicated the answer to be "correct". This result is evidently in favour of hypothesis 1(a)

The influence of such an erroneous utterance may be the pupils' mother tongue. In Tswana a noun can be used with a pronoun to show emphasis, e.g.

- *Mme le rre bona ba ile kerekeng*
(Mother and father they went to church).

Hypothesis 1b

Essay I and II

- *Mrs Hugh - He was asked to stay home until ... solved.
- *Another girl say his uncle passed ... Durban city.

Test Item 10

- The boy does not want to wash his shirt (correct)

90% of the students had this item correct. This result disproves hypothesis 1b.

Test Item 11

- Lydia showed me his new dress (incorrect)

56% of the students had this item incorrect by indicating that it was correct. This result supports hypothesis 1b.

Fill in question

70% of the students got item 1 wrong. The correct answer is she (because of the word "girl") but some had it and others he. This result supports hypothesis 1b.

Stories

- ... baby boy. She cry the whole night ... give her milk.

Interlanguage transfer might also play an influential role in this item. In Tswana pronouns are not determined by gender. Only one pronoun is used for both male and female.

Hypothesis 1c

Essay I and II

- ... they choose anyone who they want to lead them (incorrect)
- ... beautiful pictures. I sell it when I am finished.
- You see this pictures, they are made by this hands.
- I and my teacher make a plan for me.

Test Item 9

John and I are going to see him tomorrow (correct).

60% of the students had this item wrong. They indicated that it is "incorrect". This result supports hypothesis 1c.

Test Item 19

He loved a company he had with him (incorrect).

This statement has more than one error. Some pupils identified the error of the article and not of the pronoun. Although 90% had it correct (incorrect as an answer), the reason was not clear, thus it is not clear whether it supported hypothesis 1c or not.

Note: Hypothesis 1a is also classified under hypothesis 1c.

Let us now look at the results of the post test

By now the group is divided into two groups of 20. Remember the results of 10 members per group will be tabulated and discussed. The erroneous utterances from their oral test were used for the post test. Pupils were to indicate whether the sentences are correct (c) or wrong (w) and they had to correct the wrong utterances.

Note: The experimental group have been given extra lessons (remedial lessons). We now want to determine the effect of the remedial lessons.

Post test item (iv)

My mother have a baby boy. She cry the whole night. 80% had it correct, 20% incorrect. The results refute hypothesis 1b.

PRONOUNS

ITEM	Support hypothesis (%)	Experimental group (%)	Control group (%)	Refutes hypothesis (%)	Experimental group (%)	Control group (%)
Test 1	52	34	18	48	16	32
Test 10	10	02	08	90	48	42
Test 11	56	46	10	44	04	40
Test 9	60	48	12	40	02	38
Test 19	90	50	40	10	00	10
Post test (iv)	10	00	10	90	50	40



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4.3.4. The Article

In Tswana there are no articles. The article in English is part of the noun phrase. This means that no article is used with a verb. There are three articles in English, i.e. "a" and "an" (indefinite articles) and "the" (definite article). Tswana speakers often tend to use articles indiscriminately (see lesson on articles).

4.3.5. Lesson on Articles

The lesson consisted of three periods of thirty minutes each. Concrete objects were used to differentiate between nouns that would use a definite article and nouns that would use an indefinite article.

In English there are two types of articles i.e. definite articles and indefinite articles. In Tswana there are no articles. This results in the Tswana students over-using the articles, using them incorrectly and omitting articles where they are needed.

The indefinite article is "a" or "an".



The form "a" is used before word beginning with a consonant or a vowel sounded like a consonant:

a boy, a table, a University, a useful thing.

The form "an" is used before words beginning with a vowel (a, e, i, o, u) or words beginning with a mute "h":

an hour, an honourable man, an elephant, an apple.

It is the same for all genders:

a man, a woman, a girl, an actor/actress.

The indefinite article "a" or "an" is used:

- (a) Before a singular noun which is countable (i.e. of which there is more than one) when it is mentioned for the first time and represents no particular person or thing, e.g.
There is a policeman at the door.
I want to be a teacher.
- (b) Before a singular countable noun which is used as an example of a class of things, e.g.
A child needs love = Any child/All children need love.
A student must read = All students must read.
- (c) With a noun complement. This includes names of professions.
He is a doctor.
She is a teacher.
He is an actor.
- (d) In certain numerical expressions.
She bought a dozen eggs.
It costs a million rand.
- (e) In expression of price, speed, ration, etc.
I bought it for three rand a metre.
You must drink it four times a day.
- (f) With "few" and "little":
Can I see you for a few seconds?
He waited a little longer.
- (g) In exclamation before singular, countable nouns:
What a pretty girl!
It was such a pity!
- (h) "A" can be placed before Mr/Mrs/Miss and surnames:

A Mr Bodigelo sent me money.

Note: A Mr Bodigelo "a man called Bodigelo" and implies that he is a stranger to the speaker.

The definite article is the. It is the same for singular and plural and for all genders: the boy/boys, the girl/girls, the actress.

The definite article is used:

- (a) Before nouns of which there is only one, or which are considered as one:
the earth, the Northern Province, the sky.
- (b) Before a noun which has become definite as a result of being mentioned a second time:
John saw a ring and bought the ring for his mother.
- (c) Before a noun made definite by the addition of a phrase or clause:
I want to see the girl in blue.
My father is the man on the donkey.
- (d) Before a noun which, by reason of locality, can represent only one particular thing:
Thabo is in the garden (the garden of this house).
Please pass the sugar (the sugar on the table).
- (e) Before superlatives and first, second, etc and only used as adjectives or pronouns:
Most people think that Monday is the worst day of the week.
Thabo is the eldest son of the Dube's.
- (f) Other instances where the is used:
— the + singular noun can represent a class of animals/things
The Lion is king of the jungle

The deep-freeze has made life easier for housewives

- the can, however, be used before a member of a certain group of people:

The new teacher is from Johannesburg.

- the + adjective represents a class of persons.

The old are impatient, they don't want to listen to stories.

The strong can lift it up.

- the is used before certain proper names of geographical features and names of places:

the Netherlands

the Alps

the Antarctic

the USA

- the is also used before names consisting of noun + of + noun:

the Cape of Good Hope

the Gulf of Mexico

the Union of South Africa

- the is used before names consisting of adjective + noun

the Gold Coast

the High Street

the New Forest

- the is used before musical instruments:

She learns to play the flute

Kele plays the drums.

4.3.6. Remedial lesson on the Article

Let us look at the following sentences and discuss them:

- (1) *The Thabo is very scared
- (2) Thabo is very scared
- (3) *A water is very healthy

(4) Water is very healthy

Rule 1: Articles are not used with proper names (like in Sentence 1) and uncountable nouns (like in Sentence 3).

(5) *A boys are playing football.

(6) Boys are playing football.

(7) The boys are playing football.

Rule 2: A and an are not used with nouns in the plural (like in sentence 5).

Types of errors committed

(a) Omission: The pupils are normally not certain when to use an articles and which article to use, e.g.

(8) *Jane, Principal calls you to his office.

(9) Jane, the Principal calls you to his office.

Omission is mostly caused by the language transfer, in this case Tswana does not have the article in its grammar.

(b) Substitution: The wrongful use of the article. Sentence 5 in relation to sentence 7 is an example of substitution.

(c) Addition: An unnecessary and unwanted affixation of articles is very common. Sentences 1 and 3 are examples of addition.

Hypothesis 2

Tswana students often

(1) use a definite article where they should use an indefinite one;

(2) use an indefinite article where they should use a definite one;

- (3) insert an article where they should not;
- (4) omit an article where there should be one.

Let us look at the exercises given:

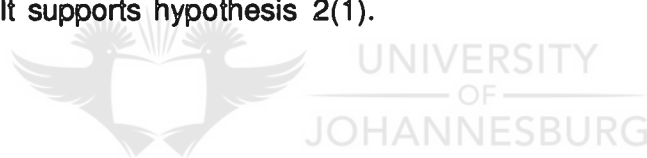
Essays I and II

- A SRC member, meant problems to me.
- I never ... because the day with such incidents will be ... kids.
- The teacher ... to discuss a future of my art.
- I and my teacher make a plan for me to be a artist
- I know a artist die but his work don't die.

Test item 2

I want to be a artist when I finish school (incorrect).

64% had this item wrong. (They regarded the item as correct). 36% regarded this item as incorrect. This result supports hypothesis 2(1).



Test item 3

The Durban City is very big and busy (incorrect).

60% had this item wrong (They regarded it as correct). 40% regarded this item as incorrect. The result supports hypothesis 2(3).

Test item 12

Did you see a boy who visited us last Wednesday? (incorrect)

32% had this item correct. (They regarded the sentence incorrect). 68% regarded the sentence correct. This result supports hypothesis 2(2).

Test item 14

The boys eat more than the girls (incorrect).

18% had this item correct. 82% regarded this sentence correct. This result supports hypothesis 2(3).

Test item 19

He loved a company he had with him.

52% had it wrong. (Their answers were "correct"). 48% had it correct. The results support hypothesis 2(2).

Post test item (vii)

In our kitchen there is the table and chair (incorrect).

72% considered the sentence incorrect, hence getting it right. 28% considered it correct. This result refutes hypothesis 2(3).

Post test item (ix)

My family has no money to buy the television but I look for the television next door (incorrect).

76% considered the sentence incorrect, hence getting it right. 24% considered the sentence correct. This result refutes hypothesis 2(3).

Post test item (xiii)

Our next door neighbour is a old lady who like to send me to the shop with my bicycle (incorrect).

90% regarded the sentence as incorrect and 10% as correct. This result refutes hypothesis 2(2).

ARTICLES

ITEM	Support hypothesis (%)	Experimental group (%)	Control group (%)	Refutes hypothesis (%)	Experimental group (%)	Control group (%)
Test 2	64	44	20	36	06	30
Test 3	60	44	16	40	06	34
Test 12	68	48	20	32	02	30
Test 14	82	50	32	18	00	18
Test 19	52	40	12	48	10	38
Post test (vii)	28	04	24	72	46	26
Post test (ix)	24	04	20	76	46	30
Post test (xiii)	10	00	10	90	50	40

4.3.7. Number

The structure and environment of English number are different to those of Tswana number, thus causing erroneous use of English number. Interlingual and intralingual transfer may be causes of this. Numbers refer to singularity and/or plurality. In English plurality is indicated by the suffix -s, -ies, etc, whilst in Tswana the noun class determines the plurality (see lesson on number).

The lesson on number consisted of three periods of thirty minutes each.

4.3.8. Lesson on Number

Number is singularity and/or plurality. In Tswana number is determined by the noun and objectival and/or subjectival concord. There are 17 noun classes (singular and plural) in Tswana, thus the plurality of a noun depends on the noun class. In English number is determined by the noun, auxiliary verb and the verb in the present tense, e.g.

(1) The boy eats bread (*Masimane o ja Senkgwe*)

The boy (singular) eats (singular). The verb is suffixed with an -s to show singularity. This is a misleading concept to the Tswana pupil because -s is associated with plurality, e.g.

(2) The boys eat bread (*Basimane ba ja Senkgwe*).

The boys (plural) eat (plural). The noun is suffixed with an -s to show plurality. The verb eat shows plurality. This is also a misleading concept to the Tswana pupil.

Let us see what happens when an auxiliary verb is used.

(3) The girl is eating

(4) The girls are eating

The -s is retained on the noun (to indicated plurality) and is changes to are, but the verb remains the same.

(5) *The girl is eats

(6) *The girls are eat

In the case of sentences 1 and 2, the Tswana pupil might be tempted to say

- (7) *The boy eat bread
- (8) *The boys eats bread

When the verb is in the past tense and future tense, the verb is not suffixed with -s to show plurality, e.g.

- (9) The boy ate bread
- (10) The boys ate bread
- (11) *The boy ates bread
- (12) The boy will eat bread
- (13) The boys will eat bread
- (14) *The boy will eats bread

Number and the conjunction and

- (15) John and Peter (two people, boys) are eating
- (16) John and Peter eat bread
- (17) *John and Peter eats bread
- (18) John and Peter will eat bread

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When two names or nouns are joined by and the verb takes the plural form, but when and is used with two adjectives to qualify a noun (in the singular) the (auxiliary) verb takes the singular form.

- (19) The black and white jersey is dirty
- (20) The black and white jersey are dirty.

Number and collective nouns

Collective nouns are a unit, thus a unit is a representation of one. Thus the (auxiliary) verb will take the singular form, e.g.

- (21) The herd of cattle is his.
- (22) The committee recommends the use of this document.
- (23) A student representative committee is elected.

4.3.9. Remedial lesson on number

The structure and environment of English number are different to those of Tswana number, thus causing erroneous use of English number. Interlingual and Intralingual transfer may be causes of this. Number refers to singularity and/or plurality. In English, plurality is indicated by suffixing -s to nouns e.g.

- (1) *The boy kicks the ball* (singular)
- (2) *The boys kick the ball* (plural)
- (3) *The boy kicks the balls* (plural)
- (4) *The boys kick the balls* (plural)

Sentences (2) to (4) are all correct versions of the plural form of sentence 1. The nouns can also take a different morpheme to form plurality e.g.

- (5) *Thabo has grown a tooth.*
- (6) *Thabo has grown teeth.*

We talk of regular nouns (suffixing -s) such as in sentences (2) to (4) and irregular nouns (changing -oo- to -ee- or others) such as in sentence (6).

The following environments are restricted to English number.

The verb agrees with its *subject* in number. A singular subject is followed by a singular verb (except for first person singular). A singular verb is indicated by suffixing -(e)s to it (present tense only) e.g. *The boy kicks the balls* (sentence (3)).

- (7) **I kicks the ball.*
- (8) *I kick the ball.*
- (9) **Peter shall goes to town.*
- (10) *Peter shall go to town.*

In Tswana plurality is indicated by changing the prefix of the noun class (this means the noun is affected) and the subjectival concord e.g.

- (11) *Mosimane o raga kgwele* (The boy kicks the ball)
- (12) *Basimane ba raga kgwele* (The boys kick the ball).

However, the literal translation of sentence (12) is **The boys kicks the ball.*

Unlike English, the Tswana verb is not a number indicator.

Demonstratives, auxiliary verb and number

In both languages demonstratives can be used as pronouns and can also be used together with the subject e.g.

- (13) These are beautiful flowers. (Tse, di dintle ditšheše)
- (14) These flowers are beautiful. (Ditšheše tse, di dintle)
- (15) *This (flowers) are beautiful.
- (16) *These flower are beautiful.
- (17) *These (flowers) is beautiful.

The demonstrative pronoun, (the subject) and the auxiliary verb are number determiners.

The pronunciation of this and these causes a problem to Tswana pupils thus influencing their use and writing.

Has and *have* are also big problems to Tswana pupils. These forms of auxiliary verbs in Tswana have only one form hence their erroneous use in English. e.g.

- (43) **She sees that time have gone* (O bona gore nako e ile).

Types of errors committed (number)

Omission: The *-(e)s* (number determiner) is often left out to indicate singularity in the verb.

There exists a misconception that *-(e)s* is a plural maker e.g.

- (18) **Isabel think that the African children*
- (19) **John go to town by bus*

Addition: The *-s* and *-(e)s* in the subject and verb respectively are also overused thus causing an error, e.g.

- (20) **My feets are sore.*
- (21) **Boys eats more than girls.*
- (22) **John and Tom goes to London next year.*

Substitution: The auxiliary verbs and demonstratives are common examples of substitution where *has* is used instead of *have* and *this* instead of *these*.

(23) **John have gone to town*

(24) **The boys has eaten all the food*

Rule: All the verbs ending in -ss, -tch, -sh, -ch, -o, are suffixed with -es when the subject is in the singular (except you) and the sentence is in the present tense.

Rule: "Articles are used with nouns only. When the noun is in the plural a/an is never used". (Those are direct words of a pupil). Implication: an and a are indefinite articles indicating singularity.

Pupils were then ordered to sit in groups and talk about anything they preferred to. They had to take turns and while the one was talking, the others had to listen carefully and note the errors he/she made so that they could discuss them. In the case of misunderstanding, the error was brought to the attention of the whole group and discussed.



Hypothesis 3

The Tswana student has a tendency to

- 1) suffix an -s to the verb when the noun is in the plural (the -s is associated with plurality)
- 2) omit the -s of the verb when the noun is in the singular
- 3) not changing the auxiliary verb and demonstratives into plural when the noun is in the plural form,
- 4) not put the (auxiliary) verb in the plural form for the conjunction and.

Essays I and II

- The students they say she teach them but she do not like them
- I remember one day the students wants to beat us
- I believe art is a way one show what he think
- Another girl say his uncle ... city

- The teacher ... Mr Matseke call me to the office
- John you see this pictures, they are made by this hands
- Then I was ... because he teach me art
- I know ... work don't die

Test item 7

George and Tom is my brother (incorrect).

52% gave a wrong answer. (They said correct). 48% gave a correct answer. This result supports hypotheses 3(4) and 3(3),

Test item 8

Thandi want to write a letter to her mother (incorrect).

82% had this item incorrect (They marked "correct"). 18% got the item right. The result of this item supports hypothesis 3(2).

Test item 13

One of the day you will have it (incorrect)

52% had the answer wrong. (Their answers were "correct"). 48% had it right. The result of this item supports hypothesis 3(2).

Test item 14

The boys eats more than the girls (incorrect).

68% had the answer wrong (Their answers were "correct"). 32% had it right. The results of this item supports hypothesis 3(1).

Test item 15

If I were you, I would be happy (Incorrect).

64% had the answer wrong. (Their answers were "correct"). 36% had it right. The result of this item supports hypothesis 3(4).

Test items 17 and 18

Bread and butter are usually what I have for breakfast (correct)

A black and white jersey is missing (correct)

70% and 60% incorrect are the results of items 17 and 18 respectively. They support the results of hypothesis 3(4).

Test item 22

News informs us of the incidents around us (incorrect)

76% had this item wrong (their answers were "correct"). 24% had the item correct. This result supports hypothesis 3(1).

Post test item (iii)

My father work at the Shoprite-Checkers (incorrect).

64% had the answer right (Their answers were "correct") and 36% had it wrong. The results refute hypothesis 3(2).

Post test item (iv)

My mother have a baby boy. She cry the whole night when we wants to sleep and my mother give her milk (incorrect).

68% had their answers as incorrect (thus correct). 32% had it wrong. The result refutes hypotheses 3(1-4).

Post test item (v)

I have a cat and dog. My cat sleep inside the house and my dog sleep outside (incorrect).

92% had the answer as incorrect (thus "correct") and 8% had it as correct. The results refute hypothesis 3(2).

Post test item (viii)

Mother cook nice food for the family everyday (incorrect)

90% had it correct (their answers were "incorrect"). 10% had it wrong. The result refutes hypotheses 3(2).

Post test item (x)

When my father return back from work everyday he bring us fruit (incorrect).

86% got the answer right (their answers were "incorrect") and 14% had it wrong. The results refute hypothesis 3(2).

Post test items (xii and (xiii)

My father say I must study hard so that I can become a doctor (incorrect).

88% had it right and 12% had it wrong. The result refutes hypotheses 3(2).

Post test item (xv)

Every Sunday my family go to church to sing ... God (incorrect).

60% had the answer wrong and 40% had it correct. The results refute hypothesis 3(4).

NUMBER

ITEM	Support hypothesis (%)	Experimental group (%)	Control group (%)	Refutes hypothesis (%)	Experimental group (%)	Control group (%)
Test 7	52	06	46	48	40	08
Test 8	82	34	48	18	16	02
Test 13	52	12	40	48	38	10
Test 14	68	18	50	32	32	00
Test 15	64	14	50	36	36	00
Test 17	70	22	48	30	28	02
Test 18	60	12	48	40	38	02
Test 22	76	26	50	24	24	00
Post test (iii)	36	00	36	64	50	14
Post test (iv)	32	02	30	68	48	20
Post test (v)	08	00	08	92	50	42
Post test (viii)	10	00	10	90	50	40
Post test (x)	14	02	12	86	48	38
Post test (xiii)	12	00	12	88	50	38
Post test (xv)	40	04	36	60	46	14

CHAPTER 5

5.1. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The tables and graphs definitely show that there is a difference in the performance of the students. The errors they made in the beginning as we can see examples from the two essays were far more than the end product (see graphs for the post test). The results will be discussed in two modes:

- The improvement of each pupil
- The comparison between the experimental group and the control group.

5.1.1. The comparison between the experimental group and the control group

The table below shows the performance of the pupils in their very first speeches. I have already said that errors were identified per 100 words. The group was not yet divided into two groups.



Table 4.

Pupil No.	The pronoun	The article	Number			
1	4	6	8			
2	6	3	8			
3	2	4	7			
4	6	5	9	Pronoun	36	= 3,6
5	1	2	5	Article	34	= 3,4
6	4	2	5	Number	66	= 6,6
7	3	3	8			
8	2	4	4			
9	3	3	5			
10	5	2	7			
11	1	2	4			
12	2	1	6			
13	0	3	3			
14	2	2	5			
15	1	3	4	Pronoun	25	= 2,5
16	0	2	3	Article	32	= 3,2
17	4	5	9	Number	55	= 5,5
18	5	7	9			
19	6	3	7			
20	4	4	5			
	61	66	121			

Table 4 clearly shows that number posed a very serious problem to the pupils. Let us now look at table 5 which shows an improvement because of the remedial lessons attended.

Table 5.

GROUP A				GROUP B			
Pupil No.	Pronoun	Article	Number	Pupil No.	Pronoun	Article	Number
1	2	1	6	1	1	1	2
2	2	2	8	2	2	0	4
3	0	2	4	3	0	2	3
4	3	4	6	4	2	1	3
5	0	1	5	5	0	2	2
6	2	0	3	6	0	2	3
7	2	1	5	7	3	3	6
8	2	2	4	8	3	5	8
9	1	2	3	9	4	3	6
10	2	2	5	10	2	3	3
Total	16	17	49	Total	17	22	40
Average	1,6	1,7	4,9	Average	1,7	2,2	4

The pronoun, Groups A and B	=	<u>Total</u>	33	=	<u>Average</u>	1,65
The article, Groups A and B	=		39	=		1,95
Number, Groups A and B	=		89	=		4,45

Table 5 shows the division of the group into two groups. 1-10 group A and 11-20 group B. The number of errors has decreased drastically, especially group A (Experimental group). The drastic decrease of errors in the experimental group may be attributed to the remedial lessons.

The Pronoun

In table 4, 1-10 (Group A) made 36 errors on the pronoun. In table 5 they made 16 errors - an improvement of 58% and Group B made 25 errors in table 4 and 17 in table 5, an improvement of 42,5%.

The article

In table 4, 1-10 (Group A) made 34 mistakes on the article and in table 5, 17 errors were made, an improvement of 50%. Group B made 32 errors on the article in table 4 but in table 5, 22 errors were made, an improvement of 31%.

Number

Table 4 shows group A with 66 errors and table 5 with 49 errors. Group B made 55 errors in table 4 and 40 errors in table 5. This is an improvement of 32% and 22% respectively.

Note: The above results were tabulated after lessons had been given for four months, i.e. the progress noted is that of four months. Let us now look at Table 6.

Table 6.

GROUP A				GROUP B			
Pupil No.	Pronoun	Article	Number	Pupil No.	Pronoun	Article	Number
1	1	1	3	1	1	0	1
2	2	2	4	2	1	0	3
3	0	1	2	3	0	2	2
4	1	2	3	4	1	1	3
5	0	0	2	5	0	0	1
6	1	0	1	6	0	1	3
7	1	1	3	7	2	1	4
8	0	1	2	8	2	4	5
9	0	0	3	9	2	2	4
10	1	1	3	10	1	2	2
Total	7	9	26	Total	10	13	28
Average	0,7	0,9	2,6	Average	1	1,3	2,8

		Total	Average
The pronoun, Groups A and B	=	17	= 0,85
The article, Groups A and B	=	22	= 1,1
Number, Groups A and B	=	54	= 2,7

Table 6 shows that Group A makes less than 1 error for both the pronoun and the article whilst group B still makes 1 and more. Number is the area which still reflects the most errors which pupils make at an average of almost 3 per 100 words, but Group A members still commit fewer number errors than members of Group B.

Before the division of the group into two groups, the average of all these language categories of the first 10 pupils were higher than that of the second 10 pupils. After eight months

(figure 6) it is shown that group A's averages in all three language categories were lower than that of group B. This implies that group A members made fewer errors than the members of Group B.

5.1.2. The improvement of each pupil

Six pupils were selected randomly for discussion - Pupils 6, 3, 1, 11, 13 and 18.

Pupil 1 shows a very big improvement especially during the second half of the project, i.e. from Figure 5 to Figure 6. He managed to eliminate or drastically reduce errors in the use of the article in the first four months.

Pupil 3. The first four months were her best months of improvement. The pronoun errors were completely done away with and seemed "permanent" as we can see that no pronoun errors were later made. The article and number errors decreased significantly.

Pupil 6. The article errors were the first to be corrected and also "permanently". It is also a good attempt to decrease the other language category errors.

Pupil 11. No improvement was made in the use of pronouns. A very slow improvement in the article and number was shown.

Pupil 13. The pupil had no errors (problems) on the pronoun, no improvement on number for the first four months and very little on number after eight months.

Pupil 18. There is improvement on the errors for the first four months on all three language categories, even if the improvement is slow. Improvement also shows after eight months. In comparison to the improvement of the pupils in Group A, the improvement is very slow.

5.2. THE ROLE OF THE REMEDIAL LESSONS AND EXERCISES

The remedial lessons played a very positive role in the performance of the experimental group. This point is seen by the improvement of their (group A's) results. The remedial lessons also had various forms i.e. it was not just a classroom instructional situation. There were games, which made learning natural and fun. The remedial lessons were more communicative than the school lessons.

More exposure to the target language gives one a better chance of knowing the language better. Extra lessons in the form of remedial lessons gave the experimental group an extra chance to hear or speak the target language. As the saying goes "Practice makes perfect".

Drillwork in the form of remedial lessons also played an important role. Most of the information in the remedial lessons was revision of previous information. The only difference might be rephrasing or a second chance of hearing it because it is believed that some people can only hear and understand when information is repeated.

Self-discovery and active physical participation in the remedial lessons where the pupils had to form rules or interpret them and listening to one of them speaking and the rest identifying errors to correct them also played an important role in ascertaining that the errors are identified and eliminated. The more senses are involved in learning, the easier it is to learn and the longer the information stays in the memory.

In conclusion, the remedial lessons could be responsible for the elimination of errors and the improvement in the use of the three language categories discussed in this study.

CHAPTER 6

6.1. CONCLUSION

The resurgence of interest in error analysis apparently resulted from the search for an alternative to contrastive analysis which, of course, was associated with the behaviourist model of language acquisition. Error analysis took into account the creative aspect of language and placed the learner at the centre of attention in the process of acquiring a second/foreign language.

Richards (1974) groups errors into three classes: interference errors, intralingual errors and developmental errors.

- Interference errors are identified as instances where characteristics of one language are being carried over into another language.
- Intralingual errors are those which reflect general characteristics or rule learning, such as faulty generalisation, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which the rules apply.
- Developmental errors illustrate the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about a second/foreign language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or textbook.

Interference from the mother tongue is clearly a major source of errors in second language learning and contrastive analysis has proved valuable in locating areas of interlanguage interference. The errors do have an impact on the cohesive writing of the students' work. An English speaker may be confused or may misinterpret some ideas but an English second language speaker (who knows the derivation or causes of errors) may understand what the student implies. The remedial lessons proved to be one of the measures that can be taken to eliminate errors (as can be seen in the difference in the groups of the experimental group and the control group).

Because in most cases errors are extracted from the corpus, they may mislead the listener/reader or the reader/listener might misinterpret them. Errors must be read from context so that connectivity and coherence can be seen. Some errors do not grossly change the meaning of an utterance or the essence of a conversation especially if the derivation of the error is known. We have seen in the study that errors in context do not hinder interpretation, thus the pupils' writings were cohesive.

Native language structures can influence the interpretation of the target language's message and, at times, the influence leads to learners making errors in the target language. The interpretation can also be affected due to the errors especially when cultural assumptions differ. The errors then need to be identified and analysed. Contrastive analyses can be one of the methods used to identify and analyse the errors, and it has to be established how the errors affected the cohesion of the text.

The aims of the research have been achieved in the following ways:

- The errors made by the pupils are common. The underlying reasons could be first language transfer, as seen from the types of errors made by the pupils. The contrastive analysis also clearly brings out the difference in the grammatical structures of both languages.
- The remedial lessons had an influence in the reduction of errors. The number of errors made by the experimental group were far less than the number of errors made by the control group.
- If context connectors are used incorrectly, it might lead to misinterpretation and/or misreference. The connectedness of the sentences is also important because the reader is able to link and understand all the characters of the text. Pronouns and articles as well as number are major connectors of a text.

6.2. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Although this study was conducted on a small number of pupils in one school, the indications are that at least a few of these findings can be confirmed by most of the researchers of the same topic and can thus help them to understand some of the causes of errors in the Tswana group. Further research must be done to confirm whether the errors are universal or regional or specific to a school.

Another important aspect to be researched is whether the remedial lessons can play a role in the elimination of language errors i.e. must error analysis be compulsorily accompanied by a remedial programme to eradicate errors.

The impact of errors in interpretation of a text should also be studied. How do errors affect interpretation? What type of errors affect interpretation? Should the errors not be taken as a fossilised form of erroneous English? We must start looking at English in different forms (per language group) as is the case with Black English in the United States of America.



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APPENDIX 1

- (a) Dosie is what I would call a well-travelled girl. 1 seems to have been all over 2 world and by 3 account 4 was done with Mills and Boons and into the 5 stuff at 6 tender age of 14. Dosie is 7 kind of person 8 would want as 9 partner in 10 game of Trivial Pursuit, invite 11 for Scrabble at 12 own peril. 13 favourite magazine, 14 People, 15 is 16 last thing 17 she reads before 18 19 at night. 20 love Dosie, 21 do not know about 22. 23 may have 24 own Dosie too.
- (b) Tell me which words are verbs and which are nouns in the passage you have just listened to: (Replay the cassette).

Here are some of the erroneous utterances from the student's stories about their families.

- (i) My family is very big. Is my father, my mother, my sister, my brother and me.
- (ii) My family lives in the house that is beautiful.
- (iii) My father work at the Shoprite-Checkers.
- (iv) My mother have a baby boy, She cry the whole night when we wants to sleep and my mother give her milk.
- (v) I have a cat and dog. My cat sleep inside the house and my dog sleep outside.
- (vi) My brother and my sister they want to buy me clothes for the school because my mother is die.
- (vii) In our kitchen there is the table and chair.
- (viii) Mother cook nice foods for the family everyday.
- (ix) My family have no money to buy the television but I looked for the television next door.

(c) Some of the following sentences are correct and some are incorrect. Indicate whether the sentence is correct (C) or wrong (W).

- Item 1. My sister she is very beautiful.
- Item 2. I want to be a artist when I finish school.
- Item 3. The Durban City is very big and busy.
- Item 4. To be a leader is very difficult.
- Item 5. The teacher that teaches us book education is kind.
- Item 6. Pictures are pleasant to look at.
- Item 7. George and Tom is my brothers.
- Item 8. Thandi want to write a letter to her mother.
- Item 9. John and I are going to see him tomorrow.
- Item 10. The boy does not want to wash his shirt.
- Item 11. Lydia showed me his new dress.
- Item 12. Did you see a boy who visited us last Wednesday?
- Item 13. One of the day, you will have it.
- Item 14. The boys eats more than the girls.
- Item 15. If I was you, I would be happy.
- Item 16. Miriam said she wants to go to town.
- Item 17. Bread and butter are usually what I have for breakfast.
- Item 18. A black and white jersey is missing.
- Item 19. He loved a company he had with him.
- Item 20. She was in the state of shock after she heard of the accident.
- Item 21. God bless Africa.
- Item 22. News informs us of the incidents around us.
- Item 23. The boy have won the game.

Answers to the exercises on test items

(a)	(c)
1. she	1. Wrong
2. the	2. Wrong
3. her	3. Correct
4. she	4. Correct
5. the	5. Correct
6. a	6. Correct
7. the	7. Wrong
8. you	8. Wrong
9. s	9. Correct
10. the	10. Correct
11. her	11. Wrong
12. her	12. Wrong
13. Her	13. Wrong
14. is	14. Wrong
15. It	15. Wrong
16. the	16. Correct
17. she	17. Wrong
18. she/they	18. Correct
19. sleeps/sleep	19. Wrong
20. People/everyone	20. Wrong
21. They	21. Correct
22. They	22. Wrong
23. one	23. Wrong
24. his/her	



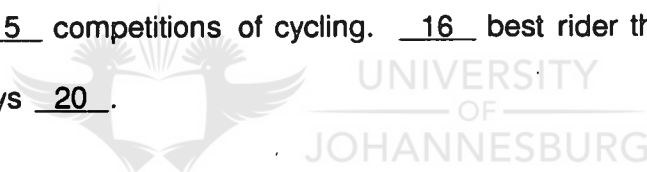
APPENDIX 2EXERCISES ON THE REMEDIAL PROGRAMME

These exercises on the remedial lessons were carried out so as to determine the effect of the remedial lessons.

Exercise 1

(a) Fill in the missing word(s) to complete the passage.

Yesterday morning I met John and Mary. 1 were on 2 way to school. 3 school 4 at eight o'clock. 5 6 riding bicycles. Mary's 7 red and John's blue. 8 parents bought 9 10 on 11 birthdays. Riding 12 bicycle 13 fun. 14 bicycle shop in town normally 15 competitions of cycling. 16 best rider then 17 18 19 bicycle. John always 20.

Exercise 2

(b) Correct the words in brackets or correct the whole statement.

- (a) As a (members) of the team, I support sports through Education.
- (b) There are many people (that is) prepared to donate money.
- (c) We have said enough on all (this) issues.
- (d) We need vice-captain.
- (e) Their the people who we are playing for.
- (f) These is manifested in the following facts:
- (g) How can we play with them such players?
- (h) Tom say she appreciate that who took pain.

- (i) I and Sheila goes to the match.
- (j) Mrs X came to see (his) son plays.
- (k) I thinks draw is best.
- (l) I have the interest of the team at my heart.

Exercise 3

The following game is played:

The teacher throws a ball to a pupil. As she does so, she says:

Teacher: I throw the ball.

She then asks: What do I do?

Pupils: You throw the ball.

Each child gets a chance to be the teacher and the pupil so that the pupil must use *I throw ...* and *You throw ...* and the question form.

Teacher (giving the ball to a girl): She throws the ball. What does she do?

Pupils: She throws the ball.

(As in the first instance, the same is done here).

Other forms such as he (a boy) throws, we throw, they throw, etc are drilled.

Pupils are then told to sit in groups of 3 or 4 and make sentences using all the personal pronouns with the following verbs:

clean, write, eat, sing, bake, wash, watch, try, cry, plead, kiss.

Exercise 4Rules through induction or deduction.

In some instances examples are given and the group has to formulate a rule governing the situation e.g. kiss, hiss, miss, watch, wash, search, go, do, etc.



APPENDIX 3

Essay 1 (To be a leader is difficult)

In 1993 the Principal of our school told the students that is time to choose a students' representative council. This was because the students was chasing away Mrs High who was teaching them Biology. The students they say she teach them but she do not like them. A SRC member, ment problems to me. Anyway, I agreed to be one. The problem of Mrs Hugh continued. He was asked to stay home until the problem is solved. The principal was not happy with some of the students who were SRC members but the students told him that they choose anyone who they want, to lead them. Me and my friends held regular discussions over leadership so that they can help me to overcome this burden. As a leader you cannot satisfy all of the people at the same time. I remember one day the students wants to beat us and we ran away. They were saying we are backbiting them and we are sellouts. I then decided to leave it. I never want forget that day because the day with such incidents will be a story to tell my kids.

Essay 2 (I want to be a artist)

I believe art is a way one show what he think. It is a gift from God. When I am at home I sit and draw the whole day. My parents they like to buy me some paints. I make beautiful pictures. I sell it when I am finished. The people they say they like my pictures because I draw them very nice. Another girl his uncle passed at a school of art in the Durban City. I also like it. I think I will be there one day. I will make big money out of pictures. The newspaper and television will call me to come and talk to the young generation. I will be proud and happy. The teacher of art in my school Mr Matseke call me to the office to discuss a future of my art. One day he called me and he says: "John you see this pictures, they are

made by this hands". Then I was so happy for him because he teach me art. To be a boy is better because the girls they don't like art very much. I and my teacher make a plan for me to be a artist. I know a artist die but his work don't die.

